To What Extent Can the Use of
'Story'
Provide the Basis for an
Effective English Language Learning Programme for
Five to Eleven Year Old French Students
Learning English as a
Foreign Language

Geneffa Ahmed Virjee

PhD

University of York

Education

December 2019

Abstract

In the current global context of demanding greater mastery of English, researching higher efficiency of teaching approaches, strategies and materials for young learners (YLs) appears a crucial area of inquiry. This thesis proposes a theoretical framework for the development of a 'story approach' for primary age English foreign language (EFL) learners in contexts displaying restricted instruction and target language contact. The thesis reports on a three year study of a 'story approach' English Language Learning Programme, incorporating native language use, for French native students.

This mixed methods longitudinal research involved a case study group (CSG: n=7/n=4) integrated into a traditional class over primary years one to three. Years one (n=21) and two (n=23) involved cross-sectional studies. Year three culminated in an outcome assessment; results from the intervention 'story approach' group (n=11) were compared to the general approach (current commercial programmes) group (n=11) results, and measured against the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) A1 qualitative-spoken language level. Purposive sampling permitted gathering data from participants conforming to specific criteria, namely monolingual French native-speakers with no additional English outside one hour (approximately) weekly school instruction. Quantitative and qualitative data was gathered principally through recording transcripts of the intervention classes and year three outcome assessment.

Results demonstrated YL EFL oral communicative skills progressed over the two cross-sectional studies. Findings were statistically significant in year one for production of spontaneous language and phrases of two words or more, and their correlation with meaning. Findings in year two were statistically significant for the production of phrases. Year three outcome assessment results demonstrated statistical significance for the production of phrases for the intervention 'story approach' group, versus the general approach control group, and together with qualitative results established alignment for the intervention group with the CEFR A1 qualitative-speaking skills level.

Contents

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Chapter 3. A Theoretical Framework and 'story approach' to EFL Learning

Chapter 5. The Pilot Intervention and Observation Study   164

Chapter 6. First Year Primary Study 2013-2014

Chapter 8. Third Year Primary Study 2015-2016 and Case Study Group

Chapter 9. Conclusions 366

Appendices

List of Tables

List of Figures

Acknowledgements

A very heartfelt thank you to the school, the teachers, the parents, and especially, the wonderful children, for their unfailing confidence in my research, their sincerity in engaging in this project, and above all without whom this study would never have seen the light of day.

A very warm thank you to my supervisor Dr. Claudine Bowyer-Crane who has encouraged and supported me on this long and rocky road.

To my supervisor, Professor Leah Roberts, a very grateful thank you, for her most valuable comments and commitment, despite numerous responsibilities, during this Covid-19 pandemic.

To Dr. Annie Hughes and Professor Chris Kyriacou my appreciation for their remarks, confidence, and wisdom on this research journey.

A very loving thank you to my beloved children…
who never ceased to believe in me.

And for my beloved mum and dad.

"What makes the desert beautiful,' said the little prince, 'is that somewhere it hides a well..."
― Antoine de Saint-Exupéry, The Little Prince

Author's declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

1. Introduction

The impetus for this study is heavily embedded in a firm belief that, in the domain of learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), nursery/primary school students in France are hungry to learn but dramatically undernourished. The promising results of previous research using 'story' for EFL teaching and learning (Ahmed-Virjee, 2011), together with a call for research in the domain of young learner (YL), EFL instruction, (Butler and Le, 2018; Butler, Sayer and Huang, 2018; Cabrera and Martinez, 2001; Murphy, 2018) led to this present study; and more so in view of English as a lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2005).

Teaching EFL to this age group combines a wonderful mix of early childhood development (Donaldson, 1978), educational psychology (Brown, 2000), and cognitive growth (Vygotsky, 1978), as the students you start off with in nursery class at five years old are very different individuals when they leave primary school at the age of eleven. The idea of having contributed to that development leaves one with an overriding sense of achievement, but above all, a deep sense of responsibility.

The importance of language, and therefore meaning, in children's lives as they grow to be part of a world community, is firmly evidenced in Lee's anecdote (1965), where the words "sit there for the present" (p. 50), spoken by an adult, are confused in the young child's mind with "present" meaning gift, inevitably leading to grave disappointment when no gift came. The egocentricity of language is illustrated through this exchange and permits appreciating to an even greater extent the fundamental issue of meaning for foreign language (FL) and EFL young learners.

1.1. Purpose of the Study

My experience of primary school EFL teaching allowed me to make observations concerning: the content of commercially available EFL programmes for primary school learners in France; the assortment of EFL materials selected by over-stressed teachers who are not consistently EFL qualified and for whom English is also often a foreign language; the lack of coordination between levels of English in different grades; and the lack of appropriate classroom assessments to truly situate student's progress over the five-years of primary education. Furthermore, in recent years, proficiency in language learning has become increasingly standardised with the development of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR; also abbreviated as CEFRL: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages; *Cadre Européen Commun de Référence pour les Langues: CECRL*). This seems to demonstrate a growing need for comprehensive EFL programmes including practical assessment tools suited to the developmental needs of primary school students.

EFL learning has been greatly enhanced through the CEFR, published in 2001 (Council of Europe, 2018f, Council of Europe, 2018g) by the language policy division of the Council of Europe (Martyniuk and Noijons, 2007). This provides a set of criteria for 6 levels of proficiency on a scale ranging from A1 to C2 for the teaching, learning and assessment for modern languages. A1-A2 refers to basic users, B1-B2 refers to independent users and C1-C2 refers to proficient users concerning: speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills (Council of Europe, 2018d; Council of Europe, 2018e).

This framework provides the basis for the development of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, the development of language teaching and learning materials and the assessment of proficiency in language competencies (Council of Europe, 2018e). As a result, the French Ministry of Education (FME) has incorporated this scale into the modern language programmes of schools in France with the A1 level (CEFR/CECRL) being the benchmark for achievement by the end of primary school (education.gouv.fr, 2019d; Primlangues, 2018b).

Consequent to the CEFR, a number of publishers (e.g. Hatier, Bayard, Magnard, Hachette, Cambridge University Press) who specialise in YL, EFL course books, have incorporated the CEFR criteria in their publications, thus also harmonizing with the directives of the FME for primary classes (Primlangues, 2018a). These course books together with EFL internet materials are the main source of instruction for YLs in primary school today for the 90 minutes of weekly instruction recommended by the FME. The question which now arises is do the approach, the materials, the teaching and assessment methods of these resources enable French speaking EFL students to attain the A1 level on the CEFR scale by the end of primary school? As there are no standardised tests generally in practice in primary schools in France and no generalised instruments of assessment this question would currently be hard to answer at the national level (Primlangues, 2018b).

Within this context of EFL instruction for YLs this research study particularly focused on oral communicative skills. A foreign language (FL) learning framework supported by theoretical underpinnings (Lederman and Lederman, 2015) was constructed according to an interrelationship of phenomena encouraging the development of communicative oral skills. This theoretical framework permitted the development of an EFL 'story approach' to teaching and assessment leading to an English Language Learning Programme (ELLP) for primary school students (described in chapter three). While being particularly suited to the changing developmental needs of these YLs, the 'story approach' ELLP incorporated the CEFR criteria for the development of the A1 level of qualitative aspects of spoken language (Council of Europe, 2019) by the end of third year primary.

Consequently, the three principle aims of this study were:

1) to qualitatively validate this theoretical framework, and to trial the 'story approach' English Language Learning Programme (ELLP) which integrated instruments for on-going progress and assessment for French primary school children;

2) to quantitatively and qualitatively assess the impact of the 'story approach' ELLP in developing oral communicative skills in these YLs;

3) to compare results of an intervention and case study group's (CSG) EFL oral communicative skills development using the 'story approach' instruction, with results from the general approach to EFL instruction employed in primary school within the context of this three year project.

These research aims subsumed five research questions.

To what extent can the following be developed in French primary school EFL students through the theoretical framework and a 'story approach' to EFL instruction, and to what extent do they contribute to the development of speaking and oral communicative skills:

1) the understanding of metalinguistic skills (MLS), including the use of lexis, phrases, formulaic speech, pronunciation, and pragmatics (language use in context);

2) the understanding of metacognitive skills (MCS), including learning certain principle rules of language, and language development through negotiation of meaning and auto-correction;

3) the understanding of meaning for creative EFL oral communicative competence including the use of native language (French) as a vehicle for conveying meaning within EFL instruction through a 'story approach' compared to precluding its use within a generalised approach to EFL instruction;

4) oral communicative skills production, comprehension, and questioning (asking-answering) through a 'story approach' compared to a generalised approach to EFL teaching and learning, and how does each compare to the CEFR A1 level (Service-Publique.fr, 2019);

5) engagement with the 'story approach' activities and materials as seen through participation and EFL oral communicative skills progress, and what would be the feasibility of the 'story approach' within a real teaching context.

These research questions were addressed through a three-year parallel mixed-methods research design (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The study was twofold involving a cross-sectional research study in years one and two and a longitudinal project involving a case study group. The group was formed at the conclusion of the pilot project and culminated in primary year three where results of EFL oral skills development through a 'story approach', were compared with those of students having been instructed through a general approach. Quantitative and qualitative data was principally gathered through video recordings of the weekly classes.

Within this study, metalinguistic skills is defined as the capacity to identify the elements or "Metalinguistic labels" (Cameron, 2001, p. 105) which compose language (e.g. differentiating words, phrases and questions, or adjectives and nouns). It is awareness of the elements constructing language and includes vocabulary development (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Metacognitive skills is defined as the capacity to centre learning involving "linking new information with already known material" (Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 64), for example: -understanding the structure of language and building grammar rules consciously; -being able to differentiate between structure in first and foreign language and applying rules correctly; "evaluating" learning and "self-monitoring" (Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 64) e.g. noticing one's own structural mistakes and self-correcting. "Metacognitive control is one of the characteristics of good thinking and learning" (Fisher, 2005, p. 35); "children are made aware of their own learning" (Fisher, 2005, p. 47) e.g. consciously understanding and using language structure; this goes beyond metalinguistic awareness.

Formulaic speech (research question one), and code-switching, linked to native language use in research question three, are defined as follows. Formulaic speech is language learned in chunks as whole phrases rather than single words (Lightbown and Spada, 2006); it is unanalysed chunks of language, which are learned as chunks and reproduced as chunks e.g. "My name is…". Code-switching involves alternating between two or more languages whilst talking (Cameron, 2001), even in the same phrase, e.g. "*Je suis* happy!" (I am happy). In this study, code-switching involves native

language use for the explanation of meaning; it is also a feature of developing skills within EFL/ESL instruction (Cameron, 2001).

1.2. The Research Context

This section focuses on the research context of EFL teaching in French nursery and primary school in France, and concerns 1) French and the role of languages within the national and global context; 2) The CEFR and how it integrates within the French system of education; 3) The educational system in France; and 4) EFL teaching in French nursery and primary school within this research context.

1.2.1. French and the Role of Languages within the National and Global Context

France's population is estimated at 67 186 638 million including the five overseas departments of French Guiana, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Mayotte, and Reunion, with a majority of 65 018 096 million in Metropolitan France (Insee, 2018). French is the official language and is spoken by the majority. Creole patois, and Mahorian (a dialect of Swahili) are also spoken in the overseas departments; in France Metropolitan, regional languages and dialects include Provencal, Breton, Alsatian, Corsican, Catalan, Basque, Flemish, Occitan and Picard, though declining (indexmundi France Languages, 2018).

French is spoken by about 300 million people worldwide and is estimated to be the world's fifth most widely spoken language following Mandarin Chinese, English, Spanish and Arabic (France Diplomatie, 2019). English is presently the world's widest learned second/foreign language and due to its rising influence, in most countries is required by ministries to be taught to some degree (English Language Statistics, n.d.). Teaching in English is gradually becoming more current in institutions of higher education in France though there is strong resistance to its wider spread use by partisans of French

language heritage (Poirier, 2013). This resistance appears to spring from not only a purely linguistic viewpoint but also from the wealth of the French cultural heritage and identity which stems from the language (Poirier, 2013). However, foreign students coming to France can follow higher education courses in English (Campus France, 2019a; Campus France, 2019b). The CEFR appears to facilitate this exchange of languages and cultures by enabling students to build sufficient capacity in the chosen FL through providing criteria for sustained progress in FL development and communicative skills starting from a young age.

1.2.2. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR)

The CEFR is a document published in 2001 by the language policy division of the Council of Europe (Martyniuk & Noijons, 2007), in view of Modern language learning in Europe (Council of Europe, 2018d). A survey carried out in 2006 indicated its increasingly extensive use (Martyniuk & Noijons, 2007), and it now exists in 40 languages (Council of Europe, 2018e) and is also used in other parts of the world besides Europe (Council of Europe, 2018d). Providing a single common framework for FL development in speaking, listening, reading and writing skills, the CEFR is non-nominative and provides a set of criteria for the teaching, learning and assessment for modern languages (Cambridge English, 2016; Council of Europe, 2018e). It is a reference framework, "designed to provide a transparent, coherent and comprehensive basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses and curriculum guidelines, the design of teaching and learning materials, and the assessment of foreign language proficiency" (Council of Europe, 2018e).

The 2001 CEFR describes six levels of proficiency for learners of foreign language: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2 and 3 additional levels which are A2+, B1+ and B2+ (Council of Europe, 2018e; Service-Publique.fr, 2019). With relation to the 4 aspects of language development, speaking, listening, reading, writing, the A category refers to a basic language level, the B category refers to an independent user level, and the C category refers to a

proficient user level (Martyniuk & Noijons, 2007; Cambridge English, 2016). In 2018 an updated version of the 2001 descriptor scales was published (Council of Europe, 2018h), together with YL "descriptors of language competences" for seven to fifteen year olds (Council of Europe, 2018j; Council of Europe, 2018k). The 2018 version supplements the 2001 descriptor scales and includes a pre-A1 level "half way towards Level A1, a band of proficiency at which the learner has not yet acquired a generative capacity, but relies upon a repertoire of words and formulaic expressions" (Council of Europe, 2018h, p. 46).

In July 2013 modern foreign language learning (e.g. Spanish, German, English) from the first year of primary school onwards was made obligatory in France, in view of all students being able to communicate in at least two languages by the end of secondary school (education.gouv.fr.les-langues-vivantes, 2019d). EFL, however, is obligatory only from secondary school ("college", 12 years old) onwards (education.gouv.fr.les-langues-vivantes, 2019d).

At the end of college at 16, students can sit a free test to evaluate their EFL competence (education.gouv.fr.les-langues-vivantes, 2019d); students take EFL within the national exam ("Brevet des colleges"). Modern languages are those used naturally for communicative purposes as opposed to dead languages, studied mainly for their cultural value (e.g. Sanskrit, Latin).

The CEFR is the priority tool for achieving this end together with an emphasis on oral language practice from the start of primary school at six years old to the end of secondary school at 18 (education.gouv.fr.les-langues-vivantes, 2019d).

According to the FME, nursery age students, three to five year olds, appear to have a particular sensitivity to language phonology; the FME advises that the emphasis in language learning should naturally focus on the sound system of the FL (education.gouv.fr. les-langues-vivantes, 2019d). Consequently, song, simple verbal interaction, exposure to vocabulary and initiation to the culture of the language are aspects of FL teaching for this age group (education.gouv.fr.les-langues-vivantes, 2019d). According to the directives

of the FME, this early exposure should prepare students for further FL learning in primary school and particularly for second year primary (education.gouv.fr.les langues-vivantes, 2019d) by which stage the students have learned to read and write in French.

The FME stipulates 90 minutes FL instruction/week for primary students who, by the end of primary school, should have acquired the A1 standard of the CEFR scale (education.gouv.fr.les langues-vivantes, 2019d). This involves receptive skills (listening and reading), interactive skills (spoken and written), and productive skills (spoken and written) and within oral communicative competence entails being able to engage in simple communicative interaction with an individual who speaks clearly and distinctly (appendix 1: summary of 2018 descriptor levels pertinent for this study; and appendix 2: qualitative aspects of spoken language use levels A1-C2).

In order to harmonise FL learning, avoid revisiting linguistic notions and vocabulary already learned in primary school, and initiate A2 language learning skills rapidly, collaboration concerning student's EFL levels of attainment is required between secondary and primary school teachers prior to secondary school entrance (education.gouv.fr, 2019d). FL learning continues in secondary school with the introduction of a second foreign language and culminates in the "Diplôme National du Brevet" which marks the end of "College" and is the required examination for entrance to "Lycée". By the end of "Collège" the student is required to have attained the A2 standard of the CEFR scale in one foreign language, to be awarded the Diplôme du Brevet (education.gouv.fr, 2019d). The A2 standard involves the same parameters as for the A1 standard but at a more advanced level of language competence. Secondary school in France is obligatory until 16 years old, by which stage the goal is for students to obtain the B1 CEFR standard and by 18 the B2 standard (education.gouv.fr, 2019d). Regular exchanges with countries of the FL studied are organised for students between the last year of "college" and the end of schooling at 18.

1.2.3. The Educational System in France: Nursery and Primary School

Schooling in France, apart from certain private establishments, is secular, free and compulsory from six to sixteen years of age and is divided into, nursery (two to five year olds), primary (six to eleven year olds), secondary school which includes "college", (eleven to fifteen year olds) and "Lycée" (15 to 18 year olds) (education.gouv.fr Les-niveaux-et-les établissements-d'enseignement, 2019e). The academic year runs from September to end June, is divided into five academic periods of six-seven weeks of school, and two weeks vacation. All public schools in France are generally mixed-gender (education.gouv.fr L'ecole-elementaire, 2019b) as are certain private schools.

The French educational system distinguishes between nursery (three to six year olds), elementary (six to eleven year olds), and primary school. Primary school includes nursery and elementary classes and covers a span of eight years from "petite section" (three year olds) to CM2 (eleven year olds) (education.gouv.fr L'école-maternelle, 2019a). In 2018 there were 4 070 400 students in elementary school in France including the overseas departments and Mayotte, in public and private schools combined; 85.8% of elementary schools are public (education.gouv.fr L' école- élémentaire, 2019b).

Nursery and primary school learning are divided into three cycles: three years of nursery (early learning: cycle 1), the first three years of primary (fundamental concepts: cycle 2), and the last two years of primary and the first year of secondary school (consolidating learning: cycle 3) (education.gouv.fr.l'école-maternelle, 2019a; education.gouv.fr.l'école-élémentaire, 2019b). This study focused on cycle two for researching the fundamental processes involved in EFL learning. A school day typically stretches from 8.30am to 11.30am and from 1.30pm to 4.30pm (education.gouv.fr.les-rythmes-scolaires, 2019c).

1.2.4. EFL Teaching in French Nursery and Primary School within the Context of the Present Study.

This study was conducted in a French Catholic school from September 2012 to June 2016 (pilot study 2012-2013).

Catholic schools (considered private schools), are partially subsidised by the state, but depend largely upon school fees which are calculated proportionately on the basis of the parental income (Enseignement catholiques actualités, 2016). The schools rely on voluntary help from parents for extracurricular activities and recruit teachers for all academic subjects including EFL teaching on the same basis as the public schools.

This research was conducted in a school of 23 classes from first year nursery to end of primary with a total of 613 students and 22-32 students/class. The school has one special needs class, the "CLIS", which integrates children affected by learning disorders and Downs Syndrome, and the "CLAD", which helps students in difficulty to have access to teaching in small groups.

EFL teaching is conducted either by the class teacher, secondary school EFL teachers, or by mother tongue English speaking parents with teaching experience and accredited by the FME. Classes are held once or twice weekly with teaching in whole or half groups. Schools are free to select a programme of their choice while adhering to the directives of the FME for achievement levels.

1.3. Thesis Outline

Chapter one concerns the rationale for this EFL research project. It outlines the research aims and questions and describes the national context. It relates the instructional setting and motivation for the study.

Chapter two details the literature review relating to general theories of first language acquisition (FLA), and stages of language development in English

and French; understanding the differences between English second language (ESL) and English foreign language (EFL) development and learning contexts; and the importance of the EFL environmental context, the significance of ESL/EFL pedagogy, implicit and explicit learning, and narrative and 'story' within EFL instruction. This chapter presents an overview of key research impacting this study, accomplished within YL, ESL/EFL language development. These phenomena have influenced the construction of the FL theoretical framework and have been taken into consideration for the design of teaching strategies and materials within the 'story approach'.

Chapter three describes the FL theoretical framework and 'story approach' ELLP for young French EFL learners. Implications for effective EFL instruction for primary level students within limited target language contexts have been addressed. This chapter presents a review of child development theories and combined with the literature review in chapter two, provide the foundations for the FL theoretical framework and 'story approach' which have guided this research project. The implications of these theories within EFL instruction and the design of programmes have been discussed in relation to current EFL course books highlighting their possible limitations. The 'story approach' teaching strategies and materials are discussed in detail and are compared with those of current programmes; constraints of the 'story approach' are highlighted.

Chapter four describes the mixed methods (pragmatic) research methodology design employed for this three-year cross-sectional and longitudinal case study project (September 2013 to June 2016); the importance of gathering parallel quantitative and qualitative data are emphasised. This chapter describes, the participants (sample size), ethical issues, the data collection instruments, procedures, and type of quantitative and qualitative data analysis undertaken. It includes details of the CSG established at the end of the pilot project in June 2013.

Chapter five relates the pilot intervention study (September 2012 to June 2013), conducted in a third-year nursery class, involving the trialling of the theoretical framework and the 'story approach' materials, teaching strategies

and data collection procedures. An observation study conducted in a parallel class, is also reported, relating materials, teaching strategies and procedures employed for EFL teaching in this YL general approach class; it is representative of EFL teaching in the school. Both approaches to instruction are compared.

Chapters six and seven present the results, analysis and discussion of the cross-sectional studies conducted in intervention years one and two. Analysis has encompassed the deductive-inductive character of this research and permitted a top down approach generating from the theoretical framework/'story approach' and a bottom up approach in the building of theory. Quantitative and qualitative analysis permit an assessment of EFL oral communicative skills progress. Class teacher (CT) observation notes supplied an independent opinion of the 'story approach' intervention in view of providing a qualitative validation of the theoretical framework described in chapter three.

Chapter 8 reports primary year three quantitative and qualitative data analysis, results, and discussion of the end of year individual student testing of oral communicative skills. This involved eleven intervention students, and eleven newly recruited control group students from two parallel general approach instruction classes. Quantitative and qualitative data gathered through the CSG is presented and traces progress in EFL oral communicative language skills development to end third year primary. Results were compared with the requirements of the CEFR A1 level for qualitative aspects of spoken language use, together with the requirements of the FME for EFL speaking skills for third year primary school students.

Chapter 9, the conclusion, summarises the findings of this three year research project. It highlights limitations and the importance of researching effective EFL teaching to find practical solutions which meet the needs of learning contexts similar to this study. The need to possibly re-think the development and design of EFL instructional programmes more suitable to diverse classroom contexts and cultural settings is suggested. Aspects for future research emanating from this investigation have been identified.

2. Literature Review

Research has clearly linked cognitive development and first language acquisition (FLA), with the child's environment and social interaction being at the forefront of this discussion (Bruner, 1991; Fisher, 2005; Vygotsky, 1978; Yule, 2010; Zull, 2011). In addition, a number of different factors appear to influence English foreign language (EFL) learning. As young children are in a continual process of rapid cognitive development (Brown, 2000) they are "powerful learners" (Fisher, 2005, p. 1); it is important therefore to understand how the factors involved in general cognitive development can be harnessed to support EFL learning.

Considering this link between cognitive development, FLA, and EFL learning, the focus of this chapter involves five sections: 1. Overview of FLA theories and stages of development; 2. First language acquisition in French and English; 3. Distinguishing between English second language (ESL) and English foreign language (EFL) learning and situational contexts; 4. Comparing stages of English mother tongue and ESL/EFL speech development, and investigating ESL/EFL language pedagogy; 5. The significance of implicit and explicit learning, and narrative/story, in relation to EFL teaching, and an overview of key research influencing this study, conducted within young learner (YL), ESL/EFL language development.

2.1. Overview: First Language Acquisition (FLA)

2.1.1. Theories

Diverse theories have attempted to explain FLA. For example, behaviourism places imitation, practice, conditioning, and reinforcement at the forefront of

language development, with the quality of the linguistic environment and language surrounding the infant being fundamental to language learning (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Chomsky (1965), in contrast, proposed a nativist view of FLA whereby the features of language are innate and children are born with the capacity to process and produce language (Language Acquisition Device/Universal Grammar); though children possess an enhanced sensitivity to the language surrounding them, social interaction is not given major importance for language acquisition (Brewster et al. 2002). Yet, it is that vey social interaction which empowers maturational development, as input is required for language to be processed (Brewster et al. 2002).

For the nativists (mentalists), language emerges as a system whereby the child generates language as a result of analysing input and forming hypotheses which are revisited and adjusted through speech (Brown, 2000). Connectionist perspectives challenged this rule-governed generative theory by proposing the parallel distributed processing model (PDP) where language develops as a result of simultaneous interconnections forming between neurons (Brown, 2000). Though ostensibly on opposite sides of the debate, nativist and connectionist theories could be viewed as complementary and working in tandem. That is interaction through speech permits the formation of various rule-governed hypotheses, and therefore stimulates cognitive activity leading to the formation of neural connections.

In contrast to the Nativist Universal Grammar theory, Emergentists argue that language development is molded by internal pressures resulting from the load on working memory and external forces relating to frequency of input and use (placing input/use above salience), permitting reinforcement of linguistic items (Ellis, 2016; O'Grady, 2015; O'Grady, Kim and Kim, 2018).

Within theories of FLA, Lenneberg (1967) advocated in favour of a Critical Period Hypothesis. According to the CPH, language acquisition, similarly to other biological functions, has a limited time-period for development, and only if provided with the necessary stimulation; after this it will be incapable of developing even with stimulation (Lenneberg, 1967). Evidence comes from the study of feral children such as Victor (1799) who, deprived of human

speech for 12 years since the time of birth, only learned to speak 2 words, despite five years of specialist care (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). According to Yule it is generally considered that this critical period stretches from birth, or even in utero, until puberty (Yule, 2010). Studies by Johnson and Newport (1989) appear to indicate that it consists of an initial stage from birth to seven where language learning is particularly favourable and a second stage from about seven to puberty where the capacity to learn rule-governed aspects of language gradually declines (Johnson and Newport, 1989).

The constructivist (interactionist) FLA perspective, emphasises the importance of social interaction and the construction of meaning in the development of language: cognitive development and emotional factors, combined with context, enable the development of structured language; meaning overrides structure, as in children's telegraphic speech where two words combined convey several meanings according to the context in which they are spoken (Brown, 2000), e.g. "*go mummy*" which could mean mummy has gone, mummy must go, you go with mummy or even I want to go with mummy. Meaning appears fundamental in FLA and can take several forms. For Yule conceptual meaning conveys the literal use of the word whereas associative meaning is more personal and refers to that particular meaning an individual may give to language as a result of experience (Yule, 2010). This appears to be particularly linked to infants learning first language where single word utterances can convey a number of meanings (Wells, 1986). Even before a child has acquired structured language, he is able to convey meaning through a single word, a holophrase, carrying extended meaning (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006), e.g. *sock,* which could mean anything from *this sock belongs to mummy,* to, *put my sock on mummy.*

For Wells, language learning remains mainly implicit and is mediated by parents and caregivers through exaggerated intonation, short and grammatically simplified speech, repetition of words and paraphrasing the child's utterances (Wells, 1986). Meaning is attached to the infant's behaviour and vocalisations, thus establishing communication (Wells, 1986). Concerning vocalisations, babbling in infants' first year of life is representative of the language they hear around them (Lightbown and Spada,

2006). This would seem to indicate that the human child does have a predisposition to human speech as it is this particular sound he chooses to vocalise rather any other sound in his environment such as a dog's bark or cat's meow. According to Yule, imitating sounds in the environment or adapting vocalisations could be the origin of what we today call words, but naming objects is insufficient for producing language, which requires a structured organisation of words, a faculty which all humans appear to possess (Yule, 2010). This perspective appears to echo the Nativist Universal Grammar viewpoint.

According to Lightbown and Spada it appears that FLA takes place naturally through infants' everyday experiences and the contexts in which they evolve; all young children from approximately birth to three years seem to follow predictable patterns of language development (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Gee proposes fifteen principles (described in chapter 3) concerning oral FLA of very young children, principles which he claims can also be applied to areas of general learning for older children but only in combination with explicit instruction (Gee, 1994). Indeed, the biological maturation and increasing cognitive ability of older children imply that they gradually cease to possess that ability particular to the very young child of being able to unconsciously seek out patterns in complex systems such as language (Gee, 1994). This view appears to contrast with the nativist/generative linguistic theory of FLA where the infant "consciously hypothesizes" the rules of language (Gee, 1994, p. 347). More recently, advances in neuroscience have developed brain imaging techniques safe to use from birth which permit tracking language processing in infants; results confirm the importance of the social environment in FLA long before language emerges (Kuhl, 2010). "Research on infants' phonetic perception in the first year of life shows how computational, cognitive, and social skills combine to form a very powerful learning mechanism" (Kuhl, 2010, p. 715-716).

The constructivist perspective underpins this research study, although, not disregarding the nativist analytical viewpoint on FLA. Indeed, despite social interaction it would seem that hypothesis and adjustment would be required within FLA for perfecting language skills. This study considers that YLs have

an enhanced capacity for language learning compared to adults. Emphasis on context, environment, and meaning together with Gee's fifteen principles for oral FLA have been integrated in the teaching techniques and activities used within the 'story approach' (Chapter three) of this research study.

2.1.2. Language Development in FLA

According to Delahaie (2009) an innate capacity enables young infants and even fetus of 36-40 weeks old to distinguish the phonetic sounds of any language. This capacity, however, gradually declines during the first year of life and particularly after the age of six months restricting this sensitivity to mother tongue phonetic sounds (Delahaie, 2009) or, in the case of babies removed from their native environment, that language spoken to them and around them. The child's speech organs continue to develop from birth until two years old and permit the articulation of sounds and ultimately the first word and phrase (Delahaie, 2009).

"Phonology" designates the system of different sounds of speech composing a particular language (Pearsall, 1999). For Yule, language is acquired in a social context, and is the faculty of being able to produce sounds and combine them in a particular sequence to form words and convey meaning. This structure is provided by grammar and is "A strict set of rules for combining words into phrases" (Yule, 2010, p. 81). Grammar encompasses both syntax and morphology (Pearsall, 1999). "A morpheme is a root word or a part of a word that carries a meaning" (Steinberg, 1993, p. 9), however small (e.g. pen). A grammatical morpheme is a letter or combination of letters added to a word which change the meaning of that word e.g. inflections like "s" to form the plural or "ed" to form the past, or function words (e.g. the) which usually do not stand alone (Lightbown and Spada 2006). Syntax, according to Pearsall, is "the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences" (Pearsall, 1999, p. 1453) and provides a set of rules for their analysis (Pearsall, 1999). Inflections permit including grammatical features to words or phrases. The following four features are present in most languages (Ambridge and Lieven, 2011): tense (e.g. past, present); person (e.g. first,

second and third person); number (e.g. singular and plural relating to verb inflections); and case (noun-pronoun inflections).

Language development involves production and comprehension, with infants developing sensitivity to the mother's voice and language even before birth (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006). According to Steinberg and Sciarini (2006) speech comprehension precedes speech production which develops as a result of comprehension and therefore places meaning at the forefront of speech (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006).

It appears that speech comprehension would be dependent on negotiation of meaning as understanding the connection between elements, objects and ideas seems fundamental to the process of communication. This is exemplified by a study involving one-year old children's interaction with caregivers highlighting the importance of "embodied action" (Laakso, Helasvuo and Savinainen-Makkonen, 2010, p. 220) in FLA. In the process of negotiation of meaning and speech comprehension intention of communication on the child's part expressed through bodily movements, gestures and direction of gaze permit an interactive process between parent and child. The parent gives "explicit form to the implicit content of their child's pre-linguistic communication" (Laakso et al. 2010, p. 199). Parent's verbal interpretations and responses to their child's embodied communication provide examples of speech structure and meaning for FLA (Laakso et al. 2010).

In contrast to Steinberg and Sciarini, Donaldson suggests that production precedes comprehension; comprehension is twofold involving both the understanding of the actual vocabulary used for communication and the understanding of the vocabulary in relation to the context in which it is embedded in the way that the speaker intends (Donaldson, 1978). For Donaldson the person producing the language is in a stronger position than the listener who must understand that meaning (Donaldson, 1978). For example, the school child who becomes the listener in the classroom where interpretation of speech needs to be considered within the context intended by the speaker (Donaldson, 1978) or the caregiver who would need to interpret meaning conveyed by a young child's babbling or one or two word phrases.

According to Delahai until the age of about two and a half/three years old, infants rely on familiar vocabulary in the language to comprehend meaning, by focusing on a known word in the phrase or sentences and deducting meaning through contextual clues (Delahaie, 2009). Between three and a half/four years and until six-seven years old, the child's abilities extend to being able to increasingly comprehend the syntactical aspects of language; the child is now able to interpret language spoken out of context and form a mental idea of the message (Delahaie, 2009) such as in past events e.g. *yesterday you went to the beach*. Beyond the age of six-seven years old children gradually integrate the pragmatic and social aspects of language comprehension (Delahaie, 2009).

Whether comprehension precedes production, or vice versa, both seem intimately linked to the salience of "meaning", which appears to be paramount within language learning and is the principle element underpinning this research project.

2.1.3. Stages of Development

According to the French Ministry of Health (Bursztejn n.d.) all language consists of four components (Ambridge and Lieven, 2011; Lightbown and Spada, 2013): *phonetics*, involving the speech sounds (phonemes); *semantics*, involving the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences; *syntax*, which concerns the rules governing the arrangement of the words to make well formed sentences; and *pragmatics*, concerning the contexts for using different styles and forms of language. It appears that whichever language the newborn child encounters, the language development process remain the same, but the sounds themselves differ according to the language spoken in the environment and it is ultimately these sounds that the infant absorbs and carries forward in the process of language development.

Importantly, this development seems to follow a predetermined pattern of stages common in all children between zero and five-six years of age learning their mother tongue with vocalization of sounds preceding syllables from which words are formed and to which language structure is gradually

incorporated. Differences occur at the syntactical level where structure differs as between Germanic languages (e.g. English), and Romance languages (e.g. French); for example masculine and feminine forms (e.g. *le*, *la*), are absent in English but present in French. and which, due to tight association with the noun, is learned early on (Van Der Velde, 2004, pp. 79, 133) e.g. *le chat* or *la banane.* However, lexical similitude does exist between certain languages and appears to facilitate foreign and second language learning, for example, in French and English where both have words derived from Latin like *villa* and where English has adopted root words of Latin/Romance origin, like the prefix *ab* in the word *absent,* carrying the same meaning in both languages.

This process of language acquisition appears to be dependent on the child's immediate environment providing input. Furthermore, the richer the input, the greater the language development thus putting emphasis equally on quantity and quality (Wells, 1986, pp. 44, xi). However, quantity and quality relate to the environment and context surrounding the infant and language development can differ between cultural contexts according to the circumstances of acquisition (Hoff, 2006); the mind acquires language but the "social environment shapes language development" (Hoff, 2006, p. 56). For example, whereas Asian babies are exposed to more verbs (Bassano, Eme, and Champaud, 2005), North American babies are rather exposed to concrete nouns (Hoff, 2006) like English and French mother tongue infants (Bassano, et al. 2005) thus shaping initial development (Bassano, et al. 2005; Bursztejn, n.d.; Delahaie, 2009). However, by the age of about three, the child's language has evolved to containing many more grammatical items with approximately equal proportions of nouns and predicates (predicates being verbs and adjectives) with verbs being more frequent than adjectives and, within verbs, action verbs taking predominance (Bassano, et al. 2005); this could be due to the salience of action verbs as infants are still dependent on concrete and tangible events and objects for the negotiation of meaning.

For Bursztejn, the period zero to twelve months (for Delahaie up to 18 months) is termed pre-linguistic, followed by a linguistic phase extending to about six years old, when the child has sufficiently mastered the oral language to be able to learn to read and write (Bursztejn n.d.; Delahaie, 2009).

Considering the stages of development, crying, cooing, and gurgling are the earliest sounds all very young infants produce, and are followed by babbling, a combination of consonant and vowel sounds like *gaga* or *dada,* at about seven months old, and tends to resemble the intonation of the speech sounds in the native language the child is exposed to (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006). The child learns to produce speech sounds through hearing but also by observing the mouth/lip movements during the production of the sound or word and will ultimately first produce those which are most observable and easiest to articulate (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006).

The first words generally appear between ten and twelve months (Delahaie, 2009) or as late as sixteen months (Bursztejn n.d.) and are usually words consisting of 2 syllables e.g. papa, mama. At twelve months a child's vocabulary includes about five to ten words (Delahaie, 2009) averaging a vocabulary of around thirty words around sixteen months (Bursztejn n.d.), linked to objects or events in the child's immediate environment, (Bursztejn n.d.; Delahaie, 2009).

Wells provides a comprehensive summary of language development in the child's first five years of life, where each stage, though representing particular characteristics of language development, is not strictly limited to that feature, and each stage is a transition period to the next. Wells concludes that regardless of individual experiences, all children follow the same language learning pattern which can be described as five stages (Wells, 1986):

- Stage 1 is characteristic of function words (e.g. look, gone), names of objects and marked intonation to convey meaning;

- Stage 2 involves simple grammatical formulations and question forms (what, where);

- Stage 3 is marked by more complex utterances conveying deeper meaning, involving the combination of three words, and reference to past and future events (e.g. "Mummy gone now");

- Stage 4 involves sentences of greater complexity including requests, asking for permission (can, will, do), and the negative and question forms;

- Stage 5 the child is capable of expressing hypothesis, is able to communicate information, express feelings (his own and that of others') and respond to questions (Wells, 1986).

2.2. First Language Acquisition in French and English

Whether English or French, native language learning appears an active process starting at birth, and evolving similarly.

In French and English, the first word generally appears at about 11 months old and by 18 months to 2 years syntax becomes manifest in speech through the child's endeavor to communicate extended meaning by combining two words as, for example in English, in *"all gone"* (Brewster, Ellis and Girard, 2002, p. 14). These two and three word phrases, generally devoid of inflections and function words and principally composed of content words (e.g. sock; go; mummy), denote the "telegraphic" stage of speech (Steinberg, 1993). Function words are those which fulfill a syntactic role in speech rather than contributing to meaning, for example the word "do" in the sentence "we do not live here" (Pearsall, 1999, p. 573) whereas content words convey meaning in speech rather than adding to the structure of language (Pearsall, 1999).

According to Brown (1973), in English, function words and inflections (basic morphemes) are acquired in a set order: the Present Progressive (words ending in -ing), Prepositions (-in and -on) and the regular Plural (formed by adding –s to the singular as in *cat*, *cats*) are learned quite earlier on compared to the Article (a, the), the Third Person Regular (e.g. plays, watches) and the Third Person Irregular (e.g. does, has) (Brown, 1973).

Brown attributes this order of acquisition to the extent to which speech encountered by the child can be observed in the environment and the sound change of the words are easily distinguishable, and therefore the word "playing" would be learned sooner than the words "I'm" or You're (Brown, 1873). Steinberg, however, attributes this order of acquisition to universal "psychological learning principles" (Steinberg, 1993, p.11) which would hold true for any child learning his native language and where meaning through observability overrides noticeability of sound change (Steinberg, 1993).

2.2.1. Acquiring Phonemes in French and English

Phonemes are sounds which constitute the smallest elements of spoken language and are joined together to form words (Ambridge and Lieven, 2011). Each language possesses its own particular group of phonemes which provide the particular "sound pattern" (Pinker 1995, p. 172) for that language.

By the age of four, most children have mastered the phonological aspects of their native language which continue developing until the age of six or seven (Delahaie, 2009). Sounds (phonemes) are heard but language is perceived and the challenge involves distinguishing one word from another in a flow of speech (Delahaie, 2009; Pinker, 1995). Whether English or French, young FLA infants learn to distinguish words by focusing on three aspects of oral language (Delahaie, 2009):

1) Phonological constraints: which are the natural sequence of phonemes in a language and where certain phonemes naturally mark word endings or the start of a word.

2) Regularities in the sequence of speech sounds: whereby the infant, through hearing repeatedly the same sequence of speech sounds, will detect a sequence of speech sounds as constituting a word.

3) Intonation, or prosody: which is the rhythm, rhyme, and melody of the language, where the rise and fall of the speech sounds denote the end or beginning of a word or a phrase (Delahaie, 2009); Intonation gives expression such as anger, surprise or questioning to speech (Pinker, 1995) and enables

the infant, in the process of language development, to apprehend meaning and situate oral language in context (Delahaie, 2009). This would seem equally true for the foreign language learner.

2.2.2. Acquiring Words and Phrases

It seems that learning the sounds of language is an intuitive and instinctive process whereas learning words is an active process deliberately initiated as a result of a communicative need within the social environment.

In French and English FLA, during the second and third years of life language development progresses from language dominated by lexis to more structured language (Bassano, et al. 2005). By two years old, vocabulary has reached 250-300 words with the first phrase appearing between twenty and twenty-six months old, composed of telegraphic speech (two words that can carry a variety of meanings according to the context and circumstances in which they are spoken); by three the child has acquired a vocabulary of around 1000 words and syntax is gradually acquired between three and five years old (Bursztejn n.d.; Steinberg, 1993); by nine-ten years old, children have generally fully mastered language structure (Steinberg, 1993).

The acquisition of grammatical forms is not a simple process of repetition and imitation but an active one whereby the child perfects language through a process of trial and error comparing and applying intonation, vocabulary, and grammar rules absorbed through language in the environment, to different contextual situations (Delahaie, 2009). This seems to indicate that within FLA, the input required for the child to be able to produce grammatical forms needs to be absorbed over a period of time as long as three to five years, and even longer, if the pre-birth period is included.

English speaking infant's earliest words are nouns (content words), and are words which carry meaning, like *mama* (Bassano, 2000). Within nouns, concrete nouns are the most frequent words in early language and appear before verbs (Bassano, 2000) due to their contextual salience, the frequency with which they appear in the language, the position they hold in a sentence,

and their "morphological transparency" (Bassano, 2000, p. 526) and concrete action verbs are the most frequent category within verbs (Bassano, 2000).

In the language development process the answer to how exactly the infant progresses from one word utterances to structured sentences appears to lie with verbs "as their semantic structure provides a kind of conceptual frame for constructing larger linguistic units, such as phrases and sentences" (Olguin and Tomasello, 1993, p. 246). Meaning appears to play an important role here as employing a verb seems to require understanding a concept, as for example, in employing the verb *kiss* in a transitive sentence requires understanding what *kiss* means as an action and understanding which object will receive the action in question (Olguin and Tomasello, 1993, pp. 246), as in *mummy kissed the baby,* as opposed to learning a noun, such as *ball* or *dog,* which appears to be a simpler cognitive process as it entails simply learning the names or labels of people and objects. Children of 23-25 months old can apply syntax to nouns and go beyond the linguistic form they have encountered e.g. adding –s to form the plural (Olguin and Tomasello, 1993; Tomasello and Olguin 1993). However, they seem to learn verb syntax and verb morphology on a case by case basis and will only produce a form of that verb which they have heard (Olguin and Tomasello 1993).

By about two and a half to three years old the child is able to employ the verb grammatically, even if this language contains speech errors in the form of overgeneralisations (Pinker, 1995), e.g. with the plural 's' or past tense 'ed' endings (sheeps; mouses; goed), which in themselves demonstrate the creativeness of early language development (Olguin and Tomasello, 1993). Children's speech gains in complexity; function words (e.g. *of, the, on*), conjunctions (e.g. *but, and*) and inflections (e.g. *-ed, -ing, -s*) are increasingly frequent, and the question form, *who, what, where*, and the negative form make their appearance (Pinker, 1995).

Similarly to English native infants, for French infants, nouns are the overriding feature of early language development until about 20-24 months old (Bassano, 2000). At about 24 months the infant produces abstract nouns learned through experience within the environment linked to situations (e.g. *dîner*, dinner) and feelings *(*e.g. *colère*, anger) (Bassano, 2000). Determiners

(e.g. *le-la*/the, *un-une*/a-an) appear to not be used correctly until about two and a half years old and are absent or replaced by "fillers" (Bassano, 2000, p. 541), a syllable used in place of the correct determiner, until this time.

There are grammatical constraints which exist in French and are absent in English; as opposed to English, nouns in French are frequently preceded by a determiner which indicates gender and number (e.g. *le, la, les*) and the plural with *–s* is not pronounced (Bassano, 2000). Early French language development appears to include more verbs compared to English with verbs being produced as early on as 14-15 months old and becoming quite frequent by the age of 20 months, a specificity to French language due to the structure (Bassano, 2000). Action verbs appear to be the most frequent type overall (Bassano, 2000) with situational verbs being amongst the first to be produced and include attention requests, such as *boire*, drink, and the verb *être*, to be (Bassano, 2000). The earliest verb tense forms appear to be the present indicative and imperative forms followed by the infinitive and past participle, and lastly the conditional and imperfect tense (Bassano, 2000). According to Bassano, the grammaticalisation of nouns and verbs follow the same asynchronous pattern in English and French speaking infants with noun grammaticalisation preceding verb grammaticalisation (Bassano, 2000).

However, more particular to French FLA, are morphosyntactic development trends. This involves the use of "morphosyntactic markers" (Maillart and Parisse, 2008, p. 255) or "fillers" (Bassano 2000, p. 541) without attending to the grammatical function or meaning of the word e.g. "*la maman i mange*", *"*the mummy e eats*"* (Maillart and Parisse, 2008, p. 256).

2.3. Distinguishing Between English Second Language (ESL) and English Foreign Language (EFL) Learning

English as a second language (ESL) is an important "vehicular" language spoken in the society in which one lives while not being the native language

(Rixon, 1992), like English in India; and EFL is a language which is not widely used within the community/country in which one lives and is generally learned in a classroom environment (Lightbown and Spada, 2006), like English in France.

The focus of this study being EFL young classroom learners, the term young learner (YL) will be defined as proposed by Rixon (1992), encompassing primary school students; however, this study also includes last year nursery (five-six year olds), which was the pilot study.

Concerning EFL teaching:

- Very few EFL YL course books were published before the 1980s (Rixon, 1992), and until the 1990s.

- Though some countries like Denmark and Austria had initiated EFL learning from the age of eight or nine years old, the general consensus amongst deciding bodies and practitioners in the field, before the 1990s, was that foreign language learning, of which EFL, should be reserved for children over 11;

- only after this time, due to economic and political changes in Europe did the perspective of teaching foreign languages to YLs largely enter primary schools (Rixon, 1992) (European Union formed in 1993);

- Research in EFL teaching for YLs in primary school is a relatively new field and appears to be even more so for very young learners finishing nursery and entering primary which is the starting point of this research and field work.

- Murphy (2018), highlights this issue within target language learning: "Furthermore, as the field of young language learners is itself somewhat in its infancy, this is an issue that demands greater scrutiny from the young learner perspective" (Murphy, 2018, p. 90).

According to Brown, infants absorb language from their environment and "acquire" their native language "naturally, without special instruction" (Brown, 2000, p. 20). For Krashen, if children receive the necessary language

input during that critical period of childhood which is favourable to language learning, native like competence can be achieved in mother tongue and second language regardless of any formal instruction (Krashen, 1976). Acquisition is an unconscious process taking place in naturalistic informal settings and contrasts with learning which is a conscious process and takes place in specifically prepared formal settings (Krashen, 1976). This distinction having been made though, the classroom can also be used to simulate a natural linguistic environment for the EFL learner (Krashen, 1976) and as Rixon points out, acquiring native language proficiency may also entail recourse to a formal language learning setting (Rixon, 1992).

With regard to this thesis, learning will take a general definition referring to those processes involved in developing communicative competence in the target foreign language in a formal classroom setting where learning is a conscious process, but where natural interaction and communication equally provide an informal setting and whereby language can be absorbed at an unconscious level as in a naturalistic environment. However, whereas native language can be acquired in a naturalistic setting, foreign language learning is subject to greater constraints (e.g. limited target language input). Consequently, it appears that FL skills assessment would be fundamental to evaluating progress of on-going development, and features importantly in this research study. These different perspectives of learning environments bring the issue of context to the forefront of language learning.

"Context" is defined by Pearsall as being "the circumstances that form the setting for an event" (Pearsall, 1999, p. 307). Theories concerning child development, FLA, ESL and EFL learning, all appear to emphasise the importance of the context in which the child evolves, with context encompassing: the physical setting (e.g. home, playgroup, classroom); the interpersonal relations existing within that setting (e.g. parents, caregiver, teacher); the learner's own cultural environment; the learner's appreciation of the target language culture; and extending beyond this to the wider social, educational and political environment in which learning is taking place (Williams and Burden, 1997).

According to Batstone, in recent times, little attention has been given to the importance of context in ESL and EFL learning, two central contexts being the physical settings of the communicative context, where the learner engages with native speakers, and the learning context, where learning should be tailored to meet the learner's needs (Batstone, 2002). As opposed to older EFL learners, primary school students are confined to a classroom context as, apart from possible short stays abroad, they live in their native speaking country, have little contact with native speakers of the target language (Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, and Linnell, 1996; Qureshi, 2016) and rely on input and output in the classroom for developing skills in a language other than their own (Collentine and Freed, 2004; Qureshi, 2016).

Within the context of native language, development largely takes place through implicit learning culminating in fluency, and in contrast, foreign language learning involves varying degrees of implicit and explicit learning with results in competence falling generally below those of first language (Hulstijn, 2005). Explicit learning is the process by which input is analysed with the conscious intention of understanding grammar rules and implicit learning involves the processing of input unconsciously (Hulstijn, 2005).

Concerning the context of implicit learning, according to Tough, though children of three to seven have greatly developed their first or even second language skills and are applying language rules intuitively, "they are still unable to conceive of language as a system that conforms to a set of rules that can be learned and applied" (Tough, 1991, p. 220). In contrast, for Schmidt, explicit learning leads to greater efficiency in second language learning and noticing input plays a large role in its development (Schmidt, 2001). Similarly, in order to memorise an item or chunk of language attention needs to be paid to it, just as retrieving the same language from memory requires paying attention to it until such time as fluency renders the process automatic (Schmidt, 2001). According to Qureshi (2016), concerning ESL/EFL learning contexts, early YL EFL classroom instruction does not seem to confer an advantage in EFL skills development compared to older learners (15 years old and above). However, it appears that young EFL classroom learners of nine/ten year olds, seem able to learn and consciously apply simple grammar

rules if these are made salient, and they can compare language rules in their first language with rules in the target language (Ahmed Virjee, 2011). The present study proposes to build on these findings.

The issue of context has taken a new turn in recent times. The CEFR's rapidly increasing dissemination within Europe has unveiled issues arising from socio-economic status (SES), where primary school children from less privileged backgrounds perform less well than those from middle or higher class families (Kuchah, 2018; Sanjurjo, Blanco, and Fernandez-Costales, 2018). Studies reveal an even greater disparity in other cultural EFL learning contexts, such as Sub-Saharan Africa, where English Medium Instruction (EMI), which is content taught through the target language, is creating gaps in performance of YLs from underprivileged socio-economic backgrounds compared to their socially superior peers (Kuchah, 2018). Murphy (2018) underlines the urgency to "develop more effective teaching programmes for children from different SES backgrounds" (Murphy, 2018, p. 92).

2.4. Stages of Language Development in ESL and EFL Learning

2.4.1. Similarities between English First Language Acquisition (FLA), English Second Language Learning (ESL) and English Foreign Language Learning (EFL)

Research concerning YLs in classroom contexts seems to have demonstrated the advantages for proficiency in starting a foreign language at a young age (Nikolov, 2009). Indeed many similarities appear to encompass FLA, ESL and EFL learning; these include the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) advocated by Lenneberg for FLA (Lenneberg, 1967) which research has extended to the learning of a second or foreign language (Nikolov, 2009). The relatedness of the CPH to EFL still remains a subject of debate, due to the many differing viewpoints which provide evidence that second or foreign

language learning is not necessarily subject to a critical period (Singleton, 2005), and that language development even precedes birth (Yule, 2010).

In contrast Long speaks in favour of CPH relatedness to ESL and EFL learning (Long, 2005). For Long, children until the age of six have a particular sensitivity to acquiring the target language accent with this sensitivity extending to the age of twelve. Furthermore, children up to the age of six possess a particular aptitude for learning and combining words (vocabulary and collocation) with this sensitivity extending up to about 15 years of age which also marks the end of the period for a strong ability to learn the structure of language, "morphology and syntax" (Long, 2005, p. 289).

My own research suggests that YLs could possibly achieve native like proficiency of the target language, through classroom instruction, if given the appropriate materials and learning contexts, and through exposure to pertinent teaching methods and approaches (Ahmed Virjee, 2011).

2.4.2. Developing Rules of Language

According to Tough, YLs instinctively make use of their native language to develop second/foreign language skills (Tough, 1991) by transferring the structural knowledge they possess to the target language (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). As in FLA, learners pass through developmental stages in target language learning and these stages relate to the native language (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). For example, German or Danish learners will grasp the possessive in English faster than French learners as a similar rule exists in their first language (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). However, some generalisations can be made regardless of the first language, as in the following order of acquisition of target language grammar rules, which particularly relate to French mother tongue, ESL/EFL YLs: the plural "-s" is learned before the possessive; "-ing" is learned before the past tense "-ed"; for the negative, "no" is commonly learned before "not" and "don't"(e.g. "No happy"); for questions, early learners commonly use the declarative order and rising intonation rather than the correct inverted or fronted form (e.g. "I can distribute?" instead of "Can I distribute?"), and inversion with "wh" (e.g.

"Where are you?") comes much later; possessive determiners (his/her), tend to be omitted from initial speech and replaced by the definite article "the" (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

Certain parts of structure seem to be more difficult for ESL and EFL learners to learn than others, such as function words and particular grammatical morphemes (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Input (listening) and output (speaking) are important features for ESL/EFL learning (Cameron, 2001); just as in FLA, words provide a path to learning structure and building concepts, particularly important for YLs (Cameron, 2001) who are still in a process of cognitive development. In ESL/EFL, cognates (words which are similar and carry the same meaning in both languages) present an important feature in facilitating acquisition (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Features common to the development of ESL/EFL in YLs, also appear to resemble developmental particularities of young native English speakers. It seems that all follow a similar pattern of language structure development and similar errors in structure arise from the generalising of language rules, where young foreign/second language learners make the same mistakes as young mother tongue learners (Tough, 1991); these are known as *developmental errors* (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

Interlanguage (Selinker, 1972) is the term used to designate all the typical structural features common to the development of ESL and EFL and include: developmental errors, transfer of the native language skills to second/foreign language learning, and the absence of words and structures more difficult to learn than others and where the developing language seems to be governed by an independent set of rules (Yule, 2010). Meaning, however, intimately linked to structure, is paramount in the development of interlanguage for progress in target language skills (Selinker and Naiditch, 2017). Given the appropriate conditions learner interlanguage generally continues to evolve and develop unless *fossilization* occurs; this is the situation where learning stagnates to a point where progress ceases (Yule, 2010). One example of fossilization is when in the case of pronunciation the learner speaks the target language with his native language accent (Yule, 2010), and there is no real requirement/impetus within the communicative context to improve.

Whether native, second or foreign language learner, all seem to benefit from speech which is adjusted to their level of comprehension, known as "child-directed speech" for native learners and "foreigner "or "teacher" talk in the case of ESL and EFL learners (Lightbown and Spada, 2006); this specially adjusted speech plays an important role in the negotiation of meaning (Yule, 2010).

Learning chunks of language, or *formulaic speech* (Lightbown and Spada, 2006) like "see you later" appears to be a means engaged by native and ESL/EFL learners in language development. These short phrases permit rapidly accessing meaning and engaging in communication and present a top-down (Gee, 1994) means of analysing language where each individual word is subsequently understood from a grammatical standpoint rather than learning individual words and then working out how to combine them to form a phrase.

In conclusion, it appears that as YL prior knowledge of language rules is limited, they appear to draw on their "innate language acquisition" (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 31) abilities for ESL/EFL learning. Compared to older learners, YLs seem to have less inhibition, are under less pressure to perform, and in the learning process, benefit from greater attention to meaning than to grammatical accuracy, as in FLA (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

2.4.3. ESL/EFL Language Learning Pedagogy in the YL Classroom

In contrast to earlier sections concerning FLA, this section pertains to ESL/EFL language learning pedagogy for YLs. The focus of this research study involves very young primary school learners. Hence the importance of theories concerning FLA, for these YLs, who, unlike older learners, or adults, are still in the process of acquiring native language skills. However, as young FL learners, it is equally important to understand ESL/EFL pedagogy for the achievement of target language skills. Particularly given the cognitive development which occurs between five and eleven years old.

Within an innatist SLA theory perspective, Krashen (1982) proposes the input hypothesis. This hypothesis is tightly linked to meaning via comprehensible input. Accordingly, learners should be presented with input slightly above their current level; oral skills should involve listening comprehension, with speech emerging only once sufficient comprehensible language is achieved; conscious attention to the rules of language does not facilitate progress. Krashen (1982) equally proposes the acquisition-learning hypothesis, where a distinction is made between acquisition and learning. Acquisition, is an intuitive, subconscious process, where language is naturally absorbed, as in FLA, and learners are not consciously aware of the rules of language; acquisition can also be described as "implicit learning, informal learning, and natural learning" (Krashen, 1982, p.10). Learning, conversely, involves a conscious process where conscious attention to rules and analysis of language input is required; it is "formal knowledge of a language or explicit learning" (Krashen, 1982, p.10). For Krashen, second language fluency is the result of acquisition rather than learning.

These perspectives, however, seems at odds with interactionist/constructivist viewpoints. They appear to not account for certain current contextual trends, and restricted EFL contexts, where YLs have restricted target language contact and classroom instructional time, and therefore limited input, as in this research study; or where YLs from low SES backgrounds (Butler, Sayer, and Huang, 2018), are unable to access sufficient EFL support. Similarly, YLs forcibly displaced from their native countries (e.g. for political, economic, ethnic, religious, or social reasons) would seem to endure difficulty in acquiring the English lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2005), important for economic progress (Butler, Sayer, and Huang, 2018); these YLs would seem to undergo lack of stability and access to suitable YL educational settings and target language contact. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for refugees (UNHCR), in June 2020, 40% of the 80 million forcibly displaced people worldwide were children (UNHCR, 2020). Since early 2020, the unprecedented Covid-19 global health crisis, appears to imply additional restrictions in YL, EFL education, where travel limitations and lockdowns seem to engender further reduced target language contact, e.g: cancelled exchange visits/holidays in target language countries; home

schooling, undertaken by unqualified, overstressed parents, and implying that students are less able to learn through peer support; online lessons, which may be inappropriate for the YLs stage of cognitive development. The need for effective YL target language instruction (Murphy, 2018) appears to be further highlighted in view of these issues.

Classroom pedagogy is still a new area of research involving diverse theories (Ellis, 2005). Nassaji (2016b), provides a record of significant ESL/EFL research over the past 40 years. He emphasises the debate between: form focused instruction versus naturalistic and meaning centered instruction; the perspective that ESL/EFL learning resembles FLA; and that grammar teaching has little incidence on acquisition, in contrast to those advocating a focus on grammar/structure (Nassaji, 2016b). Grammar (generative) concerns "a set of rules that determines the form and meaning of words and sentences in a particular language" (Pinker, 1995, p.476); structure focuses on "the language itself, rather than the messages carried by the language" (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p.109). However, it seems that applying grammar (e.g. plural 's' ending), would be necessary, to provide structure (e.g. correct words in the correct order) to a phrase or sentence, to convey meaning adequately; structure, grammar and meaning seem intimately connected. A recent perspective demonstrates the importance of interaction within social contexts, conversation, and cultural viewpoints, and teaching strategies which build on structure arising naturally through conversation through drawing learner's attention. This noticing can take multiple forms and can be: implicit or explicit; reactive, in relation to errors, or pre-empted, in view of forthcoming activities, and taking place inductively or deductively. Noticing can involve various aspects of language learning apart from structure, including vocabulary, pronunciation, and pragmatics (Nassaji, 2016b). Indeed, in this research study, all these aspects form an integral part of language learning and teaching of YL, EFL oral communicative skills. The teaching and learning of grammar and structure, through noticing, equally have their place within the language generated by the learners own communicative competence (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000).

Bygate (2009) emphasises the importance of the relationship and inter-connectedness between pedagogy, curriculum, and testing for the development and assessment of speaking skills. He signals the lack of research in this field, that within ESL/EFL, speaking skills development is a recent area of attention, and proposes that the analytic approach may provide for progress in these domains.

The 'analytic' approach contrasts with the 'synthetic' approach (Long, 2009); the former focuses on the learner's aptitude, takes an inductive perspective on structure, targets meaning (Long, 2009), e.g. learning through immersion; the latter involves a piecemeal focus on structure where the learner employs the sum of these parts to construct communication e.g. learning through grammar instruction. However, within an 'analytic' approach, Long diverges from a purely implicit viewpoint and advocates a "focus on form" (Long, 2009, p. 373) (FonF); i.e. combining implicit with explicit grammar instruction, by drawing the learner's attention to grammatical features within a communicative context (e.g. articles: the, a, an), for greater efficiency in language learning: "instruction can facilitate development, but needs to be provided with respect for, and in harmony with, the learner's powerful cognitive contribution to the acquisition process" (Long, 2009, p.378). A focus on form can be encompassed in a variety of ESL/EFL teaching and learning events, notably in language input, output, and interaction; it can involve negotiation of meaning, and take the form of recasts, negative feedback, student uptake (auto-correction), repetition, and solicited production (Mitchell, 2009). Focus on form (FonF) differs from focus on forms (FonFs); the former is attention to form arising from a communicative event, whereas the latter concerns "a pre-set list" (Long, 2009, p. 382) of linguistic items selected by "the teacher or the textbook" (Long, 2009, p. 384) and concerns the traditional/synthetic approach to language teaching, where "language is presented to learners in an isolated and de-contextualised manner" (Nassaji, 2016b, p.36).

The classroom is equally an arena for sociocultural development (Mitchell, 2009). Interaction provides a basis for assuming identity through language, which is the "prime cultural artifact that mediates the development of higher

mental functions (memory, attrition, etc.)" (Mitchell, 2009, p. 687). The development of "higher psychological functions" (Vygotsky 1978, p.55) in the young child is intricately linked to gesture relating to elements in the environment which serve as tools mediating negotiation of meaning and memorising (Vygotsky 1978), essential for language development. This appears to give fundamental importance to concrete objects, and embodiment through physical interaction within the environment, implying their crucial role in the YL, FL language learning classroom. "Aspects of external or communicative speech as well as egocentric speech turn 'inwards' to become the basis of inner speech" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.57). The internalisation of target language is also mediated through imitation, inner speech, and native language use (Mitchell, 2009).

Ellis (2005) offers a set of ten general principles, emanating from extended research, and an expanse of theories, on which to possibly base "a learning-centered" (Ellis, 2005, p.209) ESL/EFL language pedagogy. These instructional principles provide a potential road map on which to base effective classroom teaching, while accepting that certain perspectives may vary. Ellis's ten principles are summarised as follows (Ellis, 2005):

1) The development of formulaic speech (chunks of language) coupled with structural knowledge is essential. Chunks of language are internalized and then analysed structurally.

2) Meaning is paramount, and encompasses semantic (words and grammar) and especially pragmatic (communicative language within context) meaning. These are achieved through task-based instruction, though via different instructional approaches to teaching and learning: for semantic meaning, language is an object, whereas for pragmatic meaning, language is a communicative "tool", and activity "creating pragmatic meaning is intrinsically motivating" (Ellis, 2005, p.211-212).

3) knowledge of language structure, taught through an inductive (noticing) and deductive (conscious awareness) approach to grammar rules. Form focused instruction requires being intensive (focusing on a particular rule within a given space of time) and extensive (repetition over a period of time).

Extensive instruction can be pre-emptive (teacher or student initiated) or reactive (corrective feedback), and can be provided for through context in focused-tasks.

4) Both implicit and explicit knowledge are essential to ESL/EFL language development., though implicit takes priority. Contrary to explicit knowledge, implicit knowledge is unconscious, is rapidly accessible, and is generally used in fluent conversation. Implicit knowledge arises through communicative interaction, and its development can be facilitated through explicit knowledge awareness raising.

5) Instruction needs to respect the learner's natural developmental order of mastering structure. This can be done in one of three ways: by excluding grammar instruction and focusing entirely on implicit knowledge development through communicative tasks; by determining if learners are ready to acquire a given structure before explicit grammar teaching; or by focusing on explicit grammar instruction which relates to learner's cognitive ability rather than to natural order of acquisition, as in the case of traditional graded syllabuses.

6) Learners require quantity and quality target language input for the development of "highly connected implicit knowledge that is needed to become an effective communicator" (Ellis, 2005, p.217). This procedural language knowledge is achievable through extensive target language use in the classroom, including its use as a medium for instruction, and by providing learners with opportunities to access input outside the classroom.

7) Extensive opportunities for learner output through tasks, permit: feedback; noticing, practicing, and automising grammatical knowledge; opportunities for developing creative language; and learner "auto-input" (Ellis, 2005, p. 218) i.e. providing for awareness of own productions.

8) Oral interaction is fundamental to ESL/EFL development: "Interaction is not just a means of automizing existing linguistic resources but also of creating new resources" (Ellis, 2005, p.219). Communicative exchange engenders negotiation of meaning, feedback, modified input, and

consequently modified learner output as a result of uptake. This can be provided through topic tasks (activities) of intrinsic interest to the learners. However, determining tasks for creative interaction challenges teachers.

9) According to Ellis (2005), accounting for motivation places great responsibility on the teacher. This can be achieved through a flexible approach to teaching and learning. Student motivation is paramount, and can be enhanced intrinsically through the quality of the teaching.

10) For Ellis, assessment of learner's proficiency should involve free and controlled production (Ellis, 2005). The best measure being communicative tasks involving free responses, "as it is this that corresponds most closely to the kind of language use found outside the classroom" (Ellis, 2005, p.221). However, for Ellis, this can only be conducted with closed-tasks (involving one correct result).

Ellis's ten principles present several pertinent points for this research study. These have been detailed in chapter three concerning the theoretical framework and 'story approach'. Within principle six, Ellis (2005) specifies opportunities to access outside classroom input; this is not included in this study which focuses on limited target language input. Assessment of skills, detailed in chapters four to eight, is an on-going process in this study. It aligns with principle ten, in that it involves communicative tasks and language creatively generated by the students.

Formulaic speech (chunks)

The use of chunks (pre-fabricated phrases) in young secondary level classroom learners of French (foreign language), having little target language contact outside class instruction, has demonstrated that "formulas do indeed represent an important part of learner production in the early stages" (Myles, Mitchell, and Hooper, 1999, p. 53). They provide a trampoline to more creative and complex language. However, in the production of creative language students may vary in their ability to memorise, analyse and break chunks down for extending and re-combine language components creatively. The role of chunks for the development of creative language equally depends

on input frequency and noticeability, and the type of instructional tasks (Myles, Hooper, and Mitchell, 1998; Myles, et al. 1999), This seems to imply a need for greater efficiency in YL instruction and teaching strategies where students are encouraged to notice and re-formulate through feedback. According to Myles, et al. 1999, "Compared with other learner output" (p.51) the following characteristics permit distinguishing formulaic speech (chunks): 1) longer and more complex utterances; 2) unhesitating speech; 3) language grammatically, semantically, and pragmatically inappropriately used; 4) produced as learned (learners are not able to deconstruct, or substitute part of a phrase); 5) the utterance is grammatically correct and more elaborate; 6) utterances are context-bound, particularly in classroom learning (Myles, et al. 1999), e.g. close your books.

Interaction and Negotiation of Meaning

Language acquisition (first or second), from the mentalist's/nativist's viewpoint, places importance on innate knowledge, whereas the interactionist (constructivist) perspective considers interaction fundamental; interaction being interpersonal, involving communicative speaking, and intrapersonal, involving the mental activity involved in language processing (Ellis, 1999). Within ESL/EFL, interaction relates to three theories which influence acquisition (Ellis, 1999): the Interactionist Hypothesis (IH), involving negotiation of meaning; the socio-cultural theory, involving social, cultural, and psychological aspects of human learning through collaborative learning, mediation and inner speech (Vygotsky, 1978); and the depth of processing model, involving tasks which promote sufficient time and conditions for processing input (inner speech; self-questionning; linking new and existing knowledge) (Ellis, 1999). Any effective target language learning pedagogy would therefore necessarily need to take account of these aspects. Regarding this, Ellis remarques on the dearth of task-based longitudinal studies (Ellis, 1999). Within the IH and socio-cultural theories, Ellis underlines the pedagogical advantages for acquisition, of teachers adopting flexible, fluid approaches to classroom discourse. Permitting learners to take the lead allows for "qualitatively richer" (Ellis, 1999a, p.219) interactions, and creative language development (Ellis, 1999a). According to Boyd and Markarian

(2011), negotiation also involves "everyday knowledge students bring with them from home and the knowledge they are expected to learn and value at school" (p.521-522).

"Negotiated interaction can occur when two speakers work together to arrive at mutual understanding of each other's utterances" (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000, p.472). It is an endeavour where "learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension" (Long, 1996, p.418). Research has demonstrated the benefits of negotiation of meaning, through conversational interaction and task-based instruction, for target language development (Ellis, Heimbach, Tanaka, and Yamazaki, 1999; Gass, Mackey, and Ross-Feldman, 2005; Mackey and Philp, 1998) including for primary school ESL/EFL learners (Mackey and Silver, 2005). This valuable pedagogy involves receiving input, producing output, and receiving feedback (Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2002). Negotiation strategies entail, adjusting speech, repeating, and requesting clarification regarding comprehension, with peer support as an important element in this process; consequently, learners "appear to move along their own inter-language continuum" (Oliver, 1998, p.378). Oliver underlines the lack of and importance of YL studies in this domain (Oliver, 2002), preferably longitudinal and involving pre-tests and post-tests, with different YL age groups (Oliver, 1998), and in mixed-proficiency groups (Oliver, 2002). These requirements appear to be encompassed in this present study.

Within interactional input, Graham (2007) advocates developing learner's listening strategies for improvement in ESL/EFL comprehension through developing assurance in self-competence. Strategies involve: learner self-reflection on effective and non-effective individual listening strategies through diary entries; teacher feedback on particular strategies employed; and teachers purposefully raising awareness that listening is an active process which learners can use to improve listening skills. These strategies influence learner self-confidence and motivation (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008). Listening strategies can involve: making predictions, which can be confirmed, or not, by listening for particular vocabulary, phrases, or formulaic speech; making inferences through contextual or linguistic cues or existing

knowledge of the topic; and monitoring and evaluating comprehension to build skills effectively (Graham and Macaro, 2008). Learner control within listening activities is an important factor in improving listening-strategy skills, and pedagogically requires explicit instruction including learners identifying which strategies are most effective for them, through self-reflection (Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank, 2011).

For early primary YLs, diary entries may prove complex given their newly developing native language literacy skills. However, listening-strategy awareness raising, class discussions, (instead of diary entries for self-reflection: Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank, 2011), oral teacher and peer feedback, and support through scaffolding listening skills, could permit encouraging positive self-perception and confidence building and seem appropriate pedagogical initiatives for this age group. Though early primary YLs are still perfecting literacy skills, writing words and phrases on the class-board could enable segmenting for more effective comprehension of structure and pronunciation.

<u>Feedback</u>

According to Nassaji (2016a), interaction provides for corrective feedback, which occurs during the interactional process, and includes three principle category of strategies, involving "reformulations, prompts, and metalinguistic feedback" (Nassaji, 2016a, p.536). These concern, respectively, rephrasing learner utterances, giving learners themselves the opportunity to correctly rephrase, and metalinguistic clues (alluding to the correct form), and metalinguistic feedback (providing correction/explanation) (Nassaji, 2007). Negative feedback provides learners with corrective information on target language production, is often implicit in nature, taking the form of recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, and explicit error correction (Oliver and Mackey, 2003). Interestingly, all feedback appears to relate to meaning, thus giving meaning prime importance in the learning process. There is deferring consensus on the effectiveness of feedback in drawing learner's attention to errors; however, this could be linked to the context, content, and strategies of the teaching environment (Oliver and Mackey, 2003). This seems to indicate the necessity to acutely fine-tune ESL/EFL

teaching to learner's needs. Within certain studies, interactional-feedback has demonstrated an important role, in modifying language structure, particularly regarding "explicit language-focused exchanges" (Oliver and Mackey, 2003, p.527) and developing language structure, including the question form (Mackey and Silver, 2005). More recently, feedback has been investigated through learner focused task-based teaching, integrating authentic language and an emphasis on meaning, producing positive results (Mackey and Silver, 2005). A need, however, remains, in research in restricted YL instructional and target language contact contexts and particularly in YL classroom settings as opposed to laboratory research (Oliver and Mackey, 2003; Mackey and Silver, 2005). Within ESL/EFL pedagogy, the importance of "noticing" recasts has been an area of debate; however, research appears to indicate that through negotiated interaction, learners' attention can be drawn to interlanguage errors, providing a platform for learning (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000). Learner's receiving feedback on their own productions are more likely to be most effective (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000). The Mackey et al. (2000) task-based interaction study involving adult ESL/EFL learners demonstrated that feedback in the form of negotiation and recasts was correctly perceived for lexical and phonological items, but not so for structure, for which learners focus centered on meaning rather than grammar. Interestingly, feedback for structure was largely in the form of recasts, rather than negotiation. These points possibly highlight the increased importance of negotiation for YL feedback as opposed to recasts; the former providing explicitness through extended explanation compared to the latter which remains reactive (responding to output) and implicit. Studies involving recasts have found that learners did not systematically repeat recasts, or necessarily view or treat them as error correction through uptake and modified output (Mackey and Philp, 1998; McDonough, 2005). However, intensive use of recasts within task-based interaction can provide benefits for target language learning through providing increased specific input, and building familiarity and confidence in using a particular form (Mackey and Philp, 1998).

Questionning and the Question Form

The pedagogical usefulness of the question form within ESL/EFL pedagogy is apparent though its ease of elicitation, and its versatility, being present at all levels of instruction (Mackey and Philp, 1998). According to Boyd and Rubin (2006), for YLs, both display and authentic questions permit promoting negotiation of meaning, and creative meaningful classroom dialogue, if they build on and extend student production: "Dialogically organized instruction is the antidote to tired, formulaic, and fragmented talk in classrooms" (p. 146). Dialogue through questionning, for YL classroom pedagogy, involves respecting students' interests and provides for extended creative student talk through: a flexible instructional approach; meeting student's learning and emotional needs; relating instruction to students' personal experience; scaffolding through recasts, or mirroring and rephrasing student utterances (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006). Effective dialogue provided through purposeful lesson content, permits YL students to engage meaningfully and provides a platform for extended talk through questionning (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Fisher, 2005). Task-based instruction promoting active participation in conversational interaction facilitates target language development through enabling learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language (Mackey, 1999). This participation leads to practice and repetition of question forms in the process of negotiation of meaning. Questioning enables greater efficiency in target language morphosyntactic development, including question formation, and takes on a sociolinguistic-pragmatic perspective in the seeking out of information (Mackey, 1999). Mackey calls for more research, beyond the question form, involving interaction, task-based instruction, larger and diverse samples, and through "qualitative in-depth explorations" (Mackey, 1999, p.583).

This section provides a variety of perspectives relating to ESL/EFL pedagogy within YL instruction. Those perspectives pertinent to this research study will be highlighted in chapter three in relation to the theoretical framework and 'story approach'. The following section focuses on EFL teaching and learning.

2.5. Teaching and Learning EFL

2.5.1. Explicit and Implicit EFL Learning for Primary School Students

Explicit language knowledge is conscious knowledge explainable in grammatical terms, whereas implicit knowledge cannot necessarily be explained in terms of language rules, is automatised and is used spontaneously (Brown, 2000). Explicit knowledge appears to be learned and practiced formally, whereas implicit knowledge appears to spring from informal experience and interaction. Despite this, implicit learning, as in the case of FLA, requires "significant effort and attention to language" (Brown, 2000, p. 21). It would seem that explicit-implicit knowledge appear to be a continuum rather than existing dichotomously.

In second language acquisition Ellis (2004) refers to the difference between metalinguistic and epilinguistic knowledge. The former designates conscious awareness of language form, in that the learner is able to explain a grammatical rule; whereas the latter refers to an intuitive awareness, where the learner recognises a correct or incorrect phrase but is unable to explain it grammatically (Ellis, 2004). It therefore seems that metalinguistic knowledge is the result of explicit learning and epilinguistic knowledge the result of implicit learning; though this does not preclude the possibility of acquiring metalinguistic knowledge despite having learned language implicitly. Explicit knowledge in ESL also concerns pronunciation, the meaning of words, and pragmatics (Ellis, 2004) which is the use of language in context.

Whether implicit or explicit learning, it appears that all language learners require interaction to practice language in context, and progress depends upon receiving feedback on structure, whether explicitly or implicitly. However, EFL YLs generally have few opportunities to interact with native speakers. Consequently, "Language learners are frequently and increasingly each other's resource for language learning" (Pica, et al. 1996, p. 60). Pica et al. suggest that interaction between native and non-native speakers provides for

greater modification of verbal output with regard to correct grammatical structures than interaction taking place between learners (Pica, et al. 1996). However if EFL learner's awareness was drawn to their mutual lack of language proficiency they would be more inclined to share linguistic corrections and modified output (Pica, et al. 1996), thus possibly placing explicit learning at an advantage to implicit.

Implicit/explicit learning also encompasses traditional storytelling. Cameron advocates story for EFL instruction for YLs and emphasises the number of stories which are composed of "prototypical features" (Cameron, 2001, p. 161) such as "Once upon a time". However, it seems that in time-limited EFL instructional contexts for YLs, who are still in a developmental process, a 'story approach' would require careful design and selection of language items to be introduced if the objective is to develop oral communicative competence. Tailoring language to learning contexts could provide time for "more general language awareness and communication strategies; these may have more 'mileage' for learners than striving for mastery of fine nuances of native speaker language use that are communicatively redundant or even counter-productive in lingua franca settings" (Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 2).

A number of programmes employ story in the design of their course books with what appears to be an emphasis on implicit instruction (e.g. Frino, Williams, Nixon, and Tomlinson, 2014; Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b) involving the following features:

- no native language use and instructions and explanations restricted to gestures and facial expressions (Kid's Box Teachers Book: Frino, et al. 2014);

- explicit attention seems not drawn to metalinguistic features of the language or grammatical explanations;

- language items appear to lack careful selection for rapid development of pertinent oral skills (e.g. Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b: book 1, unit 1 "Hello", and book 2, unit 1 "Hello again" spend substantial time practicing character's names);

- games are proposed to encourage interaction but their design seems unsuitable for large classes of 30 or more students (lack of space; discipline, and organisational issues; time waste due to preclusive use of mother tongue);

- the focus of instruction appears to be on comprehension, literacy skills, and exercises in repetition of pre-set sentences (Frino, et al. 2014, p. vi), whereas it would seem that YLs lacking target language contact require creative, interactive oral activities eliciting authentic language.

The development of EFL oral communicative competence requires substantial time and sustained effort (Hulstijn, 2005). In EFL learning, spoken language elicited creatively could also provide for activities in comprehension and literacy skills. Therefore eliciting creative oral language through the development of metalinguistic competence, facilitating comprehension explicitly through mother tongue use and harnessing literacy skills (writing/reading), seems to be fundamental in order to fast track YL EFL learning.

ESL/EFL learners are dependent on both implicit and explicit modes of learning both of which need to be given careful consideration by teachers, curriculum designers and material developers (Hulstijn, 2005). Batstone differentiates between communicative contexts (e.g. social gatherings where friends meet informally to chat), which involve implicit learning and fail to meet the needs of ESL/EFL learners, and learning contexts (e.g. the classroom), which involve explicit learning and need to be designed to support the learners' metalinguistic development (Batstone, 2002). Metalinguistic development can take place when learners' attention is drawn to language structure, meaning is attached to linguistic features, and conscious attention is given to the production of new linguistic forms which through practice become automatised and lead to proficiency (Batstone, 2002). Communicative contexts limit the language learner who is restricted by the situational context in which interaction is taking place (e.g. a restaurant, a supermarket, a party) whereas classroom learning contexts can be fashioned in any number of ways to meet learners' linguistic needs.

According to Skehan, "explicit learning of structured material is generally superior to implicit learning, suggesting that awareness of the learning itself and what is to be learned confers advantages" (Skehan, 1996, p. 43). Meaning, though, remains central in language learning and metalinguistic knowledge fulfills the function of providing a means for the negotiation of meaning (Skehan, 1996); through the development of interlanguage, assisted by metalinguistic awareness, the learner is able to communicate meaning. Balance between accuracy and fluency is necessary though (Skehan, 1996); it would seem that too much attention to metalinguistic features can hamper fluency in real-time interaction.

According to Truscott, concerning oral instruction, overtly correcting learner's mistakes hinders communicative interaction (Truscott, 1999). Nonetheless, not correcting them seems equally problematic if the object is proficiency; within time-restricted instructional contexts it appears that developing metalinguistic strategies could provide an answer to the need for YLs enhanced, effective and rapid progress in EFL competence. However, within YL EFL classroom teaching, interactional contexts can influence instructional feedback, in that "contextual variables can affect the amount and nature of feedback" (Oliver and Mackey, 2003, p.531). Indeed, it appears that situational issues including discipline, noisy classrooms, multi-tasking during classroom activities which prevent focusing on the content of mistakes, understanding utterances for intelligibly correcting students (Truscott, 1999), and learner affective factors (Krashen, 1982) involving negative feelings or embarrassment, can equally influence teacher provision of feedback.

Examination of these factors seems to reveal that the underlying problem is not teaching metalinguistic strategies and grammar correction but rather the manner, method, and approach of instruction, and the teacher's own attitude (Villegas and Lucas, 2002), particularly with regard to affective factors (Krashen, 1982). These issues could possibly be solved through the use of teaching approaches and methods adapted to the age of the students, their cognitive and affective needs, and their learning context and, where necessary, mother tongue use for engaging metalinguistic strategies and grammar corrections. Affective factors for YLs (providing reassurance and

encouragement) appear to be fundamental in engaging their enthusiasm, participation, and positive feelings towards the target language. It appears that teachers require training in facilitating stress free engagement with metalinguistic instruction for YLs, including opportunities for noticing, understanding, and rehearsing structure and grammatical features of the language. There is a call for research in this area (Truscott, 1999). Providing learners, with explicit opportunities to engage in grammar instruction and notice and correct structural errors have been included in the aims of this research study focusing on a 'story approach'.

2.5.2. Narrative

Narrative is encompassed in the 'story approach' of this study, allowing for personalised learning, through events being the narrative, and 'story' the organisation of those events from an individual perspective. Narrative permits learner engagement with learning at a personal level and is linked to "ownership" in the theoretical framework (chapter three). "Constructing stories in the mind-or *storying*, as it has been called-is one of the most fundamental means of making meaning; as such, it is an activity that pervades all aspects of learning" (Wells, 1986, p. 194).

Vygotsky suggests that from an early age the infant is immersed in narrative, through play, and speech is the symbolic means of representing this narrative (Vygotsky, 1978). Children actively attempt to make sense of the world around them (Donaldson, 1978), and infant's play seems to spring from interest in situations, actions and meaningful events relating to real life. According to Wells, an essential element in the young child's language learning process, beyond the quantity of language he is exposed to, is the topic of the language which should concern "matters that are of interest and concern to the child, such as what he or she is doing, has done or plans to do, or activities in which the child and adult engage together" (Wells, 1986, p. 44).

According to Cameron narrative plays an important role in child development, going beyond storytelling, in that it provides a means for cognitive development through "memory construction" (Cameron, 2001,

p. 54). Within neuroscience, Anderson makes the distinction between the three cognitive functions of, memory, remembering, and knowing (Anderson, 2011). Memory involves information encoded so as to be retrievable at a future moment; remembering involves the reconstruction of information for recall in relation to contextual cues; and knowing involves meaningful information which can be consciously assembled and shared (Anderson, 2011). For efficient recall, initial learning needs to be imbedded in a context which is specific yet general enough to encompass a variety of situations and serving as an anchor for further learning (Anderson, 2011). Narrative appears to fulfill these requirements as it has the quality of providing an initial context for learning which can be expanded and developed and provides a foundation for designing a variety of activities whilst remaining at the core of these activities; "It is important that the contextual theme is revisited as the class experience progresses"(Anderson, 2011, p. 54).

For Bruner, reality is constructed through narrative (Bruner, 1991) and appears to be embodied in the child's play, where narrative is acted out, and meaning is tried, tested, and constructed. Within YL EFL instruction, narrative would take on a fundamental role as children are not only learning a foreign language but are also in the developmental process of constructing meaning. Story is at the core of meaning making and encompasses all aspects of learning (Wells, 1986).

Within EFL instruction, it seems that reality can be constructed through narrative in three ways:

     a) Socially constructed language acquisition through narrative:

It appears that Narrative permits socially constructed language acquisition to take place within an interactive context and serves as a vehicle for teaching and learning.

In contrast to Chomsky's innateness of language theory, where competence is the "product of inborn structure, the genetically determined course of maturation, and past experience" (Chomsky, 1959, p. 27), research advocating theories in favour of socially constructed language, place context

at the forefront of language learning. Context, appears to be central to making meaning with three principle interrelated elements, characters, time, and place, combining to form "a three dimensional narrative space" (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000, p. 232). "Characters" involve the participants in the narrative, "time" involves the moment at which the event occurs and its links with past and future events, and "place" involves the physical location or setting of the narrative (Barkhuizen, 2008). Within EFL instruction, this three dimensional space, appears fundamental as it provides the basis for interaction.

> b) Narrative as a means of transcending cultural, physical, and environmental dimensions within foreign language (FL) learning:

Narrative can draw on the particular cultural, physical conditions, and environment where EFL instruction is taking place and be used as a vehicle to adapt instruction to that particular context. According to Barkhuizen, "teachers teach best and learners learn best in situations which are compatible with their backgrounds, beliefs, and expectations" (Barkhuizen, 2008, p. 233); however, programme designers seem to provide global solutions in the development of course books (e.g. Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014), rather than tailoring to context. For example, 'story approach' EFL/FL programmes making explicit reference to local festivals, customs, and traditions would permit YL to personally identify with the language items and context.

> c) Problem solving and creativity through narrative in EFL instruction:

Narrative/story appear to enhance the development of creativity and problem solving skills in YLs, and could also be developed through EFL. The prototypical features of narrative and story involve an opening, the characters, the setting, and a problem to be resolved followed by a chain of events leading to the resolution of the problem (Cameron, 2001). Creativity within EFL learning appears essential when considering YLs developmental needs (Fisher, 2005). This could be achieved through a 'story approach' to EFL learning by giving YLs tools to construct their own personal narrative through personal choices and freedom of creativity. The advantages and benefits of

story within EFL have been largely acknowledged (Brewster, Ellis, and Girard, 2002). Story has been incorporated in several popular EFL programmes and course books, but these seem to have developed activities on the basis of locking students into fictional narratives and repetition of set language, rather than creativity, (e.g. Frino, et al. 2014). Consequently, it seems that in many standard EFL programmes, "students have no reason to get involved or think about what they are saying. Indeed, some students who have no idea what the sentences mean will successfully repeat them anyway" (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 139).

2.5.3 Designing an EFL programme

In view of the fundamental period of development of primary students, multiple domains need to be considered when designing EFL programmes for this age group. This section provides an overview of key research conducted within YL, and ESL/EFL language development, which is relevant to the development of the theoretical framework and design of teaching strategies and materials for the 'story approach' used in this research.

The first study investigated implicit grammar instruction and the effects of native language influence on the developmental stages of ESL learning, and involved 150, eleven to twelve year old native French speaking students in intensive ESL classes in Quebec (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). The intervention concerned instructional input relating to the question form in English involving wh- with copula Be (e.g. 'where is the ball?'), auxiliary inversions with yes/no questions (e.g. 'Is the boy here?'), and wh- with auxiliary second (e.g. 'What is the boy throwing?') (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Before the pre-test students had received approximately 350 hours of exposure to English, with no particular focus on metalinguistic instruction or correction of errors (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Instructional material involved worksheets focusing on the question forms described above, with a majority of activities (e.g. making questions using word cards) designed to give students intensive exposure regarding the construction of these question forms in English (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Teaching remained strictly implicit (no grammatical rules); the correct form was supplied in writing for

students to verify their answers (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). The four data collection tasks involved reading/writing skills (pencil/paper) with only one oral production task which permitted eliciting, via communicative activities, students' spontaneous oral productivity of these question forms. Results from this study coincided with previous studies on developmental stages which concluded that concerning oral production, despite intensive implicit input, learners' progress in metalinguistic knowledge follows a determined sequence of acquisition (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). The authors concluded that the nature of the instruction may be partly responsible for the lack of progress on the oral task; findings from research (Pienemann, 1984, 1989) where the intervention involved teaching of structure through "explicit instruction, practice and production" (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p. 14) did lead to progress.

Lightbown and Spada concluded that, in their study, the gap between results of the oral and written tests, where students were more performant, may be due to students having acquired advanced knowledge of the question form, but not sufficiently for oral production, which places great demands on attention (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Results of the written tests also demonstrated first language influence on second language learning.

The study's results imply positive effects of implicit metalinguistic instruction on written tasks, but not on oral communicative skills which benefit from explicit instruction, interaction, and practice (Pienemann, 1984, 1989), and demonstrate the influence of native language on EFL learning. This research project based on a 'story approach' has considered these points in the design of teaching strategies and materials; explicit metalinguistic instruction and noticing differences between native and target language structure are focal points of the intervention.

A second study demonstrates the importance of quality language for ESL/EFL learners and how "story" provides a trampoline for enhanced learning. Paradis and Kirova (2014) investigated the extent of "profile effects" and the influence of the English environment outside school on the English language development in young refugee and immigrant ESL learners. "Profile effects" refers to the differing outcomes according to the nature or

sub-skills of language skills tested (Oller, Pearson, and Cobo-Lewis, 2007; Paradis and Kirova, 2014). Pre-literacy skills, like narrative structure, can be common across languages and are shared skills, whereas linguistic sub-skills like vocabulary and grammar are distributed skills as they are language specific and are acquired independently of each language (Oller, et al. 2007). Profile effects can include "story grammar", a type of literacy skill involving narrative structure (Gutiérrez-Clellen, 2012). Story grammar involves those parts of a story which make it coherent (the setting, initiating event, response, and outcome) and is classed as a cognitive–linguistic skill as it is independent of specific structural linguistic features (Gutiérrez-Clellen, 2012) such as vocabulary or grammar, and is a skill shared between languages. However narrative structure also involves skills which require grammatical knowledge known as "referring expressions" (Gutiérrez-Clellen, 2012); these are required for introducing characters or elements into the story and involve structures such as definite or indefinite articles like "the" or "a" (Paradis and Kirova, 2014).

The study involved 21 children of diverse FLA backgrounds attending an intercultural pre-school programme in Canada for four mornings/week; they were aged four at the start of the project and four years ten months when testing took place, using a normed, standardized story-telling instrument. Results indicate that young ESL learners achieve monolingual levels of attainment in shared skills like story grammar more rapidly than in distributed skills like structural linguistic features (Paradis and Kirova, 2014). Results also demonstrated that though some of the group was exposed to greater quantity of the target language through their home environment, their results were not superior, illustrating that richness of input bears more weight on ESL progress than quantity of input (Paradis and Kirova, 2014; Paradis, 2011).

The relevance of this study for a 'story approach' for YLs include the following:

1) story for testing EFL skills is less formal, more accessible to this age group, and language samples can be recorded and analysed for multiple language skills enabling "a comprehensive measure of a

young child's English-language abilities" (Paradis and Kirova, 2014, p. 343);

2) the importance of quality versus quantity provides an emphasis on rich input through different forms of narrative and metalinguistic features of the language;

3) narrative structure provides a basis for building metalinguistic skills. Understanding profile effects could "prompt educators to focus on those sub-skills that take longer for ELLs to develop when planning language oriented activities in early education classrooms in order to ensure that children are provided with ample opportunities to develop these sub-skills" (Paradis and Kirova, 2014, p. 347);

4) this study appears to emphasise the importance of providing EFL educators with methods and approaches adapted to YLs needs.

An experimental study conducted by Tomasello and Olguin investigated the use of nonsense nouns and plural morphology by eight, 20-26 month old (5 boys, 3 girls), native English speaking infants (Tomasello and Olguin, 1993). At the start of the study the mean age was 23.5 months; all were using multi-word utterances with a mean length utterance of 2.2 words (Tomasello & Olguin, 1993). The aim was 1) to determine 23 month old infants use of plural morphology and the use of novel nouns in verb-argument structures; 2) to determine if noun and verb categories emerge simultaneously in the young child or if the noun category emerges developmentally prior to the verb, as some studies have highlighted, providing essential evidence concerning the developmental sequence of grammatical structure in English native language acquisition (Tomasello and Olguin, 1993).

Four unusual toy animals, bearing nonsense experimental names, provided the material for the experiment conducted over seven sessions. Four experimental conditions included the toys in the role of agent (performing an action), patient (receiver of the action), agent and patient and neither agent nor patient (Tomasello & Olguin, 1993). Analyses involved the nonce-nouns

used in a verb-argument structure containing a transitive verb (i.e. noun used as agent or patient), and the use of nonce-nouns with plural morphemes.

Positive results highlighted the use of nouns and plural morphology. The infants used the plural "s" when presented with more than one toy animal despite having never heard the nonce-nouns used in the plural, and used the nonce-nouns as agent or patient within the verb-argument structure regardless of whether they had heard them used this way (Tomasello and Olguin, 1993). Concerning other utterances, the children demonstrated creativity by producing multiple utterances involving the nonce-nouns and other linguistic structures (e.g. prepositions, adjectives), which had never been modeled for them (Tomasello & Olguin, 1993). According to Tomasello and Olguin this study contributed to confirming that nouns emerge before verbs in the developmental sequence. Nouns relate to concrete objects in the "real world" (Tomasello and Olguin, 1993, p. 461) as opposed to verbs which relate to actions and are more abstract in nature.

The importance of this study for EFL is multiple as it highlights language learning as a creative endeavor which is stimulated by real life events and objects. The outcome measures "all involved the children's production of novel utterances" (Tomasello and Olguin, 1993, p. 460) and in the light of a discourse functional approach to language learning, structure, within language learning, is the result of communicative needs (Tomasello and Olguin, 1993).

This study provides pertinent elements from which to draw when investigating appropriate methods and approaches in EFL instruction for YLs. Similarities exist between the early stages in all infants learning their native language (Lightbown and Spada, 2006) and EFL learning in YLs resembles native language acquisition, where foreign language learners make the same structural mistakes as their native language learner counterparts (Tough 1991). It seems that a parallel can be drawn with EFL learning where interaction fulfills a communicative need and students' need to be provided with opportunities to be creative within language learning. Learners seem to require structural tools which permit creativity, thus underlining the

importance of the development of metalinguistic and metacognitive skills within EFL instruction.

Dulay and Burt (1973) compare foreign language learning through repetition and correction of syntax to what they term 'creative construction' (Dulay and Burt, 1973) of first language where the child possesses the innate ability to construct language without any exterior formal instruction. Concerning grammatical errors in second language learning, the habit formation theory considers these to be interference errors of first language syntax transfer to second language learning, whereas, the creative construction theory considers these as developmental errors similar to ones a child learning his first language would make (Dulay and Burt, 1973).

The study involved 145 Spanish students of five to eight years old. Three hundred and eighty-eight unambiguous errors gathered from natural interaction were used for analysis and were classed into three categories of error: developmental, interference and unique (i.e. neither developmental nor interference). Results of the study showed that only 3% of errors were attributed to interference, 12% were unique, whereas 85% were developmental which, according to the researchers, demonstrates that second language learners can construct English second language "creatively" through innate abilities just as mother tongue is constructed (Dulay and Burt, 1973). From this study they concluded that learning a second language involves the same processes as first language and that through this innate language learning capacity and cognitive ability young second language learners will adjust language over time to conform to grammatically correct speech and no formal instruction is required (Dulay and Burt, 1973).

These results are significant for EFL YLs. The authors state that research seldom provides 'shortcuts' (Dulay and Burt, 1973) in second or foreign language teaching yet their study seems to demonstrate the opposite. In the Dulay and Burt study, 85% of errors were developmental; rather than rely on innate language learning capacities to adjust interlanguage over time, through grammar instruction, noticing errors, and practicing correction, students could gain precious time in EFL instruction. This has particularly pertinent implications concerning input and proficiency levels. It is important to make

the distinction between creative EFL language learning through a 'story approach', which is the focus of this research project, and 'creative construction' of language as described by Dulay and Burt. The former refers to language learning through metalinguistic/metacognitive instruction facilitated by story in an endeavour to accelerate the language learning process; the latter refers to language learning through natural innate abilities. EFL learning through a 'story approach' does not deny the possible existence of innate language learning ability, but rather endeavors to facilitate and accelerate its potential and capacity.

A second study conducted by Dulay and Burt, built on the study of comparative error analysis described above, investigated the "natural sequence of L2 structure acquisition" (Dulay and Burt, 1973, p. 251) in five to eight year olds; do all children learn grammatical structures in the same sequence? This study analysed the natural speech of 151 Spanish speaking ESL students composed of three separate backgrounds: 95 Chicano children, 26 Mexican children, and 30 Puerto Rican children. Though all of the students were exposed to substantial natural input in English, they differed in the type and amount of exposure which implies that any "universal sequence of acquisition of L2 structure" (Dulay and Burt, 1973) would be demonstrated in all three groups. The study was conducted by quantifying the nature and type of morphemes employed in the natural speech data gathered from the students. Eight types of morphemes were investigated: present progressive (-ing), plural (-s), irregular past (ate, took), possessive, article (a, the), 3rd person singular present indicative (-s), contractible copula (-be e.g. she's), and contractible auxiliary (be-V-ing) (Dulay and Burt, 1973).

Results of the study seemed to demonstrate a common order for second language acquisition concerning these morphemes in the three sample groups but that this order differed from that of first language acquisition. The authors also conclude that "this common sequence indicates that the learning order of these structures is controlled by the child's processing strategies, which means that he must be cognitively "ready" in order to acquire any one of them" (Dulay and Burt, 1973, p. 256). The authors of the research further

conclude that "the strategies of second language acquisition by children are universal" (Dulay and Burt, 1973, p. 257).

These results appear to present important contrasting yet complementary implications for designing YL EFL programmes. As the acquisition order differs from that of native speakers, it seems that input from course books should provide for a variety of exposure to encourage the foreign student's natural acquisition order. However, this innatist perspective of universal order of acquisition of ESL/EFL learners seems to have been contested by constructivists for whom YLs transfer mother tongue skills to foreign language learning (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Tough, 1991). The constructivist perspective seems to highlight the necessity for EFL programmes to adapt and take into consideration the different native languages and particular learning contexts of young EFL learners.

Paradis's 2011 YL study focuses on the influence of internal versus external factors on ESL development of "vocabulary size and accuracy with verb morphology" (Paradis, 2011, p. 213, 223). Internal factors encompass language aptitude, transfer of metalinguistic knowledge from first to second language development, and the age of the learners in relation to their cognitive abilities. External factors involve length of exposure to the target language at home, in school, and through other sources like television, reading, friends, DVDs, and computer games (Paradis, 2011). External factors have a quantitative and a qualitative component as quantity does not necessarily imply quality and richness of language (Paradis, 2011).

The study involved 169 newly arrived immigrant children, from exclusively native language speaking families, with a mean age of 5 years 10 months having had on average 20 months of exposure to English in Canada. Research questions concerned the influence of the following factors on ESL acquisition rates: language aptitude, native language morphosyntax, the child's age, and the quantity and quality of input; the influence of internal and external factors; and the varying influence of the above factors in relation to target language vocabulary and morphosyntax results (Paradis, 2011). Results of a parent questionnaire provided information concerning external factors, and results of four student tests provided information for internal factors. Concerning the

four student tests: the Comprehensive Test of Phonological Processing (CTOPP) provided a phonological memory score, enabling an evaluation of language aptitude; a non-verbal IQ screen test provided a measure of analytic ability; the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) provided a measure of receptive vocabulary size; the Test of Early Grammatical Impairment (TEGI) provided a score for morpheme accuracy concerning the use of 3rd person singular 's' regular past tense (e.g. teaches), and irregular past tense (raked, dug), BE copla and auxiliary (e.g. bears are soft, he is thirsty), and auxiliary DO (e.g. do the bears sing?) (Paradis, 2011).

Results revealed that internal factors have a greater influence on proficiency than external factors, particularly for learning verb morphology compared to learning vocabulary which is more influenced by classroom input (Paradis, 2011). Concerning child-internal factors results demonstrated a number of elements important for ESL and EFL learning: learning mechanisms are similar for various aspects of language learning like vocabulary and morphology and are dependent upon "short-term memory abilities" (Paradis, 2011, p. 228-229); language aptitude involves skills demonstrating the capacity to generalise, categorise, and undertake comparative reasoning; transfer effects from first to second language; and the age of the child involving his cognitive level and linguistic skills already developed in first language. Concerning this last point Paradis suggests that it might be profitable to wait until children are older and have developed skills in their native language rather than initiating a second language in pre-school before the age of 5 (Paradis, 2011). Results of the study relating to child-external factors revealed that both length of exposure and richness of the input contribute to ESL development demonstrating the importance of quantity and quality (Paradis, 2011). Paradis emphasises the importance of the richness of the linguistic environment over and above length of exposure in any language acquisition theory (Paradis, 2011).

Paradis' conclusions permit highlighting elements pertinent to the design of a 'story approach' for five to eleven year olds. Concerning child-internal factors the optimal age of onset for EFL instruction appears to be 5, which is the age of students in the present pilot-project; students have acquired

sufficient skills in first language to be able to transfer these to foreign language learning. However, Paradis appears to make a generalisation of the nature of skills transfer within all languages; the transfer of native language skills to second language appears to rather be language specific. It seems that a native French speaking child would have greater ease with EFL instruction than an Arabic, or a Chinese speaking child, given that the alphabet is the same, and words often belong to the same root or differ only in pronunciation (e.g. television/ télévision, post/poste). This seems to indicate a necessity to design programmes particularly suited to specific language environments. Child-external factors place quality above quantity; richness and length of exposure appear to be an issue in foreign language learning environments. Paradis underlines the current lack of and need for research in the domain of YL ESL/EFL acquisition (Paradis, 2011).

Within this perspective, a theoretical framework for the development of foreign language skills, as developed for this research project, seems coherent as it presents an instructional path which can be common to all target languages while meeting the cognitive/developmental needs of YLs, and provides an approach for the design and development of EFL programmes adapted to learning contexts, through a 'story approach'.

A study conducted by Cabrera and Martinez (2001) considered input comprehensibility strategies. Their 2001 study was conducted with 60 Spanish native speaking 10 year olds involved investigating the efficiency of repetitions, comprehension checks and gestures in EFL comprehension of children's English language stories (Cabera and Martinez, 2001).

The study (2001) investigated which strategies facilitate EFL learner comprehension of children's stories (Cabera and Martinez, 2001). Quantitative data was gathered through the results of two groups of 30 students having had two years of EFL instruction. Each group listened to the narration of two different versions of the same two stories, without the support of pictures.

One version of each story, was adjusted linguistically only, in its syntax and vocabulary, to correspond more closely to language the students were

accustomed to hearing; certain difficult words were eliminated or replaced by known words; new words essential to the story were taught prior to the intervention (Cabrera and Martinez, 2001).

The second version contained the same linguistic adjustments but included in addition 48 repetitions of certain words or phrases, 20 comprehension checks and out of the 897 words in the story 72 were animated through gestures involving illustrating, physical appearance, actions, place, affirmation and negation, and certain specific words e.g. 'money', 'hens' (Cabrera and Martinez, 2001). Students carried out a 10 item test in their native language following the narrations; explanations and instructions were also given in their native language (Cabrera and Martinez, 2001).

Results gathered from the texts which only included linguistic adjustments, demonstrated no significant difference between the 2 groups. (Cabrera and Martinez, 2001). However, when presented with the second test where linguistic adjustments were supplemented by repetitions, questions, and gestures students performed better; a paired sample t-test revealed significantly better results with p=0.00 (Cabrera and Martinez, 2001). According to the authors the study was developed in order to test strategies designed to facilitate comprehension and encourage listening skills yet, though results of the test involving the second story, where gestures and body language were used, were significantly better, a third of the students obtained poor results despite pupils overall rating of the second test as easy (Cabrera and Martinez, 2001). Pictures were intentionally not used in order to isolate the modifications made to the texts to avoid visual intervening factors which could facilitate comprehension.

Despite linguistic adjustments to the stories, the pupils did not perform well on the first test which they rated difficult. The second test, involving the stories where linguistic adjustments were supplemented by gestures, repetitions and comprehension checks, was rated as easy, yet results show that a third of the students needed to improve their listening skills (Cabrera and Martinez, 2001), indicating that additional strategies are required in order to fully engage students in EFL instruction. It seems that visual aids like pictures, concrete items like realia, manipulating language, oral interaction,

and building literacy skills are additional factors to take into consideration for the development of EFL programmes. These elements all constitute the focus of the present 'story approach' project with a particular emphasis on oral communicative skills. The use of mother tongue for instructions and explanations in the Cabrera Martinez study (2001) highlights the difference between different language learning contexts, with foreign language situations being generally far more restricted than ESL or immersion contexts. EFL learners seem to benefit from native language use in certain classroom activities, as in the Cabrera Martinez study. Certain programmes fail to take these elements into account (e.g. Frino, et al. 2014); consequently, EFL students fail to draw benefit from many of the teaching activities provided in the course books.

Cabrera and Martinez (2001) underline the lack of studies undertaken in foreign language classroom contexts regarding input, emphasizing the need for EFL studies, as second language environments studies cannot systematically apply to EFL contexts. The literature review undertaken for the present study seems to confirm this, and a dearth of studies in the particular domain of YL EFL oral communicative skills development in different cultural classroom contexts. There is notably a call for longitudinal studies focusing on YL EFL skills development over time (Butler and Le, 2018), and seems to be more particularly for speaking skills. For example, In the longitudinal Butler and Le study, data collection did not include speaking tests due to logistical issues (Butler and Le, 2018).

The Early Language Learning in Europe (ElliE) Research Project (Enever, 2011), proposes providing a "tool to guide" (Enever, 2011, p.9) future policy and implementation within foreign language learning (FLL) for seven/eight to ten/eleven year old primary school students. Conducted in seven European countries (England, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Croatia) by experienced multinational educationalists, this three year longitudinal project (2007-2010), included over 1,400 children, with a sample of 170-200 seven-eight year old children/country, and averaging 25 students/class, at the start of the project. FL instruction involved English in all countries except England (Spanish and French). Its value is amplified by the dearth of YL longitudinal

studies in the FLL domain (Enever, 2011). FL teachers were either the class teacher or exterior teachers exclusively teaching FL; "Collecting evidence of progress in language achievement from large numbers of young children is a challenging task for any research study" (Enever, 2011, p.15), therefore, whole sample data collection concerned listening skills only, featuring an annual listening multi-choice task using pictures, with instructions in the native language by the researcher; questions were graded in difficulty, per task and for each year. Year one test involved students circling the correct picture to match the statement read out in the target language; in years two and three the statements were presented through a recorded voice. Year three test involved inserting the correct statements in a comic strip (chose A, B, or C) to complete the story. However, the recoded voice presented a challenge for learners having not previously experienced this mode of instruction/testing.

Focal groups of six children (equal gender) from each class permitted tracking students, and provided interview data (motivation, difficulty or ease of progress, home, and out-side school FLL support) and evaluation data over the project. "Designing speaking tasks for young children, taking their first steps in learning a new language at school, is widely acknowledged as a complex task" (Enever, 2011, p. 17), due to the range of learners (enthusiastic, shy, learning difficulties, special needs). This, however, was conducted over the three years through four tasks: in years one-two (1)"a vocabulary retrieval task" (Enever, 2011, p.17), enabled data gathering of spontaneous language through students freely recalling any target language (words or phrases); (2) target language production through the interviewer asking questions in the native language using a familiar "role play task" (p.17) focused on specific vocabulary and formulaic speech (food/restaurant), previously introduced in class; year three involved interactional speech through questions from the interviewer in the target language concerning (1) answering personal questions, and a student-interviewer question-answer guessing game involving, describing people and indicating locations, relating to a picture; and (2) more detailed questions about the students themselves and their friends concerning appearance and location (Enever, 2011). Parent questionnaires in the first and third year provided data concerning home and

out-side school support for FLL, and the parent's own FLL background (pp.18). FL teaching, conducted mainly by specialist teachers, not necessarily YL trained, involved 45 minute twice/weekly lessons. Students, benefitted from varying degrees of exposure to English outside school (television programs, international exchange-projects, activities), and during school (freely accessible multi-media equipment; equipped FL corners), in addition to weekly instruction. Whereas in some countries English was an accessible additional language (English in Sweden, Netherlands, Croatia), others had limited access (Italy, Spain, Poland), demonstrating that three of the six counties involved ESL instruction rather than EFL. Most schools had audio-visual equipment for videos and songs, access to computers, and reading material. Within this project, students demonstrated progress in production (oral) and comprehension (aural) skills; this was evaluated according to enjoyable, meaningful use of target language, through individual or collaborative tasks.

Measures involving the focal groups included speaking, listening, and reading skills, however only speaking skills are reported here. Results concern an overall view of the seven countries rather than individual classes/schools/countries. Concerning speaking skills over the three years: results for fluency, involving, the total number of words, number of different words, and number of nouns, demonstrated an increase in all three categories, particularly in the number of words; a statistically significant increase in vocabulary, and syntactic complexity was demonstrated. "The average ELLiE learners have approached A1 level in their oral and aural skills" (Enever, 2011, p.142). Surprisingly, the researchers used the CEFR A1 level as a benchmark for speaking skills, whereas they claim that "the CEFR level descriptors as benchmarks for early primary FLL are wholly inappropriate" (Enever, 2011, p.38), under the assumption that they do not adequately reflect processes of YL emerging skills. This contradiction seems to imply that despite reluctance, the CEFR does provide a benchmark for YL evaluation. ELLiE results also demonstrated that learner's literacy (reading) and listening skills develop simultaneously with speaking skills.

Results correlated with the quantity of target language contact, including exposure to the FL outside instruction, the amount of equipment and materials schools possessed, and with parents' socio-economic status, and teacher attitudes, approaches, and proficiency. Students from a lower economic-status, less equipped schools and limited exposure performed less well; students from high socio-economic status families, and countries where English was practically an additional language, performed significantly better. Appropriate materials, continuity of learning across classes, evaluation monitoring progress, access to authentic books and methods, and interaction within varied activities were highlighted as positive factors for FL learning.

The interest of this project for the present study is several fold, involving the following: 1) results highlight the importance of distinguishing EFL and ESL instructional contexts; 2) emphasis of the need for EFL, teaching approaches, materials, tasks and assessments to be carefully adapted to this restricted target language contact context; 3) the use of pictures, role play, question-answer games involving personal, real-life topics, are purposeful, meaningful tasks for FL, YLs; 4) native language use has its place in the FL classroom; 5) issues relating achievement levels to socio-economic status adds to this need for greater efficiency in FL approaches; 6) the difficulty involved in assessing YLs speaking skills progress, and the need for suitable speaking skills evaluation: 7) the plausibility of using the CEFR A1 level as a benchmark for YL achievement in FL oral/aural skills.

Conclusion

The overview at the start of this chapter presents theories and stages of development in FLA. The distinction between ESL/EFL learning contexts and English and French native language learning development, and implications for ESL/EFL learning pedagogy, were discussed. The implications of explicit, implicit, and creative language learning, together with the significance of Narrative and story and their relevance for EFL

learning within this study were highlighted. Key research influencing this study was presented.

These studies, particularly pertinent for this research project, appear to confirm the importance for teaching strategies, materials and learning environments to be carefully tailored to YLs target language learning needs. YLs are still in a process of development and negotiating meaning, therefore placing additional responsibility on target language learning. Furthermore, in the light of English as a lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2005) and governments around the world seeking to provide for their young generations, context within YL EFL instruction takes on a new dimension where programmes need to be fashioned according to cultural and socio-economic factors within local populations (Kuchah, 2018; Murphy, 2018). There is currently a call for research studies in the domain of YL EFL early learning programmes in such contexts (Butler, Sayer, and Huang, 2018).

In view of this literature review, and the CEFR criteria for YL speaking skills, a FL theoretical framework has been developed to respond to these YLs needs. A 'story approach' to EFL learning has been designed on the basis of this framework and is detailed in chapter three.

3. A Theoretical Framework and 'story approach' for EFL Learning

This chapter outlines a possible theoretical framework for constructing a 'story approach' English Language Learning Programme (ELLP) designed to meet the needs of young French native speakers learning English as a foreign language. This ELLP takes into account the particular learning context of these students which involves limited exposure to English language outside school hours and weekly EFL school instruction restricted to approximately 45-90 minutes.

The chapter comprises three sections: firstly, child development theories and their implication within foreign language (FL) instruction and programme design, together with theories from second language acquisition (SLA) and ESL/EFL pedagogy research; secondly, a general evaluation of current EFL course books and programmes while highlighting their limitations within the parameters of these theories; and thirdly, a theoretical framework for the development of foreign language learning programmes based upon theoretical underpinnings, and providing for the design of a 'story approach' to teaching and learning. Section three describes the 'story approach' ELLP for French EFL Young Learners (YLs), designed and employed for this research study.

The theoretical framework for a 'story approach' is constructed on the assumption that FL learning for young primary school learners appears significantly close to general cognitive development, and FLA, compared to older primary, adolescent, or adult learners. Consequently, first language development and child development theories, as well as theories from SLA and EFL pedagogy, seem to carry major importance within EFL learning for this age group.

3.1. Theories of Child Development

Development, learning, and instruction can be considered from a variety of perspectives. The following section discusses the perspectives that influenced the design of this programme.

3.1.1. Biological Factors and Innate Qualities

Some theorists believe that cognitive development takes place in stages and is dependent upon biological factors manifest in brain functions which develop over a period of time extending from birth to adolescence (Piaget, 1966). Hence, children progress from intense dependence on concrete elements for negotiating meaning, and making sense of the world (Fisher, 1990), to being increasingly capable of abstract thinking (Williams and Burden, 1997; Donaldson, 1978). Learning involves a process of assimilation and accommodation; assimilation entails new information being integrated with existing information, and accommodation involves transforming existing information to integrate new information (Williams and Burden, 1997).

Bruner (1991) recognises the biological, evolutionary aspects of cognitive development while not adhering to Piaget's theory of stages of development (Wood, 1988). He suggests that cognitive development involves enactive, iconic, and symbolic means of thinking, respectively concerning, actions, images, and language (Bruner 1960) and through these means children negotiate meaning (Williams and Burden, 1997). Bruner (1960) emphasises the importance of the environment within cognitive development; brain functions may well mature as a result of biological factors, but the extent can be influenced by independent factors.

Indeed, the manner in which one receives information may impact on learning. The concept of multi-sensory learning for example, (Barsalou, 2008) seems to be supported by recent research in cognitive psychology.

Within this, the theory of "embodied intelligence" (Smith and Gasser, 2005, p. 27) advocates that contact with, and manipulation of, concrete items, enhances learning, particularly for nursery school children (Zacharia, Loizou, and Papaevripidou, 2012). Similarly, multi-modal instruction, involving aural, visual, and haptic means facilitates memorisation and employing these modes simultaneously has an optimum effect in learning (Bara, Gentaz, Colé, Sprenger-Charolles, 2004; Chan and Black, 2006). Interestingly, the multi-sensory approach was first introduced by Montessori (1915-1958) (Bara et al. 2004).

Concerning YLs, who are in the process of developing negotiation of meaning, building concepts, and developing abstract thinking through concrete elements, it seems fundamental to teach to all these senses, to maximise instruction efficiency. This perspective is engaged within the theoretical framework and 'story approach' outlined in this chapter.

3.1.2. Social Interaction and Cognitive Development

From the interactionist-developmentalist perspective, social interaction within the environment is a prerequisite for cognitive development in that any biological function or genetic ingredient requires stimulation to develop (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). For example, infants at birth may possess the mechanisms and biological functions for speech, but practice, interaction, and the intervention of more capable persons, is required for speech to develop (Ashworth and Wakefield, 2004; Pinker, 1995). Vygotsky's (1978) theories of child development emphasise the importance of language and social interaction: through the notion of a "functional learning system" (p. 125) in which each child's development is molded by and through his own specific environment and social experiences. Through the theory of "mediated memory" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 125), interaction with adults enables YLs to develop efficient strategies of memorization; through the role of play, children are able to integrate values, knowledge of culture and meaning (Vygotsky, 1978).

Beyond social interaction, children can reach a higher or highest level of attainment through instruction (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) emphasises the important role of the mediator in child development, the ZPD being the difference between the child's current knowledge and the level just above, attainable through the help of an adult or more capable peer (Williams and Burden, 1997). Bruner's (1975) term "scaffolding" (p. 12) designates the particular help extended to learners by more able persons; this concept is linked to ZPD, emphasising the importance of social interaction and instruction in cognitive development (Maybin et al. 1992; Wood, 1988).

Children are particularly dependent upon affective factors for harmonious, effective, and efficient cognitive development, therefore prioritising the environment (Brown, 2000). Human learning and motivation, according to Zull, are linked to evolution and are embedded in emotion (Zull, 2011). Recent advances in neuroscience demonstrate the importance of 'experiences', particularly those involving the environment and sensory input, in the creation of lasting memories (Zull, 2011). This concept appears vital for YL EFL learning, particularly as the nature of childhood implies frequent engagement with new experiences. In language learning, memorisation of language elements seems essential for success, thus making the need for positive experiences linked to sensory input fundamental.

3.1.3. The Construction of Meaning

Ausubel's cognitive theory of learning, still influential today, emphasises the fundamental importance of meaning (Brown, 2000). For Ausubel rote learning and meaningful learning are in opposition to one another, rote learning leads to the accumulation of 'isolated entities' in the cognitive structure whereas meaningful learning develops from new knowledge being linked to existing knowledge permitting new elements to be retained more efficiently and inclusively (Ausubel, 1960; Ausubel, 1980). Rote learning vocabulary items for EFL primary students often appears to be the norm; lists of words are learned in themes, or formulaic phrases are learned as language chunks, which, once taken out of context, lose meaning and hinder recall. The

implications of this is that learning in context could enhance efficiency in EFL instruction permitting improved memorisation of the language items through linking these to existing knowledge.

Contrasting Ausubel's theory of rote learning and meaningful learning, Skinner's (1957) behaviourist perspective, posits language learning through the reinforcement and conditioning of verbal responses (Skinner, 1957). Language learning develops through a stimuli-response circuit where emphasis on repetition and rewarding experiences gives meaning another perspective to Ausubel's theory. Within EFL YL teaching, the importance of positive and rewarding experiences seems fundamental; however, within the present context of time-restricted language learning, the behaviourist perspective of a unique stimuli-response approach, seems insufficient for long-term memorisation. According to Sawyer, a deep understanding of concepts permits creativity and developing thinking skills and can be achieved through learning with others (Sawyer, 2011). It appears, therefore, that foreign language programmes should give YLs tools to construct creative language; a creativity permitting children to truly understand the deeper language meaning, rather than be imprisoned in a mindset of set words and phrases devoid of personal meaning.

The YL's attachment to meaning seems evident and natural within the parameters of collaborative learning. For Wells, learning in context provides a platform for meaning where YLs can engage with activities spontaneously, grasp new ideas more easily (Wells, 1986) and is particularly characteristic of the young child's home environment where "collaborative meaning making" promotes "effective learning" (Wells, 1986, p. 103). For Fisher, children's curiosity to make meaning of their environment is the principle motor of thinking, learning and development (Fisher, 2005), and from the earliest age children are instinctively drawn to negotiating meaning and making sense of and mastering the world (Donaldson, 1978).

3.1.4. SLA Theory and EFL Pedagogy Research for YLs, relating to child development and FLA theories

The theoretical framework and 'story approach', have been elaborated to describe a means, "an action or system by which a result is achieved" (Pearsall, 1999 p.883), for the effective development of FL skills for YLs, in particularly restricted target language contexts. Focused on the evolving early primary school learner (five-six year olds), the theoretical framework and 'story approach' have attempted to provide a basis which encompasses the interconnectedness of research theories from SLA and EFL pedagogy (chapter two section 2.4.3, e.g. Ellis, 1999), child development (section 3.1), and FLA (chapter 2, sections 2.1 and 2.2). This framework attempts to account for the child's evolving FL skills through the "interaction" (Macaro, 2006, p.333) of elements composing the framework.

Chapter 2 section 2.4.3, proposes theories from SLA and EFL pedagogy research for YLs. These appear to echo and confirm several perspectives from child development (chapter 3, sections 3.1.1-3.3) and FLA theory (chapter 2, sections 2.1, 2.2), as suggested by Nasssaji (2016a; 2016b). These perspectives particularly concern the importance of, *oral interaction, negotiation of meaning* (e.g. Ellis, Heimbach, Tanaka, and Yamazaki, 1999; Gass, Mackey, and Ross-Feldman, 2005) *contextual learning* (e.g. Batstone, 2002; Delahaie, 2009), and *implicit/explicit learning* (e.g. Brown, 2000; Hulstijn, 2005)**.** Ellis (2005) proposes ten principles for FL learning (chapter 2, section 2.4.3) which emphasise the importance of these four processes.

FLA is of particular importance to FL learning through transfer effects of native language structure (Dulay and Burt, 1973; Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Yule, 2010), which children have acquired by the age of five (Paradis, 2011), to target language learning. Children, however, continue learning pragmatics in their native language beyond the age of six-seven years old (Delahaie, 2009), seeming to imply that in any FL learning situation, these process would occur simultaneously in first and foreign language. This seems to demonstrate that for YLs, certain processes involved in FLA equally apply to FL learning. Nassaji confirms, "Much of the theoretical support for

interactional feedback comes from an interactionist perspective. Inspired by first language (L1) child interaction research, this perspective focuses on the nature of conversational interaction" (Nassaji, 2016a, p.536).

The theoretical framework (figure 3.1, section 3.3.1) is based on the following description, and has attempted to be rigorous in making a clear link between theories and the concepts (Macaro, 2007) proposed in the framework. Taking into account extensive research and theories from SLA, EFL pedagogy, including notions from Ellis's (2005) ten principles (chapter 2), FLA, and child development, it appears that FL learning for primary level YLs in restricted target language contexts, could possibly be enhanced through focused instruction (e.g. Seidlhofer, 2005) involving the following:

STORY: personal engagement, through "personal story", involving real-life elements (e.g. everyday occurrences, including culture, traditions) in the learning context (environment) providing for enhanced language learning through enjoyable, pleasurable topics-activities and tasks (Ellis, 2005: principles 1, 3, 4, 9) bearing intrinsic interest for YLs (e.g. Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Bruner, 1991; Enever, 2011; Fisher, 2005; Paradis and Kirova, 2014) within "personal story".

EMBODIMENT: personal engagement, through real-world concrete elements (e.g. objects linked to the immediate local context) in the environment (Vygotsky, 1978), providing for oral communicative interaction, (Ellis, 2005: principle 8) which permits interactional feedback (Nassaji, 2016a: Nassaji, 2016b) through collaborative learning (e.g. Bruner, 1991; Vygotsky, 1978).

OWNERSHIP: meaning is paramount (Ellis, 2005: principle 2); through "personal story" and personal engagement in oral communicative interaction, collaborative learning, and *negotiation of meaning* (as a social process through understanding concepts, and as a facilitative process, through repairing conversational breakdown: Nassaji, 2016a) the YL assimilates

meaning, therefore taking ownership of learning, through identifying with that meaning (e.g. Fisher, 2005; Mitchel, 2009; Wells, 1986).

EMPOWERMENT: "story", "embodiment", "ownership", appear to provide motivation, and confidence in learning (self-efficacy), which are contributed to through satisfying *affective factors* ("affective filter hypothesis" Krashen, 2009, p. 31), via enjoyable, pleasurable activities. Engagement in collaboration, through tasks adjusted to learning needs (Ellis, 2005: principles 5, 6, 7), enhances *memorisation*, facilitating *recall* (Anderson, 2011; Mitchel, 2009). Attitudes of those involved in the learning process (e.g. peers, teachers, parents), can positively influence, or hinder this empowerment (Ellis, 2005: principle 9 ; Enever, 2011; Lucas, 2011).

ORAL COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS, speaking, answering, asking, appear to result from the processes of "story", "embodiment", "ownership", "empowerment".

LITERACY SKILLS: native language first emerges through oral skills; early primary-level children are still building literacy skills in their native language (*reading, writing*). As these native language literacy skills emerge, they can be harnessed to facilitate FL learning, and develop alongside/simultaneously FL speaking skills for older primary learners (Enever, 2011; Lucas and Villegas, 2011).

These points (section 3.1.4) form the basis of the theoretical framework illustrated in figure 3.1 section 3.3.1. They remain to be confirmed and validated through this three year, longitudinal, cross-sectional, and case-study, research project, in an attempt to "identify" (Macaro, 2007, p.241) enabling features for effective YL, FL learning, in restricted target language contexts.

3.1.5. Implications of Theories for the Development of EFL Programmes and Course Books

Integrating these child development theories with theories of FLA and ESL/EFL learning, narrative, and implicit and explicit learning discussed in chapter two, the implications for the development of YL EFL programmes and course books can now be examined.

One implication of these theories is the importance of the type of materials, activities, experiences, level of language and environment, as the child has changing developmental needs as he progresses through primary school. Having evolved from a five year old, highly dependent upon sensory input and concrete items for understanding and learning, the child of eleven is capable of abstract thinking (Donaldson, 1978; Williams and Burden, 1997) and literacy skills in his mother tongue. Foreign language (FL) learning programmes would need to provide for this developmental process at every stage of the journey, and particularly in restricted target language contexts (this study), compared to contexts benefitting from outside/extracurricular support for FL learning (Enever, 2011).

It appears that learning, including FL/EFL learning, is an evolutionary process rather than linear, where knowledge and understanding of meaning are the result of a combination of factors. The young child is naturally an egocentric being (Donaldson, 1978) and therefore, it seems, that any powerful learning programme, would need to put the child at the centre of that programme. As a social being, the young child is dependent upon the environment for gaining knowledge of the world (Vygotsky, 1978), which provides the foundations for further learning and progress. With these points in mind, it appears that 'Meaning' is a key factor in the FL/EFL learning process; without meaning, language is devoid of its very essence (Fisher, 2005). It seems therefore, that meaning should be the focal point of all instruction including FL/EFL learning.

The actual stages of development are similar in all babies and young children regardless of their mother tongue (Wells, 1986). The same processes appear

to follow for foreign language learning (chapter two sections 2.2-2.4) with the caveat that FL learning environments provide less quantity of input compared to native language situations, thus providing far less repetition, making the process of linking new knowledge to existing knowledge much more laborious, lengthy, and uncertain. According to Krashen, native language learning is largely implicit; infants learn language by absorbing it through the speech heard in the environment (Krashen, 1976). Interaction is however fundamental (Lightbown and Spada, 2006) as is "contextual immersion" (Ambridge and Lieven, 2011, p. 365). FL/EFL learning, by contrast, involves varying degrees of implicit and explicit learning depending on the age of the child (Tough, 1991) and more particularly in classroom situations (Schmidt, 2001); it seems that FL/EFL programmes need to adjust content and language learning activities to cater for the age and specific learning contexts of the pupils for whom the course books are intended.

Despite immersion learning situations, young second language learners do not benefit from the extent of language input that native language learners do (Lightbown and Spada, 1999; Paradis, 2011). Concerning this research study's EFL learning context, YLs are far removed from an immersion situation, as target language exposure is restricted to weekly lessons and is highly limited outside school. Furthermore, the classroom learning context is substantially different to native language learning which is essentially situational. Consequently, to achieve oral communicative competence, an FL/EFL classroom learning situation would need to simulate contexts and situations relating to real life.

All these factors need consideration for the design and development of effective EFL course book content. Essentially, compensating a tremendous lack of quantity of input and exposure, with highly increased quality of input, while paying particular attention to the dose of explicit and implicit language instruction. The above discussion seems to demonstrate that an effective foreign language learning programme (FLLP) places the child at the center of learning with 'Meaning' as the focal point. In view of this, a theoretical framework and 'story approach' to foreign language learning has been developed (described in section 3.3).

3.2. The Incorporation of Theories from SLA and EFL pedagogy research, Child Development, and Language Learning Theories in Commercially available Course Books and Programmes

Commercially available EFL programmes appear to have incorporated language learning and developmental theories into their course books for primary school students, though these seem to present limitations.

Concerning affective factors ('affective filter hypothesis': Krashen, 2009, p. 31), YL EFL course books generally seem to provide pleasurable activities e.g. colouring images; songs; singing. These appear to encourage motivation for EFL learning by creating a relaxed environment (Krashen, 1982; Krashen, 2009) and appealing to the child's sensitivity to enjoyable experiences.

However, the content of a number of well commercialised EFL course books and programmes such as Chatterbox (Strange, 2009a, 2009b), I Love English (Wirth, 2008), and Kid's Box (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017) generally appear to provide for language learning through a series of vocabulary items, or chunks of language, grouped as themes (e.g. fruit and vegetables, colours, clothes, family, pets, etc.), and learned together (e.g. Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). Following a study conducted by Ausubel (1960) the learning of isolated language items, out of context, as in rote learning, where linguistic content is not linked to prior knowledge and does not constitute meaningful learning can hinder recall. Ausubel's study concluded that retention and recall are facilitated by the prior introduction of material linked to the item to be learned (Ausubel, 1960); "the most dependable way of facilitating retention is to introduce the appropriate subsumers and make them part of cognitive structure prior to the actual presentation of the learning task" (Ausubel, 1960, p. 270). Likewise, contrary to FLA where real-life context and quantity of input permit developing language from chunks, or "Frozen phrases" (Ambridge and Lieven, 2011, p.134), in EFL, this language risks becoming redundant, leading to

fossilization (Yule, 2010), if not broken down to understand the constituent parts, and fully comprehend meaning (Ellis, 2005: principles 1, 2, 3, 4).

In current EFL course books meaning is generally implied through pictures, and movement or gesture. Language learning appears to be implicit rather than explicit and the student, through trial and error, may come to understand meaning over time. As stipulated in the Teacher's Book of the Cambridge Kid's Box programme, meaning is not explained through the native language (its use is precluded), "give simple, clear instructions in English" (Frino, et al. 2014: Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2, p.viii), and "only English is used for the completion of tasks and for correction at the end of the activity" (Frino, et al. 2014: Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2, p.ix); even with regard to "specific words" getting the overall gist suffices; "we are more interested in pupils understanding the gist" (Frino, et al. 2014: Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2 page x (10)). An example in Kid's Box 1 pupil's book (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, p. 26) involves the word 'ugly'; a class teacher reported that despite the EFL teacher's mime, pictures, and gestures, neither herself nor the students understood this word (26th January 2016: Lesson 16) until explained in the native language; she commented that despite fifteen years of classroom English, neither she nor her adult daughter had developed speaking and comprehension skills. Indeed, given the limited EFL instruction time for French primary students, achieving oral communicative competence and sufficient comprehension skills, seems unlikely via the current course books design. Certain course books and programmes appear successful in SLA contexts, or contexts where students receive several hours of EFL weekly instruction but appear less adapted to more limited input contexts. Despite this, they are recommended and are frequently used as programmes for the entire school. Consequently, by the end of primary, these students, still seem unable to form phrases using basic verbs, in context, for oral communication.

Furthermore, explicit grammar instruction (language structure) appears absent. Testing involves mainly literacy skills (reading and writing); communicative oral skills (speaking) are the least present in EFL competence evaluation (e.g. Frino, et al. 2014; Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). This seems surprising as oral skills predominate in early primary

school learners, who are still perfecting native literacy skills a number of years into primary school. This, however, appears not to be reflected in the design of evaluations in current YL course books and programmes particularly concerning speaking skills.

The instructional approach in current EFL course books programmes (e.g. Chatterbox: Strange, 2009a, 2009b; I Love English: Wirth, 2008; Kid's Box: Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017) seems to remain largely implicit for structure and vocabulary; metacognitive skills development seems largely absent. Yet, metacognitive knowledge "is a key factor in the success of learning – in knowing how to plan, predict, remember and find out" (Fisher, 2005, p. 10). Additionally, YLs can use their native language skills for developing EFL competence through being made aware of, for example: cognates, and transparent words (similar words in English and French pronounced differently; e.g. television, surprise, hotel); contextual cues to facilitate comprehension; the importance of listening to other students to verify, readjust and develop their own knowledge. A number of commercially available EFL programmes (e.g. Chatterbox: Strange, 2009a, 2009b; I Love English: Wirth, 2008; Kid's Box: Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017) rely heavily on presenting students with pre-recorded dialogues on CD or videos. These appear to take away from the spontaneity of language instruction and learning and hamper creativity; in a natural learning situation, the child learns through the spontaneity of life, not through pre-recorded dialogues. "Though speech input is necessary for speech development, a mere soundtrack is not sufficient" (Pinker, 1995, p. 278). FLA takes place by speech being elicited in real-life context through interaction such as in "who", "what" "where" questions (Pinker, 1995, p. 279); the same would seem applicable to FL/EFL learning.

Frequently, course book programmes incorporate 'Narrative' through fictional characters forming the central theme and focal point for activities and language exercises. e.g. in I love English (Wirth, 2008), the principle character is regularly joined by associated characters; In Kid's Box (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017) several characters provide a central theme for language materials: "Characters give pupils a way of

contextualizing the language and help them to make it meaningful and purposeful" (Frino, et al. 2014 Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2 page vi). Current EFL course book programmes appear to maintain fictional characters to sustain students' interest and motivation: "The characters develop throughout the books so as to sustain the pupils' interest and motivation" (Frino, et al. 2014 Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2 page vi). However, this seems at odds with child development theories. As an egocentric being (Donaldson, 1978) it seems a child would be most motivated when being personally at the centre of the context through which language learning takes place, rather than learning through a fictional character. Theories concerning child development and language learning seem to indicate the importance for meaningful and purposeful language learning activities which would embody the child himself, as in first language learning, where the child is the principle actor in his own life rather than living it through a third party.

Based on theory from SLA and EFL pedagogy research, and theories of child development and language learning, a 'story approach' to FL learning, and in the case of this intervention, EFL learning, involves particularly focusing on 'story' in all its forms. This would take place through games, song, rhyme, stories in books and above all, the meaningful, 'creative' story of the student's own everyday life ("personal story"). It differs from a general approach available in current course books and programmes in that these may include certain elements of story/narrative but appear devoid of spontaneity/creativity, emphasis on meaning, and placing the child at the centre of this 'story'. Indeed, it appears that in restricted instructional FL contexts, sole guidance through a teacher's book may prove insufficient, as teachers are guided essentially by their own attitudes and beliefs (Villegas and Lucas, 2002). This places greater responsibility on the approach, materials and tasks/activities for effective FL teaching and learning through generating creativity, and where creativeness in interaction poses a challenge for teachers (Ellis, 2005: principles 8 and 9).

Though general course books are usually periodically updated (e.g. Nixon and Tomlinson, 2017), the trend appears to remain the same. Moreover, these books often represent a substantial budget for schools and once established

for several classes, could remain in use/circulation despite updated versions. In contrast, the 'story approach' relies on the student's environment, culture, traditions and especially personal 'story' for materials and activities, and is therefore in constant evolution within this meaningful reality.

3.3. A Theoretical Framework for the Design of a 'story approach' FLLP/ELLP for Primary School Students

A theoretical framework for the design and development of foreign language learning programmes (FLLP) and course books based on a 'story approach' is proposed and illustrated in figure 3.1. Careful examination of the literature concerning theories of SLA and EFL pedagogy, and theories relating to child development and native language learning, demonstrate a certain convergence. These have led to the following criteria as necessary elements for consideration when designing FLLPs for primary school students, specifically in contexts with restricted instructional time and limited target language contact. This framework has determined the design of a 'story approach' ELLP for this research study intervention for French primary school students and demonstrates how this differs from commercially available programmes which do not appear to currently make the distinction in their materials or approaches between: (a) SLA and FL learning instructional contexts, and (b) within FL contexts, where the target language is considerably restricted in certain instructional settings. A need for research in restricted YL target language contexts has been voiced (Mackey and Silver, 2005).

3.3.1. Criteria for the Design and Development of a 'story approach' ELLP for French Primary School YLs

1) <u>The four components of language</u>

EFL learning resembles native language learning, in that all languages encompass *phonetics* (speech sounds), *semantics*, (meaning of words, phrases, and sentences), *syntax*, (rules of language) and *pragmatics*, (concerning the contexts for using language) (Ambridge and Lieven, 2011), and develops in much the same way (Long, 2005; Nikolov, 2009).

2) <u>Nonlinear learning</u>

Child development theories suggest that early learning, including FLA, takes place naturally through everyday activities; socialisation and therefore interaction are a pre-requisite for all learning (Vygotsky, 1978), including SLA/FL learning (Ellis, 1999; Ellis, 2005: principle 8; Mitchell, 2009).

3) <u>Context embedded in Reality</u>

Learning within child development, including native language learning, is embedded in the 'reality' of the everyday concerns of the infant, to which he/she can directly relate (Vygotsky, 1978), and play a key role in memorisation and recall (Anderson, 2011). It appears that these theories can be integrated into EFL learning by placing the child at the centre of the learning context (Donaldson, 1978; Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Mitchell, 2009), as in FLA, as opposed to recourse to fictional characters.

4) <u>"Story", "Embodiment", "Ownership", leading to "Empowerment"</u>

EFL learning is reinforced through personal engagement ("personal story"), action, manual activities ("embodiment") (Zacharia, Loizou, and Papaevripidou, 2012), and creativity through meaning ("ownership") (Fisher, 2005; Zull, 2011), all of which permit the negotiation of meaning (Ellis, 2005; Williams and Burden, 1997). Hence, "story", "embodiment" and "ownership" permit expression, which in turn, engenders "empowerment" which seems to result from mastering learning through meaning (Ellis, 2005).

5) <u>The child at the centre of learning</u>

Through a 'story approach', instructional strategies permit placing the child at the central point of activities such as games, songs, and rhyme (Brewster, Ellis and Girard, 2002), and tasks, and interaction, through interactional pedagogy (Ellis, 1999; Ellis, 2005; Mackey, 1999; Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000; Nassaji, 2016a; Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2002; Oliver and Mackey, 2003). The child is in control of the learning process and is the main character (see 8 below); the learner leads the instructional process, supported by the 'story approach'.

6) <u>Efficiency in Language Learning</u>

Focused Learning as opposed to Dispersed Learning: Current course books appear to expose students to a wide variety of language items (Dispersed Learning); this may be beneficial in second language environments where input is more extensive but appears far less suited to FL/EFL situations involving substantially limited input. A 'story approach' focuses on particular vocabulary and features of language (Focused Learning). This appears to provide for greater efficiency in EFL learning environments where, rather than being exposed to multiple features/language elements which are difficult to memorise (Ellis, 2009; Mackey, et al. 2000; Oliver and Mackey, 2003), due to limited input, through a 'story approach' the child's attention is focused on particular items of language, on practicing mastering these, and on rapidly building EFL oral communicative skills (Enever, 2011; Mackey and Philp, 1998).

7) <u>'Economy' in language learning</u>

A 'story approach' enables using the same words/phrases repeatedly in a variety of contexts and insuring that these reappear regularly in instructional material (Ellis, 2009; Mackey and Philp, 1998). 'Economy' builds on the assumption that FL learning time is limited, therefore each word/phrase taught needs to be versatile enough to be used in the largest number of contexts possible. This goes beyond the concept of the 'recycling' of language, commonly advocated (Brewster, et al. 2002) in current

programmes. 'Economy' involves selecting particular words/phrases ('building-blocks') for instruction, in view of further learning and with the perspective of rapidly building language skills. For example, the word 'little' in the song 'Twinkle Little Star' appears again in the rhyme 'Little Tommy wants to play' and again in the student response to 'Did you sleep well'…'a little'; in this case, the synonym 'small' has less communicative versatility e.g. it cannot be used to reply to the questions 'Did you sleep well?' Or 'How much water do you want?" Or "Can you speak English?"

8) Explicit learning and use of mother tongue

Particularly concerning grammar and pronunciation explanations. This implies combining explicit and implicit language learning (Ellis, 2005: principle 4; Nassaji 2016b), rather than principally implicit as in immersion classes and current programmes such as Chatterbox (Strange, 2009), I Love English (Wirth, 2008), and Kid's Box (Frino, et al. 2014). Solely Implicit learning, seems much less profitable in FL contexts compared to SLA immersion learning contexts, as students do not have sufficient exposure/input to deduct and absorb syntax and pronunciation implicitly. Within explicit learning, native language assumes a crucial role within meaning, e.g. instructions (Enever, 2011); explaining structure/vocabulary.

9) Native language literacy skills and creativity in EFL learning

Use of native literacy skills (reading and writing) to enhance FL oral communicative skills development (Enever, 2011). Magnetic phrases used for picture description tasks is an example of materials developed for 3rd year primary EFL instruction, adapted from an authentic story "The Little old woman" (McCullagh, 1972). Students build and tell the story of their choice from a wide selection of phrases and pictures (creativity in building oral communicative skills; the child is at the centre of the activity).

10) Use of metacognitive strategies for negotiation of meaning and comprehension

It appears that drawing the young FL/EFL learners' attention to linguistic features enables developing greater efficiency in language learning, through

interactional feedback e.g. noticing, conscious awareness (Ellis, 2005: principles 3 and 7; Fisher, 2005) and the use of transparent words (e.g. same word in both languages, changing only in pronunciation), executive functions (e.g. following instructions, organizing work) (Caine and Caine, 2011; Greenstone, 2011), self-evaluation, self-correction (repair) (Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2002), and developing listening strategies (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008). These strategies can be supported through scaffolding (Bruner, 1975; Lucas and Villegas, 2011).

11) <u>Informal and formal assessment</u>

Assessment of YL, FL oral/aural skills, needs to resemble language used in communicative contexts (Ellis, 2005: principle 10) It seems that YL could progress in FL skills through evaluating their own knowledge and that of peers through feedback on interactional/instructional tasks (Graham and Macaro, 2008; Mackey and Silver, 2005; Oliver and Mackey, 2003). Skills evaluation seems to facilitate teachers situating the learner's ZPD, and orienting instruction accordingly, to respond to learners needs (Bygate, 2009 Ellis, 2009).

The theoretical framework for a 'story approach' is illustrated and summarised in figure 3.1. It has been developed specifically for YLs in FL learning environments, with restricted instructional time, and limited input of the target language; it provides for a 'story approach' to FL learning and teaching, which encompasses criteria 1-11.
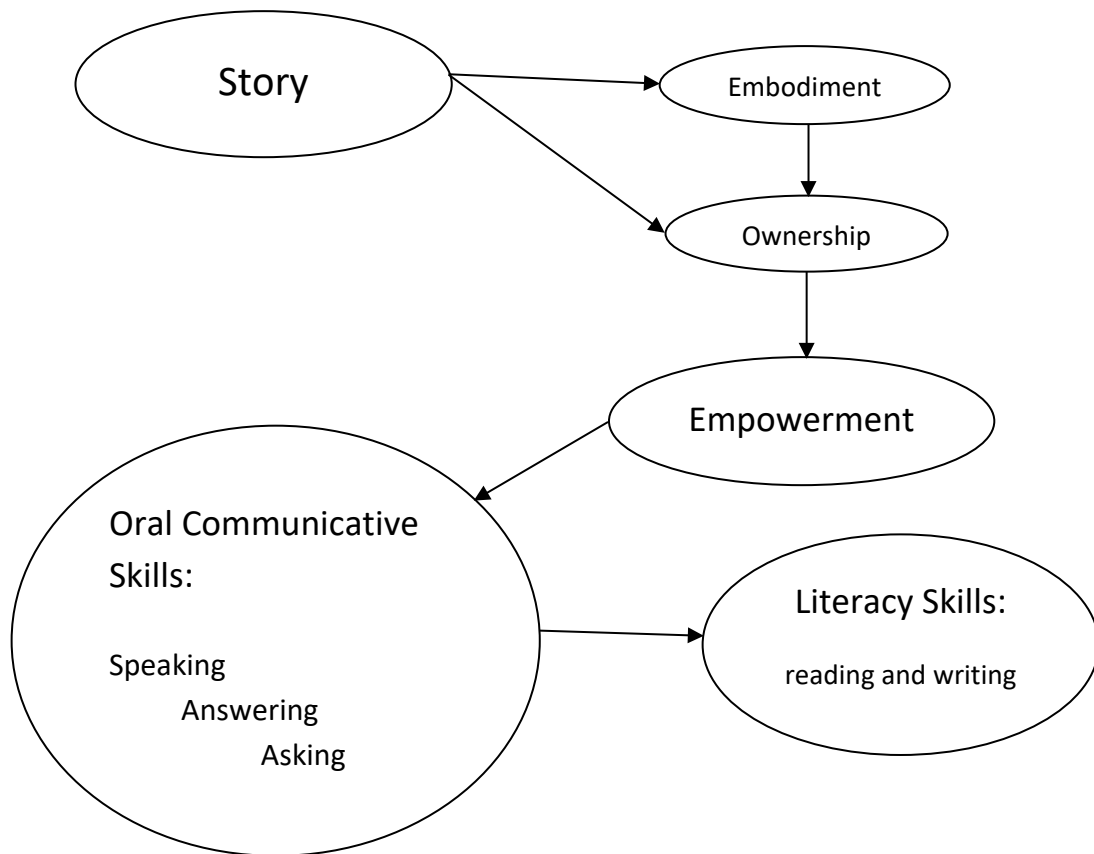
Figure 3.1. A Theoretical Framework for the design and development of 'story approach' FL/EFL programmes (including materials, activities, tasks) for early primary school students from five years old.

3.3.2. 'Story approach' general teaching strategies and methodology

A 'story approach' to EFL teaching and learning, based on the theoretical framework (sections 3.1.4, and 3.3-3.3.1), provides the basis for teaching materials, strategies and methodology with the principle focus being the development of communicative oral skills. Hence, specific materials, activities and teaching strategies were designed, developed and trialled during the pilot study and implemented in the cross-sectional/longitudinal study. To evaluate their effectiveness the students were regularly monitored (Ellis, 2005) formally and informally. EFL oral communicative skills are defined here as having the language competence to express an idea through a word,

phrase or sentence creatively, as opposed to, for example, reciting rote learned language.

The 'story approach', integrates specific, carefully selected vocabulary and structure, introduced with the perspective of rapidly developing student's comprehension skills and building confidence in achievement (self-efficacy) in EFL competence, to encourage communicative speaking skills. "Self-efficacy refers to beliefs about expectations of future achievement" (Graham, 2007, p.82), and is of particular importance for YLs (Fisher, 2005). The language items were selected to place the child at the centre of meaning within the language learning context rather than using fictional characters. The child's central role seems to permit the negotiating of meaning through understanding the connection between elements within the environment and concepts and ideas, and expressing these through language (Vygotsky, 1978).

Unlike current course books, the 'story approach' involves building competence to use language items permitting YL, FL students to rapidly develop oral communicative skills. This enables capitalising on YLs' sensitive period for language development (Johnson and Newport, 1989; Yule, 2010). Language items are introduced to provide students with a foundation of structural language competence, necessary for engaging communicative skills. These are selected for their versatility of use within the development of communicative competence (e.g. colours, cardinal numbers, adjectives, adverbs, nouns, verbs; article 'the'; conjunction 'and'), and are focused upon intensely through a variety of activities (Ellis, 2009). For example, numbers and colours can be used in a phrase with any noun, (e.g. animal names, clothes names). They readily lend themselves to concrete objects, manual activities, games, rhymes, and songs and permit easily changing one word utterances into creative phrases such as '3 white sheep'. 'And' permits lengthening a phrase to form a long sentence e.g. '3 white sheep and 2 yellow birds'.

Engaging the students in dialogues forms an integral part of the teaching strategy and is initiated through greetings, questions-answer sessions, games, and informal and formal testing (Ellis, 2005). Language learning depends upon interaction, memorisation and role play, and includes the integration of

values, cultural knowledge and meaning (Vygotsky, 1978). All the materials and activities are designed to encourage oral exchange and interaction; this in turn encourages negotiation of meaning (Ellis, 2005) and comprehension (Laakso, Helasvuo and Savinainen-Makkonen, 2010). Listening skills are emphasised (Graham and Macaro, 2008; Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank, 2011); students are encouraged to develop metacognitive skills through listening to and mentally reviewing the interaction between their peers and proposing personal responses to oral questions e.g. 'How are you today?' 'Did you sleep well?' Students test their own knowledge against that of their peers.

Unlike current programmes, in the 'story approach' calm music during coloring and manual activities (e.g. 'Canon' by Pachelbel; 'Air' by Bach), is used to promote executive functions, through time-limiting activities according to the length of the piece and the number of times played (e.g. students are warned that when the music stops, the activity ends). This technique is also engaged to encourage students to focus on target language tasks by channeling energy (Brewster, et al. 2002), to limit native language talking and finish on time. For song-sheet colouring, playing that particular song encourages students to listen to the words or sing along (Brewster, et al. 2002); this differs from strategies proposed by current course books and programmes.

Ellis offers a set of ten general principles (chapter 2: section 2.4.3), emanating from an expanse of theories, on which to possibly base "a learning-centered" (Ellis, 2005, p.209) FL language pedagogy. These instructional principles provide a potential road map on which to base effective FL classroom teaching while accepting that perspectives may vary (Ellis, 2005) (section 3.1.4). In addition, as noted in chapter two, the following fifteen principles (P) from Gee (1994), concerning oral FLA and general learning for older children, seem to converge with theories from FL learning pedagogy. Together, they form an integral part of the 'story approach':

P1 providing the learner with sufficiently suitable input allowing for a variety of learning strategies;

P2 providing the learner with support for learning through action and movement;

P3 linking new leaning to knowledge already acquired;

P4 acquiring language in a "bottom-up" or "top-down" (Gee, 1994, p.336) manner, bottom-up involving building language through holophrases (one word utterances); top-down involving building language through memorising chunks of language which are subsequently analysed and used independently;

P5 supporting learning through social interaction and scaffolding;

P6 routine, ritual and repetition, providing the opportunity for the learner to observe and practice new learning;

P7 making meaning salient and "visible for the child" (Gee, 1994, p. 337);

P8 practice in understanding how components of a system fit together or can be used separately (pp. 338) as, for example, having learned holophrases such as the names of things (nouns) and words to describe them (adjectives) the child learns to combine them, or having learned chunks of language, (e.g. "all gone now"), the child learns to use each word separately;

P9 developing abstract thinking through experience within the environment involving "body, action, time and space" (Gee, 1994, p. 339);

P10 recognising that learner mistakes and regressions in the process of learning can be an indication of deeper learning.

P11 recognising learner tendency to apply a new rule too generally and the need to practice before completely internalising its correct use;

P12 (linked to P5) where the learner requires social interaction with more capable persons in order to progress beyond his current competence and develop greater understanding (pp.341), (this appears to relate to Vygotsky's notion of ZPD and Bruner's notion of scaffolding);

P13 "The formulae principle" (Gee, 1994, p. 343) where unanalysed chunks of language serve as a trampoline to access communication and provide language for analysis into constituent parts;

P14 "The context principle" (Gee, 1994, p. 344) where the role of context is fundamental for conveying meaning;

P15 "The context-variability principle" (Gee, 1994, p. 346) where young first (native) language learners expand their notion of meaning through increased experience beyond the contexts within which the language was initially associated.

3.3.3. Personal 'Story'

The concept of "personal story" appears minimal/absent in current EFL course books and programmes. Within the 'story approach' this takes several forms, encouraging internalisation of language, and "embodiment" and "ownership" (theoretical framework) for example: personalised colouring/ illustrating/decorating "language" e.g. students imagine and draw rather than colouring pictures in a course book; personalised manual activities, enabling students to take possession of their own learning, like making realia e.g. cut out cardboard clothes; creativity and personalising words within interaction, e.g. each one's response to a question/version of a story, can be different.

Within a 'story approach' all activities provide for creativity in EFL learning rather than imprisoning students in the life of a fictional character. In native language learning, children interact with their natural environment and have a large variety of constantly changing elements for language development. A classroom context is far removed from the native language learning context; presenting students with pre-set dialogues, characters, and images, seems to impose further limits, closer to rote learning rather than meaningful learning through personal engagement, which seems possible through a 'story approach'.

3.3.4. 'Story approach' Testing

YLs are in a process of developing general learning skills (Fisher, 2005); any learning activity should therefore permit practicing and developing these skills for general learning in all subjects. Hence, executive functions as part of "higher order thinking", (Caine and Caine, 2011, p. 24) involving the ability to plan and organise learning and follow instructions, form an integral part of the activities through manual work, games, and monitoring (classroom testing). Monitoring oral and comprehension skills, through informal and formal evaluation/classroom testing provides further opportunities to engage students' developing communicative competence (Ellis, 2005).

YLs are in a constant process of self-development (Fisher, 2005). Fisher defines metacognition as "self-awareness" and the "ability to understand and relate to oneself" (Fisher, 2005, p. 10); it is the ability to think about one's own learning processes, understand them and use that knowledge to further develop learning ability through strategies of learning and memorisation. Language monitoring seems to enable the development of metacognitive skills. Informal oral monitoring gives students the opportunity to focus on their own competence and that of other students, while reviewing their own existing language skills in order to confirm or adjust them (Nassaji, 2007). Formal oral testing provides the opportunity to monitor student's progress quantitatively, using specifically designed 'story approach' tick off charts, and comprehension tests. Test results permit reviewing the teaching programme in order to focus on weak points and harness unexpected emerging skills to engage further development.

As all students are monitored together in the classroom, precautions in administering informal/formal monitoring involve using strategies to maximise the authenticity of each student's production (i.e. not copied from another student) e.g. story comprehension classroom paper-tests; oral question-answer monitoring. Students are openly encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning ("ownership"). These monitoring strategies were trialled during the pilot study. This principally involved

presenting the same test elements in a different/alternate order, to each student.

Informal and formal monitoring conducted in a stress free atmosphere (Krashen, 2009), presents students with an exciting challenge and encouragement (Fisher, 2005) to perform to their best without apprehending results. Clear straightforward instructions are mainly in the mother tongue and repeated in the target language (English), and students are encouraged to be rigorous (executive functions).

3.3.5. Meaning and native language use

Within the 'story approach', French native language is employed for instructions and conveying the meaning of words/phrases/structure to facilitate comprehension. This language is systematically repeated in English, to provide students with the corresponding vocabulary, until students no longer required the native language. It appears that foreign language learning involves implicit and explicit learning and the amount of native language input is used to varying degrees (Hulstijn, 2005). In immersion contexts, language rules are applied intuitively (Tough, 1991); students have substantially more input time to assimilate structure and vocabulary, compared to their EFL counterparts (Schmidt, 2001). Instructions feature importantly in any learning environment and require being understood and executed efficiently for learning to take place harmoniously (Enever, 2011; Harris and McCann, 1994). Mother tongue use permits facilitating comprehension, focusing on student EFL output, completing activities adequately, and avoiding time waste through misinterpretation.

Though certain meaning can be conveyed by pictures, this is often superficial and unclear (e.g. feelings, attitudes). In the 'story approach', realia, concrete items, situational learning, and mother tongue provide support for negotiation of meaning. For example, in the Postman Pat theme song, used for the EFL intervention teaching, the words "Pat feels he's a really happy man" (Daly, 1981) were not fully conveyed by the pictures, and required oral explanation. Exceptions to this was, for example, the story "The 3 Little Pigs" used in the

pilot study. This story was chosen for its linguistic features but also because it is well known, facilitating inference, and would require little meaning to be given.

Manual activities also provide opportunities for negotiating meaning e.g. a Postman Pat (Cunliffe, 1981) activity of making a postcard, a parcel, and a letter in an envelope, and a colouring and cutting-out cardboard-clothes activity). These activities, encourage students to focus on language through manipulating the relevant concrete items ("embodiment"), personalising them, and taking "ownership". Students are able to interact individually and as a class, using the concrete items ("empowerment") as a means for oral communication in English. EFL course books need to cater for the constantly evolving needs of primary school students, evolving from being highly dependent on concrete items for negotiation of meaning (Fisher, 1990) to gradually developing abstract thought (Williams and Burden, 1997; Donaldson, 1978). Current course books tend to limit manual activities to colouring and drawing; however, child development theories advocate that students benefit further from teaching if activities are suited to their developmental needs (Fisher, 1990; Smith and Gasser, 2005; Zacharia et al., 2012).

3.3.6. Action, Movement and Manual Activities

Within the 'story approach', actions, movement, and manual activities play an important language learning role in engaging the child in meaningful activities. According to Anderson, recall can be enhanced when information or knowledge is acquired through meaningful contexts and the greater the number of links formed between the new information and existing information the greater the chances of recall (Anderson, 2011). This is achieved through the 'story approach' by engaging the child in activities which are of primary interest to the YL, such as sentiments (feelings), the world around (environment) and novelty through realia and manipulating objects and materials (discovery).

Regularly revisiting the information to be acquired also plays a crucial role (Anderson, 2011) as does the "embodiment" of information through action-movement. This was accomplished in this intervention study through e.g. games, songs accompanied by action and movement, manual activities, and miming story. According to Anderson "the richer the mode of representation (verbal, visual, psychomotor/manipulative) that the students encode in memory as the lesson unfolds, the more likely that they will subsequently have greater probability of accessing information for recall" (Anderson, 2011, p. 56).

An EFL programme based on a 'story approach' permits designing activities and learning materials which engage the learner in meaningful contexts which can be revisited, reviewed, rehearsed, and readapted over periods of time through action, movement, and language interaction, evolving with the YLs changing developmental needs:

- materials are designed to be carried through several stages of learning; initially used for oral skills only, the same materials can later provide for more advanced oral skills and literacy skills (e.g. magnetic pictures; realia); the 'story approach' draws a parallel with research in FLA, which has demonstrated the importance of promoting oral language skills "to build a secure foundation for literacy" (Fricke, Bowyer-Crane, Haley, Hulme and Snowling, 2013, p. 280);

- negotiation of meaning, and knowledge of the world (Fisher, 2005) are also practiced through manual activities e.g. life cycle of a hen: discussion using realia, followed by sticking printed colour pictures appropriately according to a model;

- activities relate to the child's cultural and religious context; for example, at Christmas, preparing a realia nativity scene (this research intervention is in a Catholic school) provides for discussion, story-telling, and language practice with related, and everyday vocabulary e.g. "barn, hay, camel, donkey, star… cut, stick, black, scissors, glue...", and executive functions, including organising work and following instructions (Greenstone, 2011).

In different cultural or religious contexts, FL activities would be adapted for EFL within a 'story approach', (e.g. Venice's Carnival; Chinese New Year; Eid al-Fitr), to be meaningful for the YL and relating to the personal cultural environment. The tendency in current EFL instruction is to be neutral without placing emphasis on cultural differences. However, within a 'story approach', meaningful activities spring from the home culture, (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Wells, 1986) and pluralism is celebrated. A further example of this perspective within a 'story approach' EFL programme would be the African tradition of carrying fruit baskets on the head; language would be adapted to the context of the learners e.g. Question: "How much fruit can mum carry? (in her basket?) (on her head?)" Response: "My mum can carry ten bananas, two pineapples and one avocado (in her basket!) (on her head!). This language becomes meaningful for the YL. Apart from proposing fictional characters, current EFL programmes do not seem to adapt learning to cultural contexts, or design their course books within these considerations.

3.3.7. Pronunciation

In the 'story approach', pronunciation errors are explicitly corrected (noticing, recasts, scaffolding) while taking precautions to not damage the child's confidence. Pronunciation practice involves encouraging listening (Graham and Macaro, 2008) and speaking skills, reassuring students that pronunciation errors are natural and that they contribute to collaborative learning. Students are therefore encouraged to listen to their peers, to spot the errors, and propose the correction (i.e. peer to peer correction). Visual aids permit scaffolding, (e.g. objects, letters written on the whiteboard), and reference to similarities and differences with native language pronunciation are highlighted. Therefore, errors are not corrected through specific phonological exercises as in current course books (e.g. Kid's box pupils' book 2: Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014b), but through the natural interaction stimulated through activities (Mackey et al. 2000) as in FLA.

Certain speech sounds in English appear more difficult than others for FL learners; in the 'story approach' these involved the introduction of specific

words for practicing naturally e.g. the 'h' sound as in hotel (same word in English and French) is generally silent in French. Consequently, particular attention was given to this sound through practicing the word 'how', in the song "Twinkle Little Star" ('How I wonder what you are?': pilot study) identified for the vocabulary and practicing this sound; book distribution provided additional "h" sound practice in the word "here": students are asked "Where are you?" and reply, "Here I am". Other words are specifically introduced (e.g. horse, hen, hat, house and happy) for more practice.

3.3.8. Time length of individual activities

It appears that YLs have limited concentration, require diversity to maintain interest, and need to move rather than remain inactive and seated for long periods of time (Brewster, et al. 2002).

The 'story approach' ELLP, activities are intentionally kept short (Cameron, 2001), and exercises which require students to be seated, focused, and concentrated, are regularly interspersed with games involving movement, or singing; activities lengthen as students grow older. Lessons systematically began with greetings and provided the first dialogues, lasting about five minutes. Activities such as games and informal oral testing lasted approximately five to ten minutes, and manual activities and formal tests about ten to twenty minutes including distribution of materials for manual activities e.g. papers, pictures, felt shapes, stickers, colour pencils, felt pens, glue. Diversity was an important feature of lessons in the pilot study and the entire research intervention.

3.3.9. Teaching Materials

'Story approach' materials provide for repetition of language items, presented in context (Delahaie, 2009; Ellis, 2005; Lightbown and Spada, 2006), to build new knowledge on existing knowledge. They encourage students to take "ownership" of the language learning process through personalising work, learning vocabulary and understanding meaning according to the student's

personal vision of the world (Yule, 2010). Accordingly, materials are designed to encourage creativity through personalisation (e.g. making and personalising realia).

Materials (songs, games, elements for activities, realia…) require careful design and selection to harmonise linguistically and build on each other, to present students with a naturally flowing combination of learning materials responding to their EFL and developmental needs.

Language is taught through a variety of mediums: e.g. colours taught through realia (e.g. colour cloth, cushions) permitting touch and manipulation (visual/haptic/"embodiment"); e.g. song on video (aural/visual) combined with movement (aural/"embodiment"), personalised colouring sheets ("ownership"), and manual activities ("embodiment"). These are reinforced through subsequent activities for new language learning providing for repetition/rehearsal and linking existing knowledge to new.

In contrast to current EFL course books, which provide a pre-set pupils' programme and activity book, in the 'story approach', students file class activities. Filing, decorating, and personalising, allows students to take "ownership" (Yule, 2010) by enhancing motivation through a sense of personal responsibility provided by positive experiences (Brown, 2000; Zull, 2011). Additionally, children follow instructions to complete their folders, encouraging the development of: executive function and organisational skills (Greenstone, 2011); manipulation of materials for development of fine motor skills; metacognitive skills, involving information gathering, strategy forming, and implementation, and monitoring outcomes (Fisher, 2005). These personalised folders provide for a variety of oral/conversational interaction, eliciting output, and generating feedback (Ellis, 2005; Mackey and Silver, 2005; Oliver and Mackey, 2003) e.g. at file distribution, students repeating 'Here I am' to practice the 'h' sound. Audio visual materials include songs-clips (shown on a large laptop screen or an interactive teaching board), songs and classical music on CD. Paper and textile based activities involve vocabulary sheets with illustrations to decorate or colour, specific drawing and realia making activities, and song sheets.

3.3.10. Realia

A variety of realia was used regularly throughout the 'story approach' programme, representing an important feature for teaching and learning. In conjunction with action and movement, this permitted revisiting language items. Realia, provided a trampoline for dialogue and encouraging communicative skills. It was, therefore, a means for negotiating meaning and comprehension (e.g. Mackey and Silver, 2005; Oliver and Mackey, 2003). Realia was used to reinforce language learning, for games, to animate storytelling, and manual activities and to provide an instrument for action and movement in song. This teaching strategy provided for multi-sensory learning (Bara, et al. 2004; Chan and Black, 2006)

Re-using the same realia throughout the study permitted revisiting language items previously introduced, to provide context for learning, and to link existing knowledge to new (Anderson, 2011; Ausubel, 1960; Ausubel, 1980) particularly for the CSG students. Learning is a process of assimilation and accommodation (Anderson, 2011; Williams and Burden, 1997), where existing information is transformed to integrate new information. The rest of the class could also be brought up to speed concerning materials and language items already introduced. Generally in current course books, it seems that, apart from the fictional characters which tend to be carried through the programme, once students have worked with a specific chapter, they pass on to other subjects not necessarily returning to previously accomplished work, and realia is absent.

The realia in this research study permit placing language in context while enhancing salience, (Wells, 1986) providing for greater learning efficiency. Attention is required to choose realia suited (safety, size, durability) for manipulation by YLs, and sufficiently large to be seen by all the students in the class. For example, chunky wooden numerals were used to teach numbers, felt cloth cushions to teach colours, plastic animals, toys and puppets for general vocabulary, stories, and songs.

This aspect of language learning is particular to FLA where the child can grasp meaning through concrete items in the home environment with peers

and adults (Wells, 1986), and can equally apply to EFL learning (Enever, 2011). According to Anderson, curriculum designers need to "enhance student's ability to organize information in a way that makes it available for efficient recall in response to an appropriate context, and with sufficient generality to be applied in new situations" (Anderson, 2011, p. 45). FL/EFL learning generally implies limited input and language experience compared to FLA and therefore requires a language learning environment with materials providing for an enhanced language learning experience like realia (Enever, 2011) as opposed to the sole use of paper and pencil materials, pictures, and flashcards as is the case in a number of EFL teaching environments which use commercial course books.

Realia can represent additional cost and be burdensome for teachers to make (Enever, 2011). In the 'story approach', this is catered for by integrating realia-making into FL learning activities/tasks, using locally available materials, providing simultaneously for conversational interaction. In the 'story approach', realia reflects the students' home environment (Boyd and Markarian, 2011), culture and traditions. Students made their own realia associated to learning activities or songs. e.g. students could associate song lyrics to concrete realia by holding up the corresponding realia. Learning in context through experience embedded in emotion and sensory input is fundamental for child development including language learning (Zull, 2011).

3.3.11. Vocabulary and Teaching Activities

'Story approach' materials also include magnetic laminated pictures and words. This material is not realia in the true sense but permits serving the same purpose, having the advantage of being manipulable and movable, like concrete items, and practical. It was used on the whiteboard for games and language learning activities particularly in years two and three (second and third year primary) of the intervention study. This provides for creativity in output as students are able to present a story to the class from a wide range of magnetic pictures, using their own choice of vocabulary, within the level of their competence; therefore reinforcing confidence, "embodiment" and "ownership" for enhanced learning ("empowerment"). Students progressed

from saying short phrases using article and noun ("a dog"), to including a pronoun and verb, (e.g. 'She has a dog') to longer phrases including adjectives (e.g. 'She has a little red house'). Magnetic pictures permit learning and revisiting vocabulary (e.g. clothes names), telling stories through pictures, and using pictures in combination with the magnetic words to build oral communicative and literacy skills through activities such as labeling pictures and associating pictures to a word or phrase.

Through specifically identified songs, stories, and activities, vocabulary, and phrases, including question, are introduced implicitly, and learned as formulaic speech e.g. "The little old woman" (McCullagh, 1972) (second year primary intervention). Short phrases learned as chunks of language permit accessing meaning rapidly and encourage developing communication skills (Gee, 1994; Lightbown and Spada 2006; Myles, et al. 1999). However, for language to become creative, knowing the gist is insufficient; understanding the meaning of each word is also necessary (Gee, 1994). "Creative construction and chunks breakdown clearly go hand in hand. We have seen that interrogative chunks form the basis for subsequent analysis and creativity" (Myles, et al. 1999, p.76). It would seem to be the teacher's role to introduce formulaic speech (FS)/chunks of language to learners, and encourage their analysis and creative re-composition through communicative interaction. For example (chapter 8: Table 8.5), FS: "What do you like to eat?" Student-generated creative speech: "I eat lunchtime"(student KN).

Language and teaching activities are designed to follow on from each other in a parallel rather than linear manner. Specifically selected language is taught within the broader context of oral communicative skills rather than as isolated one word items or formulaic speech, as appears to be the tendency in current course books. For example, the song 'Twinkle Twinkle Little Star' (pilot study) was taught in anticipation of language skills yet to emerge, at Christmas, when the words 'star' and 'little' were incorporated with new language; students could now understand these words and say/understand them within the new context of new stories, e.g. 'Postman Pat's Magic Christmas' (Cunliffe and Cunningham, 2003), a story on DVD (Cunliffe, Daly, and Wood, 2003) . This is in line with Anderson's theory on critical

thinking and problem solving where information from long-term memory can be accessed and used "relative to the contextual cues that are provided to us" (Anderson, 2011, p. 49). In this way, particular attention is given to the type of vocabulary/formulaic speech introduced in order to encourage memorisation and provide rapidly for creativity in student output. New words are introduced with familiar words, and language learned in chunks is analysed as separate words (Gee 1994; Myles, et al. 1999), to construct meaningful language e.g. 'little star' is associated with new words learned, to form phrases like 'big star', 'yellow star', 'little house'.

However, despite materials, activities and teaching strategies, in any educational setting, the participants, whether teachers, parents, or learners, can influence outcomes (Enever, 2011). Within these considerations, teacher characteristics and preparation form an important aspect of the 'story approach'.

3.3.12. Teacher, Parent, and Learner Characteristics

Teachers largely influence YL, FL progress, through their understanding of the socio-cultural, psychological, and instructional issues related to FL learning, and their preparation to assume these in their teaching approaches (Lucas, 2011a; Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Villegas and Lucas, 2002); and more so with young children where the teacher-learner relationship is close (Enever, 2011).

The significance of teacher-parent-learner characteristics for effective FL teaching for YLs encompasses multiple domains of ESL/EFL teaching and learning. These seem paramount in view of growing contexts including displaced or migrant populations, English as a lingua franca, and restricted target language contexts (Butler, Sayer, and Huang, 2018; Butler and Le, 2018; Lucas, 2011), as in this research study. "Characteristics" can be defined as attitudes, perceptions, and motivation towards FL teaching and learning (Enever, 2011).

Learner characteristics become more perceptible with age, and are influenced by several factors, including: self-efficacy; progress achievement levels (Enever, 2011); "the type of classroom activities" (Enever, 2011, p.58); parents' knowledge of the target language, often linked to socio-economic status (SES); parent's view of the target language; and the place FL learning holds in the school (Enever, 2011; Kuchah, 2018; Murphy, 2018). Self-efficacy is an important component for success, involving learner confidence in achievement and self-belief in possessing the capacity to progress (Graham, 2006; Graham, 2007).

YLs teaching environments appear to demonstrate the fundamental importance of parent's role in student's progress (e.g. encouragement in confidence building). In cases where unconducive parent factors exist e.g. difficult home environment, instability, or health issues, YL teachers often seem to need to assume additional support (Enever, 2011) towards the student for real progress to occur. Indeed, the 'story approach' has been developed keeping in mind the child in the central role of EFL learning. Through the theoretical framework, and engagement with 'personal' story, the 'story approach' seeks to transcend short-comings in the environment, while endeavoring for intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic.

EFL teaching requires instructional and pedagogic knowledge, and understanding concerning students' origin, traditions, and home culture, in order to promote learner self-efficacy, and provide a pedagogically effective and comfortable learning environment (Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Valdés and Castellón, 2011). Encouraging a healthy learning ethos amongst students is fundamental for achievement, e.g. mockery from peers can be damaging for learner progress (Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Valdés and Castellón, 2011). Promoting positive socio-cultural teacher characteristics (Villegas and Lucas, 2002) by integrating cultural aspects into the pedagogic strategies, materials, activities, and tasks appears fundamental for effective EFL teaching and learning. The theoretical framework and 'story approach' endeavor to uphold these characteristics through "personal story", and flexible instruction adapting to learner needs. According to Ellis, and reflected in this 'story

approach' study, research should be, embedded in "the realities of practice", and "meet the requirements of practitioners" (Ellis, 2010).

Conclusion

The design of this 'story approach' ELLP for primary school students, based upon the theoretical framework described in this chapter, can form the object of future research in other similar FL learning contexts, involving limited exposure to the target language. These theoretical underpinnings provide a foundation to the theoretical framework which in turn provides the basis for the 'story approach'.

This 'story approach' has been developed to be adaptable to a variety of FL learning situations (e.g. English YLs learning French). However, this requires further trialling through research. The 'story approach' appears to meet the developmental and language learning needs of primary school students. Chapter four details the methodology adopted for this three year longitudinal case study and cross-sectional study intervention.

4. Methodology

Chapter four describes the methodology used in this three-year intervention. The five sections of this chapter concern 1) a general overview of the research aims, paradigm, questions, hypothesis, and methodology including the overall research design, and procedures for establishing the fieldwork; 2) the case study group and participants per year; 3) data collection instruments; 4) data collection procedures; 5) coding design and procedures.

4.1. General Overview

4.1.1. The Research Aims, Paradigm, Questions, and Hypothesis

The aim of the study was to trial the proposed theoretical framework and 'story approach' ELLP for the development of EFL oral communicative skills for primary school students with limited access to the target language. This was conducted through the development of a theoretical framework, on which new 'story approach' materials and teaching strategies were based. The programme was designed to evolve according to the changing developmental and learning needs (chapters two and three) of the students in this research context, while taking into account the requirements of the CEFR A1 standard. As part of the aims, instruments for monitoring progress through testing/assessment were designed in order to track ongoing progress. Ethical permission for the study was granted by the University of York.

A pragmatic, realist, mixed-methods paradigm (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011) provided the framework for the planning and design of the overall study, combining quantitative and qualitative data collection, analysis, and discussion, with a view of encompassing objectivity and social

phenomena (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The pragmatism of mixed-methods permits engaging with practical issues within research, addressing the numerical and the narrative within data collection (Cohen, et al. 2011) and appears particularly suited to this study which is based upon real-life classroom teaching. It permitted trialling the theoretical framework (chapter three) through quantitative measures, and simultaneously allowed for the inductive analysis of qualitative data (Cohen, et al. 2011; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Unlike quantitative hypothesis testing where prediction of outcomes is determined before the collection and analysis of data, the analysis of qualitative data occurs during data collection for the purpose of identifying regular patterns and emerging categories (Mackey and Gass, 2005; Coolican, 2014). Within the paradigm of a mixed-methods approach, this study has adopted a "mixed-model" research design whereby qualitative and quantitative research occur simultaneously over the research study (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Analysis was conducted through content analysis, and took an inductive-deductive approach, involving counting the frequency of phenomena (Saldana, 2013), while investigating developing patterns (Coolican, 2014). Content analysis involves the finding of " 'coding units' (usually words, phrases or themes); analysis often concentrates on quantitative treatment of frequencies but can be a purely qualitative approach" (Coolican, 2014, p.330). According to Saldana (2013), "Coding *well* requires that you reflect deeply on the meanings of each and every datum" p.39).

For the purposes of replication and in the interest of validity (Mackey and Gass, 2005) this section addresses the issues of reliability, validity, and triangulation within the mixed-methods research design of this study.

Reliability, validity, and triangulation are central to the overall research project. Reliability "is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions" (Bell, 2005). Validity is generally defined as being an item or instrument which describes or measures what it intended to (Bell, 2005); it is "the extent to which an effect demonstrated in research is genuine, not produced by spurious variables and not limited to a specific context" (Coolican, 2014, p. 118). Reliability does

not necessarily guarantee validity, but lack of reliability entails lack of validity (Bell, 2005). These definitions underline the importance of triangulation, the "comparison of at least two views/explanations" (Coolican, 2014, p. 330) of the same issue or element under scrutiny (Cohan, et al. 2011, pp. 195), and signal the fundamental need for multiple methods of data collection within research.

The 'story approach' materials and teaching strategies were trialled in the pilot intervention third year nursery class of five-six year olds (chapter five); these were compared to a generalised approach to EFL teaching in the school through observational research in a parallel class. At the end of the pilot study a case study group (CSG) was formed to take part in the three year longitudinal study. This longitudinal research continued trialling the 'story approach' materials and teaching strategies, in first, second, and third year primary, while continuing to compare results with those of students coming from a generalised approach to EFL instruction.

Based on the literature review, the hypothesis that the 'story approach' would be more effective in developing oral communicative skills in EFL YLs than the generalised approach was formed, particularly in relation to the CEFR A1 qualitative speaking skills level. For exploring this hypothesis five research questions guided (Mackey and Gass, 2005) this project. Research questions determine the research design and sampling (Cohen, et al. 2011), the design being the "overall structure and strategy of the research study" (Coolican, 2014, p. 25). The outcome measures resulting from data collection and analysis of the overall study attempt to answer these five overarching research questions detailed in the Introduction: through the 'story approach', guided by the theoretical framework, to what extent can metalinguistic and metacognitive skills, the understanding of meaning (including native language instructional use), and oral communicative skills, be developed in EFL French primary school YLs; results of oral communicative skills developed through a 'story approach' to EFL learning, compared to those from a generalised approach, and how do results from each approach compare to the CEFR A1 level; how do YLs engage with the materials/activities

through participation, and what would be the feasibility of integrating the 'story approach' into real teaching contexts.

4.1.2. General Procedures for Establishing the Field Work

This section details the general procedures, complexities and ethical considerations involved in establishing the fieldwork for the pilot study (observation and intervention studies), the cross-sectional research, and the CSG.

The school-head was contacted in May 2012, to outline the project for approval. This was facilitated through having given EFL classes in the school for several years. Authorisation was granted in June 2012. The school-head authorised the pilot study to take place over the academic year 2012-2013 in the two, third year nursery classes (final year before children start primary school); one class acting as the research intervention class and the other as an observation class of the current practices of general EFL teaching in the school.

With regards to establishing a case study group (CSG), the school-head voiced two reservations; firstly, it would be necessary to have the full support of the CSGs' class teachers; secondly, preserving a CSG over three years of primary school may prove complex due to considerations when placing children in consecutive classes. These included: children's changing affinities to one another; parent's considerations concerning their child; the class teachers' own affinities with the families of the children; the learning capabilities of each child given that each class must have a good mix of children of varying abilities; and attrition, as children do leave the school. These points were considered when forming the CSG in June 2013. Students were selected collaboratively with the school-head and nursery class teacher (CT). The first year primary CT, who agreed to take on the CSG, was also mutually agreed upon.

For ethical considerations it was agreed that it would be necessary to meet with the teachers of the pilot study observation class, and all intervention

classes, and the parents of the children in all the intervention classes (pilot and subsequent years), in order to explain the basis, aims and purpose of this research. The school-head gave permission for video recording lessons and carrying out questionnaires and interviews with the students, within the research; assurance was given that written parental permission would be obtained for videoing prior to the intervention (appendix 3: authorisation signed by parents) and that the school and all participants would remain anonymous.

4.2. Participants

All the samples for the research were drawn from the same nursery/primary school in France. The general ethos, is represented by a majorly French middle-class SES, Catholic population, either fully practicing, or adhering to, the principles and ethics of the faith. This population is characterized by an intrinsically French rather than an international mind set. Families often include three or more siblings and non-working mothers. Differences between different teacher and parent participants skills can potentially impact learning outcomes (Enever, 2011; Lucas, 2011a). For example, teachers may be more or less engaged with the teaching approach, the students, or the parents, impacting student progress positively or negatively; likewise, students' engagement with the learning process can be influenced by parental attitudes and SES backgrounds (Enever, 2011; Lucas, 2011a), e.g. parental support for FL/EFL learning. Teacher skills play an important role in successful outcomes, including, anticipating learning processes, recognizing learner errors, intervening appropriately and in a timely manner, and evaluating "what types of intervention are likely to be most effective" (Lucas, 2011a, p. 7). Concerning this research study, these considerations will be detailed in the discussion sections of the three intervention years. However, generally, parent and teacher engagement was positive.

4.2.1. Forming the Case Study Group for the Three Year Longitudinal Study

Establishing the CSG according to a mixed-methods design entailed encompassing quantitative and qualitative research. Quantitative studies generally assume larger samples, for the purposes of generalisability to the wider population, whereas qualitative studies permit focusing intently on fewer individuals (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Consequently, the research design sought to reconcile both quantitative and qualitative aspects.

Following the pilot study, a CSG of seven students (three boys and four girls) was formed from the pilot study intervention class in view of trialling and validating the theoretical framework and 'story approach' over the three years of the longitudinal study. During the study, quantitative and qualitative data was gathered through the CSG which, over three consecutive years, was integrated in an EFL classroom instructed setting comprised of students coming from a generalised approach to EFL instruction. According to Mackey and Gass "case studies tend to provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting. Case studies are also usually associated with a longitudinal approach, in which observation of the phenomena under investigation are made at periodic intervals over an extended period of time" (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 171). They permit focused research on individual learners and allow comparing and contrasting within contexts to provide invaluable insights for EFL teaching and learning (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Conversely, conclusions drawn from case studies are not easily generalisable to other contexts as research tends to focus on a very small sample which is not randomly selected (Mackey and Gass, 2005). However, concerning this study, the criteria for establishing the CSG seem to apply to the wider French native speaking population within the context of limited exposure to English. With regard to preserving the generalisability of the sample (CSG) to the wider population of students sharing the same EFL context as this research study, this research design adopted a non-random purposive sampling procedure (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Contrary to random (probability) sampling, purposive sampling involves the selection of specific types within the population and is generally

small size (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). This entailed selecting the CSG students according to specific criteria. However, the representativeness of this sample appears to permit extending inferences from results of data analysis to larger groups (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) sharing a similar EFL learning context.

In establishing the criteria, particular attention was accorded to participant characteristics to minimize threats to internal validity (Mackey and Gass, 2005) and confounding factors which could influence results, and to preserve the CSG for the entire longitudinal study.

The CSG was formed according to the following criteria:

a) a good mixture of competent, less competent, and weak students, to align with the school's policy of mixed competence classes, thus also having greater assurance of the group staying together;

b) students should be from French native speaking families where no other language is spoken;

c) no access to English outside school (e.g. private lessons; English speaking family);

d) no former contact with the English language (e.g. residence in an English speaking country);

e) students from families who are unlikely to leave the school (e.g. for professional reasons).

These criteria encompass characteristics of particular importance to second language research: "language background, language learning experience, and proficiency level" (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 109).

For the three years of the longitudinal study, each year, the CSG was integrated into a different class with different students, coming from a generalised approach to EFL teaching. The CSG of seven students remained together for two years. At the start of year three, the CSG was reduced to four (two girls and two boys), as two left the school and one was moved out of the

CSG class for administrative reasons. However, concerning the latter, the parents gave the researcher authorisation to follow their child independently with the 'story approach'; this proved complex and was abandoned after a term.

4.2.2. Forming the Sample Groups over the Three Years, and the Intervention and Control Groups in Year Three

As for the CSG, a non-probability (purposive) sampling method (Cohen et al. 2011) was adopted for selecting students from the classes in which the CSG was embedded for the three intervention years. Each year this involved the selection of a small group of participants (less than 30) from the class according to specific criteria (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009), the same as that employed for selecting the CSG (criteria a-e: section 4.2.1). Each year, data concerning the 'story approach' intervention was gathered through these samples and the CSG. Year three involved an intervention (experimental) and control group. The intervention group was formed from students in the intervention class as per the samples in the two previous years, and included the CSG. The control group was formed from the two parallel third-year primary classes employing a generalised approach to EFL instruction; the sample method (non-random purposive sampling procedure) and criteria remained the same, and importantly, included students never having previously been exposed to the 'story approach'.

These groups permitted gathering rich data for in depth analysis regarding the research questions in a context where students have very limited target language input due to restricted EFL instruction and little target language contact outside school. Data results and analysis concerning the cumulative effect of the 'story approach' over an academic year permitted evaluating, and possibly validating, the theoretical framework with these students who had previously been exposed to a generalised approach to EFL learning but never having had EFL instruction through the 'story approach'.

For year one study, the target population was drawn from a class of 23 first year primary students, including one child with special educational needs

(SEN) who only joined the class for EFL instruction. In September 2013 (start of academic year), the mean age for the 23 students (12 girls and 11 boys) was 74.13 months with a range of 65 (minimum) to 84 months (maximum), the eldest being the child with SEN. However, from the sample of 23 students, two students receiving extensive English at home were excluded for data collection and analysis, thus making a sample of 21 students including the CSG. This first year intervention permitted gathering data from the CSG carried forward from the pilot study, as a cumulative effect of the 'story approach', and from students coming from a generalised approach to EFL learning.

For the year two study, the target population was drawn from a second year primary class of 23 students; the child with SEN from first year primary, again joined the class, making 24 students. However, one girl was systematically absent (speech-therapy appointments), bringing the class down to ten girls and thirteen boys (n=23), including the seven CSG students carried forward from first year primary. The mean age for the 23 students was 86.56 months, with a range of 80 to 95 months; again, the eldest being the child with SEN.

For the qualitative data analysis, the entire class (n=23) was included as all the students had very limited exposure to the target language outside school and only an hour (approximately) weekly EFL instruction ('story approach'). However, for the quantitative analysis, a smaller sample of seven students were selected from within the class to match the strict criteria under which the CSG was formed, as it was unsure if some students were from entirely French native speaking families; also, one child arrived late in the year, and some had participated in the pilot study. This made a sample of 14 students, including the CSG, for the quantitative analysis.

For year three, the target population was drawn from three, third year primary classes of 31 students. 22 students were selected according to the same method and specific criteria (a-e) from the 3 classes. Two of these classes provided the control group sample of eleven students; five students from one control class and six from the other. The intervention (experimental) group of eleven students was composed of the remainder of the four CSG students,

carried forward from first and second year primary, and an additional seven students from the intervention class. The mean age for the 22 students was 98 months with a range of 92 to 103 months.

The entire intervention class of 31 students received the 'story approach' instruction. However, the end of year individual testing permitted gathering rich data from the sample of 11 experimental and 11 control group students specifically selected, regarding the research questions in a context where students have very limited target language input due to restricted EFL instruction and little target language contact outside school. Data results and analysis concerning the cumulative effect of the 'story approach' over an academic year contributed to evaluating and validating the theoretical framework with these students who had previously been exposed to a generalised approach to EFL learning but never having had EFL instruction through this 'story approach' intervention. Quantitative and qualitative analysis compared this intervention (experimental) group to the control group students who had only received EFL instruction through the generalised approach.

4.3. Instruments

The following data collection instruments were common to the three intervention years; they were trialled during the pilot study (Cohen et al. 2011). Questionnaires were "semi-structured" (Cohen, et al. 2011, p. 382), involving both closed (e.g. Likert scale in teacher questionnaire) and open-ended questions. In view of sensitivity and avoiding bias, parents could write anonymously (Cohen, et al. 2011).

Pre-intervention parent questionnaires were given at the start of each of the three academic years (appendix 4: 2013, 2014, 2015). These questionnaires permitted sample selection through determining participant characteristics, by providing: information on student's linguistic background, exposure to English to date, and current EFL competence. Additional information included: appreciation of EFL lessons in general, and parent's opinion on the

current general situation of EFL teaching and learning in French schools. Year one, particularly focused on storytelling/reading aloud in English (questions seven-eleven) given the age of these YLs; In year two, the number of questions was reduced compared to year one, and the information was implicitly encompassed in question six (the CTs request); in year three, given the age group, question six was reworded to explicitly include apps/computer games in English. Students exposed to all these were excluded from the sample.

<u>Post-intervention parent questionnaires</u> were given at the end of years two and three (June 2015/2016). These permitted qualitatively evaluating parent and student appreciation of the 'story approach' teaching strategies (appendices 5/5A) including: parents' opinion concerning student progress in EFL oral skills since the start of the year; and the students' enjoyment concerning EFL 'story approach' instruction.

<u>Video recordings:</u>

The 55-90 minute weekly, 'story approach' intervention classes were video recorded. Advantages include: the richness of the data, the possibility of reviewing it several times, and gathering qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously; disadvantages involved the lengthy process of obtaining authorisations, the time involved in transcribing, and the Hawthorne effect e.g. if participants know they are being recorded this may modify their behaviour. However, the students seemed to rapidly get accustomed to the camera and appeared undisturbed. The transcripts provided qualitative and quantitative data of student output (production of target language).

<u>The class teacher (CT) observation notes:</u>

Each year, the CT was present during the intervention and recorded monitoring-test results and comments on each lesson on a hand-written observation sheet. These observation notes provided: 1) an independent qualitative evaluation of the theoretical framework and the 'story approach' teaching strategies, activities, materials and monitor-testing process; 2) a third party objective view on the 'story approach' intervention for qualitative inter-

rater reliability (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994); 3) triangulation, as they were compared with the researcher's notes, the video recordings and the qualitative data gathered through transcripts, lesson plans, journal notes, and field notes.

Oral pre-intervention monitoring (interview and evaluation):

Data concerning students' current oral EFL skills was gathered at the start of the academic year through a class interview (appendix 6), pre-intervention monitoring, and oral communicative skills evaluations.

- Class oral Interview and pre-intervention monitoring: For years one and two study, students self-evaluated their existing knowledge in English, in numbers up to ten, the colours, and animal names. This oral interview was followed by individual oral monitoring of students, in these three domains, to verify if their self-evaluation seemed to correspond to existing knowledge. For the year three study, baseline monitoring incorporated more advanced oral communicative skills (understanding action verbs; oral communicative skills through picture description).

- Oral communicative skills evaluation: students could say anything they like in English. This gave some indication of students' ability to spontaneously produce vocabulary and grammar, and EFL oral communicative skills.

For years one and two, this monitoring generated qualitative and quantitative data (words and phrases), through the video transcripts, for language production at the start of the year and permitted comparison with results at the end of the year (pre-post lesson transcripts). All the language produced by the students was also written down immediately by the researcher and CT, and with the video recordings and CT observation notes, provided a means of verifying student output in case of discrepancies. For the year three study, this data was only used for designing lesson plans and intervention activities; the end of year control and intervention group testing provided the outcome measures.

<u>Individual oral formative and summative monitoring-instruments:</u>

the 'story approach' teaching strategies required designing specific oral production and aural comprehension monitoring-instrument. These took the form of structured games (e.g. felt-shapes monitoring-instrument May-June 2014), and generally involved substantial use of questioning. Based upon the concepts of "ownership" and "empowerment", (theoretical-framework), the question form was largely used to design learning activities and the monitoring-instruments on the hypothesis that, within oral communicative skills, all conversational interaction is based upon a question-answer sequence. These monitoring-instruments generated qualitative and quantitative classroom data. They permitted evaluating individual students' oral communicative skills progress throughout the year, and the CSG progress compared to the rest of the class. Individual oral progress-monitoring seems to be a prerequisite for the development of YL oral communicative skills. However, these appear absent in current programmes, possibly due to:

- difficulty in designing and administering progress-monitoring and in evaluating responses;

- large class sizes;

- keeping students' attention;

- discipline issues;

- noting and quantifying results.

Tick-off charts (e.g. appendix 7) were designed for manually recording student responses to oral monitoring. These were designed for the class and EFL teacher to manually record student responses during the oral monitoring sessions and provided for increased validity and reliability through triangulation of data collection with other instruments. These gave quick on the spot access to data rather than waiting to view the video recordings and provided a backup in case the recorded data was lost. They influenced lesson

plans and the design of further activities and materials according to progress made by the students.

Lesson plans outlined the EFL teacher's teaching strategies, activities and procedures and permitted planning future lessons. Lesson plans were developed according to the theoretical framework which guided the 'story approach'. Elements of the framework were integrated into teaching strategies and activities. This entailed designing specific materials for activities, games, and interactional work to cater for ongoing student engagement with the EFL instruction. The lesson plans and materials generated qualitative data concerning student engagement with the 'story approach', and permitted analysing which teaching materials and activities engendered the most target language output. They were designed before each lesson, taking into account the achievements of the previous ones to design the following lessons.

Field notes provided a narrative of the reality of the intervention not necessarily reflected in the recordings e.g. the intervention had to be modified due to unexpected circumstances such as an activity taking longer than planned.

Journal notes narrated the researcher's thoughts and impressions on the intervention; e.g. incidents which may be a cause of confounding factors, such as interruptions or events such as a child needing to exit the classroom or discipline issues.

Lesson plans, field notes and journal notes, were written immediately after each lesson to project teaching strategies and activities over time. They provided qualitative data on student engagement with the 'story approach' and could be compared with the CT observation notes. They also catered for triangulation, therefore strengthening the validity of the research (Cohen et al. 2011).

4.3.1. Specific Year One Instruments

For first year primary study (36 intervention lessons), quantitative and qualitative data was gathered from 21 out of 23 students. Three questionnaires provided additional qualitative data:

1) A mid-year CT questionnaire (February 2014) permitted an independent evaluation of the 'story approach' teaching strategies and student progress (appendix 8).

2) A questionnaire completed by nursery and primary teachers (May 2014), provided opinions concerning current general EFL instruction in schools in France (appendix 9).

3) An end of year student questionnaire (June 2014) provided for student self-evaluation of their new level of competence in English at this point, and their appreciation of the 'story approach' activities (appendix 10).

4.3.2. Specific Year Two Instruments

In year two (35 intervention lessons), qualitative data was gathered through the 23 students in the class, and quantitative through a smaller group of 14 (described in section 4.2.2).

Parent reports on oral homework were requested as part of the teaching and formative monitor-testing strategy, these provided qualitative data concerning student's capacity to reproduce language in a different context (at home) to that where the language was learned (at school in class). Data concerned parent reports on five sets of homework, given over five weeks, where students were required to describe three different pictures each week. Analysis involved phrases containing a verb and comprehensively correct language.

4.3.3. Specific Year Three Instruments: outcome assessment

As in years one and two, lessons were video recorded throughout the year to monitor student progress (32 intervention lessons). However, the principal quantitative and qualitative data presented in year three was gathered through transcripts of the video/audio recordings of the individual end of year outcome assessment of the 22 students: eleven intervention (experimental) class students (including four CSG), and eleven control group students from the two parallel third year primary classes. This assessment-instrument was specifically designed to elicit oral communicative skills; it particularly encompassed language items both control and intervention group students would have been exposed to over the year.

From the 22 test transcripts obtained in the end of year outcome assessment, the number of words, phrases and questions uttered by students were aggregated to provide for quantitative data analysis. The transcripts included all language produced by the students in English but were also designed to include the description of assessment content and qualitative comments concerning students' reactions to the assessment questions. The results of this quantitative and qualitative data analysis permitted evaluating possible student engagement with the teaching strategies, materials, and activities of the general approach in the control classes and the 'story approach' in the intervention class during primary year three. The video and voice recordings also provided qualitative data through, tone of voice, facial expressions and body language which complemented the transcripts for the analysis of target language skills.

According to the CEFR directives, alignment with the learning outcomes for the descriptor levels permits designing high quality speaking tests (Council of Europe, 2014). This end of year speaking test (assessment-instrument) was aligned with the CEFR A1 descriptor level while accommodating the directives of the French Ministry of Education (FME). It was designed to allow students to demonstrate communicative oral (speaking) and aural (comprehension) skills (appendices 11-12) and included the same language

items used for teaching in both the control and intervention classes over the academic year, giving equal opportunity to both groups.

The aim of the speaking test was to try to assess, which teaching approach and strategies proved most effective in developing EFL oral communicative skills in these YLs, the general approach or the 'story approach'. It was designed to highlight the oral communicative skills the control and intervention groups may have achieved as a result of their respective EFL instruction. This oral/aural assessment was developed according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) descriptor levels, which focus on the development of communicative competence. Table 3 of the A1 common reference level for qualitative aspects of spoken language use (Council of Europe, 2001; Council of Europe, 2019; appendix 2) was particularly used for designing the test. The FME stipulates that preparation for the general CEFR A1 (CECRL A1) level, which includes literacy skills, should extend over three years, from fourth year primary onwards, continuing in fifth year, and culminating at the end of first year secondary (éduscol, 2018a), i.e. ten, eleven, and twelve year olds. The general CEFR A1 level includes the five following skills: reading comprehension; oral comprehension; written production; oral production (e.g. monologue); oral interaction (e.g. conversation) (éduscol, 2018a).

Table 4.1 describes the CEFR A1 level for spoken language skills (Council of Europe, 2019; appendix 2), and the FME achievement levels (éduscol, 2018b) and guidelines for assessment (éduscol, 2018c), for end of third year primary nine year old EFL students (cycle 2). Comparison of these two attainment levels demonstrates their closeness in terms of the type of EFL oral communicative skills students should have achieved by the end of third year primary.

Table 4.1
CEFR A1 and French Ministry of Education achievement levels

CEFR A1 level Qualitative aspects of spoken language	French Ministry of Education EFL level end 3rd year primary 9 year olds
Range Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	**Spoken and reading comprehension skills** -Understand common words expressions, and simple phrases concerning the immediate surroundings in relation to oneself, the family, the environment. -Understand short simple instructions. -Understand a short simple story.
Accuracy Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.	**Spoken production skills** Be able to: - use simple phrases and expressions in familiar situations (continuous speech); - ask simple questions. - reply to simple questions on familiar subjects; -engage in simple conversation on familiar subjects.
Fluency Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.	**Assessment:** **Comprehension and Spoken productive skills** Should be linked to the usual environment or familiar situations e.g. class routine, instructions linked to games /activities, introducing oneself, inquiring about others, expressing needs or preferences, describing/talking about the surroundings.
Interaction Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.	**Assessment Materials** Illustrated text, pictures, images, posters
Coherence Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".	

The assessment-instrument (appendix 11) involved the seven following items:

1) eighteen questions requiring an oral response, therefore testing the student's ability to comprehend and respond using a word or a phrase;

2) seven instructions requiring an action to be performed, therefore testing comprehension skills only;

3) an oral invitation to the student to ask the test examiner to perform actions, therefore testing the student's capacity to use the imperative (give instructions);

4) an oral invitation to the student to ask the test examiner questions, therefore testing the student's capacity to formulate questions;

5) a picture description test using a monster picture (Kid's Box Pupil's Teacher's Book 1: Frino, et al. 2014a; appendix 12) which all the students had coloured in class themselves prior to the test, therefore testing the capacity to formulate words/phrases in relation to the vocabulary in the pictures;

6) a picture description test involving two magnetic boards (1 and 2) displaying pictures of items the students had studied in class over the year, therefore testing their capacity to formulate words/phrases in relation to the vocabulary in the pictures;

7) a 'story-time' activity where students could pick out magnetic pictures of their choice, displayed on a large whiteboard to relate a 'story' of their own invention, enabling greater freedom of expression and creativity than 5) and 6), through a large variety of pictures relating to vocabulary the students had studied over the year.

The aim of test items one to seven was to allow students the maximum possibility of displaying, comprehension skills, their capacity of producing language for a communicative purpose, and their capacity to engage in conversation.

The test items and assessment criteria (appendix 11; appendix 11A) were developed on the basis of the EFL skills prescribed by the FME and, therefore corresponded to the type of activities all the students should be accustomed to doing during the year. Both the intervention and the control classes were taught by professional YL, EFL teachers, qualified to teach students accordingly. Consequently, to avoid threat to external validity (Cohen et al. 2011) test items were informally integrated into class activities, rather than being formally piloted in either class, in order to avoid "practice effects" (Cohen et al. 2011, p. 184) which could eventually lead to better results.

Table 4.2.

Summary of data collection instruments over the three intervention years

	SAMPLE	Eight Common Data Collection Instruments for the three years	Data Collection Instruments Specific to Years 1 2 3
Year One Primary 'Story approach'	Total sample = 21 including 7 CSG Qualitative and Quantitative = 21 including 7 CSG	*Pre-intervention parent questionnaire * Post-intervention parent questionnaire in years two and three (not conducted in year one)	<u>1</u> *A mid-year CT questionnaire *Nursery/primary teachers' Questionnaire *End of year student questionnaire
Year Two Primary 'Story approach'	Total sample = 23 including 7 CSG Qualitative = 23 including 7 CSG Quantitative = 14 including 7 CSG	*Video recording/transcripts *CT observation notes *Oral pre-intervention monitoring	<u>2</u> *Parent reports
Year Three Primary 'Story approach' and generalised approach	Total sample = 22 including 4 CSG Intervention group = 11 including 4 CSG 'Story approach' Control group= 11 Generalised approach	*Individual oral formative and summative monitoring *Lesson plans *Field note Journal notes	<u>3</u> *Outcome assessment

4.4. Procedures

The following procedures relate to the three years of the intervention.

<u>Authorisation</u> for video recording and conducting interviews and questionnaires with the intervention class students, was obtained with the collaboration of the CT, at the start of each academic year. The forms were distributed and returned, signed by the parents, prior to commencement. All the parents in each of the three years accepted. In year three, the school-head gave personal authorisation for the eleven control group students to be voice recorded.

<u>Parent questionnaires:</u> at the start of each academic year (2013, 2014, 2015), parents were asked to complete the questionnaire. This was distributed and returned with the collaboration of the CT. This data was analysed qualitatively.

<u>Video recordings:</u> at the start of each weekly lesson, the camera was installed in a corner of the classroom on a tripod, and recorded the entire lesson. The wide angle permitted capturing the entire class. These recordings were transcribed and enabled gathering and analysing qualitative and quantitative data of student target language output and the 'story approach' intervention through content analysis (Cohen et al. 2011; Saldana, 2013).

<u>Transcriptions:</u> transcribing was lengthy and could take up to one hour to transcribe one minute of video recording, due to several issues:

- the number of voices which could be heard simultaneously (as in any real classroom situation, students speak on top of each other); this required listening several times to the same portion of video;

- distinguishing which students were speaking;

- writing a description of which activity was taking place;

- distinguishing how many hands were raised to answer a question.

Entire lessons were transcribed exactly as they took place, indicating the time length (minutes and seconds) each child spoke, and attributing a code to designate the child speaking (appendix 13: transcription key). Transcriptions permitted qualitative and quantitative analysis. In line with the mixed-methods approach of this study, data analysis followed a quantitative, top down approach through inferential and descriptive analysis, and a qualitative, bottom up approach through "heuristic" (Saldana, 2013, p.8) coding and analysis of themes emerging from the data (Coolican, 2014) (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Mackey and Gass, 2005). As in this study, purposes of qualitative studies can be descriptive and exploratory, theory generation, or intervention for change, and "there may be overlap between these in any particular study" (Coolican 2014, p.304).

The CT observation notes: these were drafted as non-participant observer notes with the CT sitting at her desk in the natural classroom setting (Cohen et al. 2011) and assuming a non-interventionist role (Cohen et al. 2011). For the first year and a half, observation was semi-structured (Cohen et al. 2011). The CTs were given an observation sheet with headings as a guide for note taking (materials/activities; individual and group responses; other comments). In term two of year two, the CT voiced a preference for an unstructured approach. However, the same type of information was noted and therefore made no difference. The year three CT prefered the semi-structured approach employed initially. The observation notes were taken during the intervention and were reviewed immediately afterwards by the researcher, and discussed with the CT, in case clarification was required. The CT observation notes provided for qualitative inter-rater reliability through qualitative data on the teaching strategies, activities, and materials. This provided an independent objective view on the 'story approach' and permitted an evaluation of the theoretical framework.

Lesson plans provided an important road map concerning achievements in lessons. These were designed prior to each lesson and listed activities with timing, materials required, and details pertaining to procedures. Lesson plans and teaching materials were developed and designed, within the theoretical framework of the 'story approach', each week according to the student's

progress and reaction to these (e.g. when introducing new activities; when activities unexpectedly expanded to provide natural openings; interruptions which disturbed students' concentration). Activities sometimes took longer than expected due to underestimating the time to carry them out, discipline issues, or unexpected circumstances (e.g. an unwell child), which entailed carrying forward to the following week.

Students carried out a variety of activities during lessons, each being a minimum duration of five and a maximum of twenty minutes. Activities requiring concentration were interspersed with those requiring physical exertion (e.g. games with movement, or manual activity), to cater for YLs limited concentration span (Brewster, Ellis & Girard 2002). Music (classic or children's themes) accompanied manual activities to maintain focus on language tasks and prevent chatting in French. Music also contributed to developing executive functions through providing a physical time-limit to activities (e.g. activity over when the music stops). Realia provided a concrete example of vocabulary and extensively replaced images and illustrations which are largely present in commercially available programmes. Activities, teaching strategies and materials were designed for building oral communicative skills competence.

During first year primary, students were building literacy skills in their native language. The 'story approach' intervention used these emerging skills for EFL learning; key words and phrases in English were written on the whiteboard, and students carried out activities which required manipulating the written language form. This involved the development of EFL oral skills through literacy activities in English and seemed to facilitate comprehension and production: reading and writing words and phrases written on the whiteboard by the EFL teacher; pointing out ('noticing') key words and phrases; counting the number of words in a phrase; and manipulating magnetic words. Students could visualise the number of words in a phrase, and the letters/sounds in a word. Reading/writing/drawing description activities reinforced this process and seemed to implicitly reinforce comprehension, phonology, vocabulary, and grammar learning. Consequently, students appeared to simultaneously develop oral and literacy

skills in English through these activities, though the development of oral skills was the principle aim of the study.

Field notes and Journal notes: were drafted immediately following the intervention lesson. They were referred to for cross-checking information when drafting the section relating to the description of activities on the transcripts, and the qualitative analysis (e.g. any unusual incident which could be a confounding factor, such as an interruption to the intervention). They permitted refining codes for thematic analysis (section 4.5) of the transcript data and for attributing the categories to output for quantitative analysis in year one (e.g. a student may have been whispered the response by another child, in which case that utterance would not be counted). They were referred to for designing lesson plans, and in conjunction with transcripts and lesson plans, for drafting the qualitative analysis.

Tick-off charts (appendix 7): during progress-monitoring the CT and researcher recorded student oral responses manually on tick-off charts specifically designed for each monitoring-tool e.g. in oral skills monitoring noting the number of right or wrong responses from participants and/or the exact wording of a response. The tick-off chart provided formative and summative results and enabled verifying responses when discrepancies occurred between the researcher and the CT results (inter-rater reliability). They influenced lesson plans, providing flexibility for designing teaching activities by permitting adjustment through monitoring progress. Activities could therefore be designed to suit student's immediate learning needs. e.g. if students performed well, activities to continue building on these results were designed; if students overall performed less well, follow up activities were designed.

4.4.1. Specific Year One Intervention Procedures

Weekly lessons were initially 60 minutes, but the CT spontaneously increased this to 90 minutes as she observed the student's progress and appreciation. Qualitative and quantitative data was drawn from four pre and four post lesson video recording transcripts of a sample of 21 students, including the

CSG (section 4.2.2). Transcripts were coded for descriptive and inferential data analysis.

Oral pre-intervention monitoring (interview and evaluation) provided qualitative data for language skills at the start of the year, and generated quantitative data for target language output in the transcripts, permitting comparison with results at the end of the year (pre-post lesson transcripts). The interview (15-20 minutes) involved responding to three questions in English: Can you count 0-10? Can you say the colours? Can you say animal names? Questions were asked in English and repeated in French. A semi-structured interview format enabled maintaining a casual tone (Coolican, 2014) and relaxed atmosphere. The group interview was conducted informally as a game, (in the classroom) to be "non-threatening and enjoyable" (Cohen et al. 2011, p. 433). For three questions (can you count to ten, say the colours and animal names), students could reply in English or French, and were also asked to raise their hand for positive and negative responses; these were counted. A confounding issue could be peer pressure; therefore, individual monitoring-testing followed the interview to assess if the student's self-evaluation of their oral skills corresponded in reality.

For the oral communicative skills evaluation, students were individually invited to say anything in English (open-ended questions) "what else can you say in English?" to give maximum scope for output; however, confounding factors could be students copying each other, (Cohen et al. 2011), or triggering each other's memory. All responses and exact wording were noted by the researcher and CT, and video recorded.

Following the interview students were individually monitored (summative classroom monitoring) on the language elements featuring in the interview (counting to ten, colours, and animal names), individually, but all together in the classroom, to determine the accuracy of their auto-evaluation and the extent of their oral communicative skills within these three questions.

Individual oral formative and summative progress-monitoring was conducted throughout the year for monitoring students' communicative skills progress. One objective of this research was to design practical, time-efficient, and

reliable oral/aural (production and comprehension) formative (providing immediate feedback) and summative (no immediate correction given) monitoring tools and procedures with all the students in the classroom. These 'story approach' monitoring tools were administered in the presence of the CT who participated in noting responses either on tick-off charts, or on a handwritten observation sheet. This formative and summative progress-monitoring took the form of oral/aural question-answer games and activities e.g. students individually questioned or given descriptive/storytelling tasks in English. Some monitoring-tools required set responses, noted as correct/incorrect (e.g. "what colour is this?"); others were open (e.g. "How are you today?") requiring more creative language; here, the student's exact words were noted. Instructions were systematically given to students in French before the monitoring session. The same task or question was not given immediately to the following child to avoid students retaining responses in working memory. The language elements on which students were monitored, were therefore given in an alternate manner to avoid sequential memorisation (e.g. transcription extract appendix 14). Students also recorded their own progress on a chart using concrete items (e.g. coloured felt shapes) ("embodiment»; "ownership": chapter 3 sections 3.1.4 and 3.3.1); storytelling/picture description tasks where students could select the image of their choice from familiar images previously used for comprehension activities in class permitted "embodiment" and taking "ownership" of learning and achievements (theoretical framework: chapter 3).

The three questionnaires: time constraints restricted formally trialling these prior to administration; however, for the mid-year CT questionnaire (February 2014), and the questionnaire completed by nursery and primary teachers (May 2014), the questions were discussed with the teachers for clarification and to avoid misunderstanding. The end of year student questionnaire (June 2014) was completed in class under CT supervision.

4.4.2. Specific Year Two Intervention Procedures

Quantitative and qualitative data was gathered through video recording transcripts of four pre and four post 55-75 minute weekly lessons.

<u>Pre-intervention monitoring (interview and evaluation)</u> took place as for year one, with the following difference for years two and three.

As students now had literacy skills, for interview questions 1-3 (Can you count 0-10? Can you say the colours? Can you say animal names?) responses were written on the whiteboard in English with the French translation, to prompt students: Yes (*oui*), no (*non*), a little (*un peu*). For the last question (what else can you say in English?), realia (e.g. colour plate faces) were on display to elicit language such as colour adjectives or adverbs (e.g. happy, sad), which students may remember from the previous year. Following the interview, students were individually monitored (summative) all together in the classroom, to determine the accuracy of their auto-evaluation.

<u>Individual oral formative and summative monitoring:</u> this was similar to year one with the difference that students may now have a larger repertoire for question responses (e.g. for the question "Did you sleep well?" instead of replying "yes" or "no", students might reply "very well!" or "nightmare!"). Monitoring-tools involved structured games and substantial use of questioning. This monitoring technique was used extensively to develop oral communicative skills and was reflected in the monitoring-tool design. In year two, monitoring-tools included picture description and story-telling. These were conducted using magnetic colour pictures which students could move around on the whiteboard. Students were invited to 'tell' their own story by describing and placing the pictures of their choice on the whiteboard; they were able to visualise the number of items they were able to add to their 'story' compared to the total number of pictures available, and then compare their own 'story' to that of their peers. As in year one, these permitted "embodiment", and enabled students to take "ownership" of their learning and achievements (theoretical framework: chapter 3).

<u>Parent reports</u> provided qualitative data. Homework was given (April-June 2014), once a week, over five weeks, and was returned completed the following day to assure that all the students carried out the work within a similar time frame. The five sets of homework, given once a week, involved students describing a set of three different pictures which they had practiced describing in class. Parents were required to write down the exact words said

by the student. Written instructions were given to parents in French on the homework sheet: the students were presented with the same three pictures they had practiced with in class; on a separate sheet, parents had a set phrase describing each picture, and space to note their child's exact wording; the child described the picture and parents wrote the exact wording without prompting the child in any way; it was made clear to the parents that this was a means of evaluating the efficiency of the 'story approach' and therefore the exact wording without prompt was crucial.

4.4.3. Specific Year Three Procedures

Video recordings of the 32 intervention class lessons (60 minutes weekly) over the year enabled gathering qualitative data of student's developing language skills, and particularly of the CSG. However, the principle data was drawn from the end of year individual testing (outcome assessment) of eleven control group and eleven intervention group (including the CSG) students. Students were aware of being recorded. The intervention group were accustomed to the camera, and seemed unaffected; the control group students were voice recorded only.

<u>'Story approach' activities in the intervention class</u>

The EFL 'story approach' teaching strategies and materials engaged in years one and two, continued in year three and were reflected in the weekly lesson plans as follows:

- Students were actively engaged in comprehending and formulating phrases using the question form (Pinker, 1995);

- Students were encouraged to be creative in their language development and to transform language learned as formulaic speech (Gee, 1994), into phrases of their own invention;

- Teaching strategies were directly oriented towards using language learned for communicative purposes including description, conversation, and storytelling.

- Emphasis was placed on meaning, and the building of metacognitive and metalinguistic skills, pragmatics, and phonology; these were taught by integrating them into real-life activities in the classroom ('story approach'), rather than through drilling activities common in general approach teaching strategies.

- Materials were carried forward from years one and two and were expanded and built upon maintaining similar features: easily manipulable; relating to the real-life environment (chapter 3: section 3.3.6) to foster "embodiment" and "ownership" e.g. concrete items; realia (theoretical framework: chapter 3).

According to Gee's first language acquisition context-variability principle (Gee, 1994), learners need to expand their skills by experiencing the language outside the context in which it was learned (Gee, 1994). Similarly, within EFL learning, language often remains context-bound and students appear to have difficulty reproducing it elsewhere. As in year two, through weekly homework (April-June), students used the classroom language in other contexts, by linking 'story' to real life objects and events relating to the question form and picture description.

Question/answer activities: in class, students practiced questions and answers relating to everyday events.

- Once a week, each student was given a set of questions, from those practiced in class, to ask or answer at home with parents/caregivers.

- Parents/caregivers were asked to listen to the student's language and write down the student's exact words even if difficulty with recall; they were asked to give no assistance but indicate how much ease or difficulty the student had with recall.

- Parent/caregivers were informed that this exercise was for evaluating gaps in recall in order to adjust class activities to enhance teaching and learning.

- According to the amount of recall, the question/answer phrases were practiced again in class, but not given again for homework (time constraints), as each week the students were given a new set of language items.

Picture description: Students coloured a picture in class using colours of their choice i.e. each student's picture was different.

- Individually, in front of the class, students practiced describing their picture, and were encouraged to use phrases, the plural ending with s, cardinal numbers, and adjectives.

- Students were asked to describe the picture at home for parents or caregivers.

- Parents/caregivers were asked to write down the students' exact words. They were assured that this exercise was for evaluating the efficiency of the 'story approach' in developing oral communicative skills vocabulary recall and phrase construction, and therefore no assistance should be given.

As in years one and two, individual progress-monitoring took place in class, in front of the other students. This presented several advantages for students:

- taking responsibility for their own learning ("ownership") by speaking in front of peers;

- they could develop metacognitive skills through awareness of their own EFL oral communicative competence (auto-evaluation) through evaluating peers;

- they could develop metalinguistic skills (understanding language in context e.g. responding to questions) through listening to peers and the EFL teacher's comments;

- they could develop self-confidence (self-efficacy: Enever, 2011; Graham, 2006; Graham, 2007) in speaking in front of others;

- it was time-efficient and effective for the EFL teacher. As all students were tested orally, the EFL teacher was able to evaluate the entire group's progress, give individual feedback, situate individual student's potential ZPD (Williams and Burden, 1997) and scaffold their learning.

<u>The end of year outcome assessment</u>

The intervention and control groups' end of year outcome assessment, provided an evaluation of the progress each student had made in oral communicative language skills competence through the 'story approach' teaching strategies and materials (intervention group), and the general approach and materials (control group), after one year of teaching and learning. The three, third year primary classes, had been exposed to the same language items; the difference in EFL instruction between the control and intervention groups was in the materials and teaching approach and strategies.

All 22 students were individually tested within the same week at the end of the summer term. The test-instrument was designed to last 15-20 minutes, depending on:

- the comprehension skills of each student and the number of times the EFL teacher had to (for comprehension purposes) repeat the question or explain the activity;

- the thinking time each student required before replying or indicating they were unable to reply;

- the number of student responses/utterances produced in English, as these were not limited, and students stopped naturally when they felt they had no more to say.

The testing took place in a private room and the class teachers acted as third-party observers monitoring the test procedures and permitting access to the students.

Students were required to bring with them to the test room, their pencil case, and a monster picture (Frino, et al. 2014a: appendix 12) previously coloured

in class. The test took the form of an informal interview to maintain a casual tone (Coolican, 2014) and put students at ease to express themselves freely. The intervention group were more familiar with the researcher than the control group; however, she was also familiar to them, having worked with them shortly before, and was often in the school.

Oral responses could be as many one-word answers or phrases the student could produce; the researcher allowed for ample thinking time and never moved on until the students had indicated they had finished with that test item. Though some students spoke in French in an attempt to get clarification of meaning, or code-switched in order to express themselves, the researcher only spoke to the students in English. At the end of the test session the students were requested to leave behind their monster picture which the researcher (test examiner) required for analysis of language produced for that test item (section 4.3.3: item number 5).

4.5. Coding Design and Procedures

<u>Coded transcripts of the video recordings:</u>

Transcripts of the 55-90 minute weekly EFL lessons permitted simultaneously gathering quantitative and qualitative data which was analysed through content analysis (Cohen et al. 2011; Saldana, 2013). "What starts as qualitative data – words - can be converted into numerical data for analysis" (Cohen et al. 2011, p. 568). The recordings provided exact wording of the participants, tone of voice, facial expressions, and body language, and permitted evaluating student engagement with the teaching strategies, materials, and activities. The transcripts were manually coded for quantitative and qualitative analysis. They were designed to designate individual student utterances, through a coding system of initials, to track the progress of each child e.g. "Happy and ready for work" (AM). Exact timing of each utterance was noted (minutes and seconds), and a description of the classroom activity taking place.

<u>Year one</u> (chapter five section 5.2.5 for additional details, and six for full code description):

Once the transcriptions were complete, themes/thematic categories (Saldana, 2013) were developed through content analysis for quantitative (frequency counting) and qualitative analysis (Cohen et al. 2011). This process was initiated through the pilot study transcripts and was continued in year one. Preliminary reading of transcripts led to over 30 codes relating to different speech acts and eight codes relating specifically to language structure (e.g. adjectives, verbs).

These were refined into sub-codes and further refined (Saldana, 2013) into fifteen thematic categories of EFL speech development. The language in the transcripts (student output), was assigned to the categories and was accordingly analysed through frequency counting (content analysis). Two principal categories for the development of oral communicative skills in English were responses to questions by individual students (REI), and spontaneous language produced by individual students (STEI-S), termed as creative language. For quantitative data (descriptive and inferential analysis on pre and post-tests), year one coding involved the following fifteen categories for groups and individual students; however, the principle focus was on individual students (e.g. codes STEI-S and REI), as group responses could include participation of students outside the sample criteria, or students copying each other:

- student individual and group spontaneous language (STEI-S; STEG-S);

- responses in English from individual students (REI) and groups (REG);

- single word utterances in English produced by individual students (WR-I), and groups of students (WR-G);

- formulaic speech produced by individual students (FS-I), and by groups of students (FS-G);

- phrases containing complex grammatical structures (two words or more) produced by individual students (CGS-I), and by groups of students (CGS-G);

- individual student code switching (SCS-I), and groups of students code-switching (SCS-G);

- meaning conveyed by the EFL teacher (M-Teacher);

- meaning conveyed by individual students (Meaning-Student-I);

- meaning conveyed by a group of students (Meaning-Student-G).

<u>Year two</u> (chapter seven for additional details):

The transcripts were designed to include the description of class activity and lesson content, the target language output produced by students, and the quantity of this language in word and phrases for data analysis. Coding was employed for the qualitative data analysis only, and included the entire class of 23 students, whereas the quantitative analysis involved the aggregation of words and phrases of the 14 students (including seven CSG students) selected according to specific criteria (section 4.2.1).

For qualitative analysis (chapter seven Tables 7.5-7.6), the type of activities engaged in over the academic year for teaching and learning were identified in the transcripts. The number of instances for the following six categories of teaching and learning (linked to the theoretical framework and 'story approach') were colour coded, counted and analysed:

- metacognitive skills (including executive functions);

- metalinguistic skills (including meaning);

- students repeating target language naturally;

- auto-correction (students spontaneously correcting their own target language errors);

- peer to peer correction (students correcting peers' target language);

- the extent of participation from students (number of hands raised).

For qualitative analysis, the focus also included instances specifically relating to phonology (pronunciation) pragmatics (use of language in context), and student code-switching.

<u>Year 3</u> (chapter 8):

Test results were analysed quantitatively, on the number of points achieved (test items one to four), and qualitatively, on the type of language produced (test items five, six and seven). From the 22 test transcripts, the number of words, phrases and questions produced were aggregated to provide for quantitative data analysis. Qualitative data was provided through the English language produced by the students, the description of test content, and students' reactions to the test questions. Results permitted evaluating possible student engagement with the general approach teaching strategies, materials, and activities in the control classes, and those of the 'story approach' in the intervention class, for these third year primary students. The video and voice recordings also provided qualitative data through, tone of voice, facial expressions and body language which complemented the transcripts for the analysis of target language skills.

Inter-rater/inter-coder reliability:

For quantitative analysis, lessons were independently coded by outsiders to the research. For the qualitative analysis, the CTs observation notes provided an outsider's view throughout the year (Cohen et al. 2011). Chapters 6-8 (first, second and third year primary studies), for additional details.

Conclusion

The pragmatic mixed-methods research methodology adopted for this study has permitted the simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data. This study includes a three year longitudinal CSG research, and a two year cross-sectional research for first and second year primary, with analysis of

target language production, for a control and intervention (experimental) group, in year three. Each year has presented different analysis concerning the development of EFL oral communicative skills in primary school YLs. This was carried out through the development of specific teaching strategies for a 'story approach' ELLP designed for primary school students. The programme, developed on the basis of the theoretical framework, was designed to be suited to the changing developmental and learning needs of the students in this research context, while taking into consideration the CEFR A1 standard. As part of the aims, teaching activities and materials specific to a 'story approach' were developed, and instruments for monitoring were designed in order to carry out ongoing progress assessment.

5. The Pilot Intervention and Observation Study

This chapter relates the pilot intervention and observation studies. These were conducted in two parallel third year nursery classes (2012-2013), in the same school as the main intervention study. The students were primarily French native speaking and therefore appear representative of this age-group in France. This chapter describes these studies and the coding system developed for quantitative and qualitative analysis. The theoretical framework and 'story approach' ELLP were trialled over the academic year as part of the normal EFL teaching for third year nursery students (five year olds). The parallel observation study permitted a view on the EFL teaching strategies and materials of the general approach used in the school. In both studies data was analysed qualitatively.

5.1. The Pilot Observation Study

The observation study permitted gathering "live data from a naturally occurring"(Cohen, et al. 2011) typical EFL teaching situation on the approach, method, strategies, and materials used.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), within language instruction, an approach is an instructional design which specifies, a theory of language (i.e. the language items and the levels of proficiency), and a theory of learning (i.e. the psycholinguistic, cognitive, and social processes) and can be applied in various ways depending on its learning objectives (aims), its syllabus (the order and components of language items), its teacher and learner roles (the

involvement of teachers and students within teaching and learning), and its activities (the actions and techniques).

A method, however, less flexible than an approach, specifies particular teaching and learning objectives, roles, and activities for classroom application by teachers e.g. The Silent Way (teachers refrain from speaking while encouraging maximum output from students) (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

The teaching method or approach influences classroom procedures, and therefore, even if implicitly, determines the roles of teachers and students (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). Methods and approaches adopt diverse forms depending on the age group and, the ultimate foreign or second language goals/requirements of the students, building in priority literacy (reading and writing) or communicative (listening and speaking) skills.

Teaching strategies are the techniques used to engage students with course content (Williams and Burden, 1997). They involve the use teachers make of the particular materials and environment at hand, including the organisation and management of students, and the teaching time available e.g. time spent per activity; seating arrangement (physical disposition) of students during lessons (Brewster, Ellis, and Girard, 2002).

Materials vary; examples include concrete items (e.g. books, posters, flash cards, realia), manual activity materials (e.g. paint, colour pencils), computers and audio/audio-visual materials (e.g. CDs or DVDs) and any feature of the physical environment (e.g. whiteboard or the furniture). In these developmental years, the child progresses from being dependent on concrete items to engaging in abstract thought, indicating that materials need to be carefully adapted at each stage in the learning process (Brewster et al. 2002).

5.1.1. Participants

Approval for the study was obtained from the school head and the EFL and class teachers. The average age of the 30, equal gender, third year nursery students, was 62.5 months at the beginning of the study. The students were

all from French native speaking families except one, from an English speaking family. Concerning teacher and parent characteristics, chapter four, section 4.2 describes further details.

5.1.2. Instruments and Procedures

Prior to the study, a general approach through EFL course books was confirmed by the teachers. This entailed language items conforming to the directives of the FME (education.gouv.fr.Les-langues-vivantes, 2019d) focusing on phonology, cultural aspects involving songs, exposure to vocabulary, and simple verbal interaction.

Observation of the general approach pedagogy, activities, and materials, generated qualitative data on the physical, relational, interactional, organisational and teaching environment (Cohen, et al. 2011). As a complete observer, "overt" and "non-interventionist" (Cohen, et al. 2011, p. 457), notes were hand-written, following a semi-structured methodology which permitted investigation without having a pre-set hypothesis. In view of reliability, notes were taken during lessons, according to a systemised framework using a specifically designed grid (appendix 15) were expanded according to the teachers' comments, and supplemented by journal notes.

Observation involved 14/28 lessons. As students often saw assistants in the classroom, they seemed undisturbed by the observation sessions. The researcher entered the classroom discreetly with the EFL teacher, to avoid distraction. Note-taking took place unobtrusively from the back of the class, behind the students, whereas the teachers could see the researcher.

The grid enabled noting: 1) materials 2) planned EFL language (lexis), 3) teacher talk, 4) individual student responses (repetition; recall), and 5) group student responses. The grid data was coded using an event coding scheme and analysed qualitatively. Event coding involves recording the "occurrence of events or change of events" (Coolican, 2014, p. 141) as they take place. The grid information was triangulated with the journal notes.

5.1.3. Results, Analysis and Discussion

Students sat on the floor during the 30-50 minute lessons; activities lasted 5-15 minutes. Teaching strategies involved: songs taught as formulaic speech e.g. "This is a fish"; group and individual repetition of language, and questioning (Mackey and Philp, 1998) e.g. "what is your name?" "How old are you?" "What colour is this/the bus?", "How many…?" Replies included formulaic responses, e.g. 'my name is…' 'I am…', 'hello', 'goodbye'. Lexis included e.g. numbers (counting and quantity), colours, body parts, and animal names. Materials included, flash cards, wall charts and posters, songs on CD e.g. authentic modern and children's songs; songs composed for EFL students; Christmas songs. Students were group and individually monitored in the classroom. Responses were noted to review language if necessary. Language items would generally be revisited/revised through songs (e.g. lexis, numbers, formulaic speech).

English was mainly used initially, however, native language use increased over the year, with instructions, praise, and reprimands mainly in French. Sweets were given at the end of the lesson for good behaviour, correct responses, or to encourage discipline.

In general, movement, actions, gestures, and manual activities appeared largely absent from the teaching strategy, except for learning numbers (counting fingers), the body parts (pointing), and sometimes singing (clapping, stamping). One colouring manual activity took place, and games were used for instruction but involved little action/movement. Meaning of words including song lyrics, was sporadically given e.g. questions "what is this?" were not translated. Pronunciation was rarely corrected.

Instruction seemed to follow a behaviourist perspective through imitation, repetition, conditioning, and reinforcement (Lightbown and Spada 2006), e.g. output and discipline encouraged through reward (sweets), remaining extrinsic rather than intrinsic. and focused on rote learning through formulaic speech rather than meaningful learning (Ausubel, 1980; Gee, 1994). Though formative oral testing of individual students in front of the class was

periodically conducted, this concerned formulaic speech without explicit attention to meaning (Krashen, 1982).

In FLA, meaning is frequently gathered implicitly (Ambridge and Lieven, 2011; Wells, 1986) through everyday experiences (Lightbown and Spada, 2006), and can be conceptual (the actual meaning) or associative (personal meaning as a result of experience) (Yule, 2010). However, second/foreign language learning relies on implicit and explicit learning (Hulstijn, 2005), and does not provide the same quantity of input as in FLA, possibly indicating that EFL learning also requires attention to quality of language to compensate for this. The observation class teaching strategies appear to contrast with Gee's fifteen principles of language learning where learners require suitable input through a variety of learning strategies (Gee, 1994).

Phonology and pronunciation instruction appeared absent in the observation class. Native language phonological features continue to develop until the age of six-seven (Delahaie, 2009), and native competence in second language acquisition can be achieved without formal instruction if children receive the necessary exposure during the critical period for language development (Krashen, 1976; Lichtman, 2016). Beyond this stage, it seems, explicit instruction would be required to learn the phonology of a new language (Krashen, 1976).

The observational data analysis highlighted points of contrast between the general approach and the 'story approach' pilot intervention. These were further examined at the start of year one longitudinal/cross-sectional study, through language-monitoring. The outcome assessment results in year three (chapter eight) permitted evaluating the effectiveness of the general approach EFL instruction compared to the 'story approach'.

5.2. The Pilot Intervention Study

This pilot permitted an initial evaluation of the appropriacy and feasibility of the 'story approach' materials, teaching strategies, and data collection instruments.

5.2.1. Participants, Parents, and Teachers

The 30 intervention class students were an average age of 63 months at the start of the pilot. A pre-intervention parent questionnaire (appendix 16) (section 5.2.2) indicated that they came from different EFL backgrounds, ranging from little exposure to English, to one English mother tongue student; certain students spoke additional languages (Spanish; Arabic).

The project was greeted enthusiastically; this was also reflected in the pre-intervention parent questionnaires (results: section 5.3.3.1). All the parents gave written consent (appendix 3) for video recording lessons for data collection. It was agreed that the parents would receive a half-termly (every seven weeks) summary of the student's class activities and a list of lexis to follow their progress. They were reassured of the possibility to discuss any aspects of the research carried out in class-time with their children during the project. Chapter four, section 4.2 for further parent/teacher participants details.

5.2.2. Instruments

The piloting involved class teacher (CT) and pre and post-intervention parent questionnaires, class interviews, teaching materials, oral language monitoring-tools (formative: where immediate feedback is explicitly echoed in ongoing teaching; and summative: where corrections are noted and fedback into teaching at a later stage), and video recording transcripts of the 45 minute weekly classes. Lesson plans, field notes, journal notes, and CT observation notes were piloted to provide for triangulation in the interests of research validity and reliability (Coolican, 2014). Results and analysis permitted

adjustments for the longitudinal/cross-sectional studies. Teaching strategies and materials were specifically designed, developed and trialled through the pilot study to suit the needs of this age group while remaining evolutive to cater for older students in the following years.

The pre-intervention parent questionnaire collected information on student's linguistic background, current level of EFL, and opinions on YL EFL instruction ('general approach') in schools; the post-intervention questionnaire asked for parent's opinion on the 'story approach' intervention and students' new level of EFL. The post-intervention CT and assistant questionnaire provided an evaluation, of the 'story approach' teaching strategies, activities, and materials. These semi-structured questionnaires included dichotomous, multiple choice, rating scale questions, and open-ended questions.

Video recordings provided audio-visual data. Technical issues led to loss of some recordings, and prevented all lessons being fully recorded due to managing the video recorder DVD disc (recording time limited to 30 minutes). This was resolved at the start of the longitudinal study through the purchase of a digital video recorder, and highlighted the importance of triangulation through manually recording data (journal and field notes; monitoring tick off charts; CT observation notes).

The pre-intervention class interview and oral language monitoring-tools, and a mid-year four songs questionnaire (views on learning and motivation) provided data for adjusting the activities and materials designed for the 'story approach'.

5.2.3. Procedures

The pre-intervention class interview and all the language monitoring (pre-intervention, formative and summative) were conducted in the classroom, with all students together. Indeed, YLs are in a constant process of molding their "approach to learning" (Fisher, 2005, p. 122); providing a stress free environment promotes confidence in learning and responding to challenge,

and can increase test-performance (Fisher, 2005). Therefore, maintaining the children's emotional well-being, confidence, and motivation (Fisher, 2005) was a priority for this study and took precedence over scientific laboratory research testing where students are isolated for strictly controlling variables (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Furthermore, laboratory testing procedures seem to not reflect classroom practice; researching realistically appropriate means of evaluating individual YLs, EFL oral competence, with classes of 30 students formed part of the research aims. "Testing" was therefore exploratory and was conducted stress-free in the usual classroom setting.

This language-monitoring permitted:

a) piloting the design and tools for the longitudinal/cross-sectional studies and assessing potential difficulties in individual oral classroom-testing with 30 students;

b) evaluating student's current EFL oral communicative skills.

5.2.3.1. Pre-intervention Interview and Pre-intervention Language-Monitoring

The interview was conducted in the mother tongue. Raised hands were counted for positive and negative responses; answers were recorded manually (section: 5.3.1). Students were asked six questions concerning likes, dislikes and preferences relating to EFL learning:

1) Who would like to learn English?

2) Who thinks that learning English is difficult?

3) Why?

4) Who thinks that learning English is easy?

5) Why?

6) What activities would you like to do in English?

The pre-intervention language-monitoring was conducted by eliciting as many words or phrases, in English, that the students could remember/say; and by focusing on specific language (items most commonly introduced to EFL YLs) by asking the students to count, say the colours, say animal names and say *'bonjour'* and *'au revoir'* in English.

5.2.3.2. Teaching Strategy and General Language-Monitoring

During lessons, students sat at their desks, or on a floor mat for story-telling sessions. For certain games students stood, or came, individually or in groups, to the front of the class. The CT and/or assistant were systematically present. The students were informed of the reasons for recording and could see the camera being installed before each lesson. The video transcripts permitted viewing ongoing individual student progress.

Language-monitoring was essential to the teaching strategy (Bygate, 2009). Formative language-monitoring involved immediately sharing results with students and harnessing errors for progress. This seemed to promote higher order thinking and executive functions (Caine and Caine, 2011) including self-evaluation, and metacognitive awareness, through following specific instructions and sharing knowledge (Brewster, Ellis, and Girard, 2002). Formative language-monitoring was conducted through question and answer "games" and activities; interaction was a fundamental aspect of the intervention (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Realia and the students own work provided the material for language-monitoring (e.g. colouring, activity sheets, and realia made in class; puppets, plate faces, toy farm animals). Language-monitoring of spontaneous language allowed immediate feedback to be recycled directly into learning. Implicit and explicit (Ellis, 2005) and corrective feedback (Nassaji, 2016a) involved modeling pronunciation, words (vocabulary) and phrases (structure), and scaffolding student's output, by the EFL teacher and peers e.g. the grammatical plural form with "s". Negative feedback encompassed recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, and explicit error correction (Oliver and Mackey, 2003).

Summative language-monitoring included eight oral/speaking and two aural/comprehension "classroom-tests". The eight summative oral language-monitoring sessions included numbers 0-10, nine clothes names, nine farm animal names, and five of the eight songs learned during the year. Oral language-monitoring, apart from two of the songs, was spread over three lessons, to cater for other activities apart from language-monitoring in the 45 minute lesson, and avoid lengthy language-monitoring sessions, as all the students were present. For all, oral language-monitoring, student's individual responses were noted by the researcher and class assistant on specifically designed tick-off charts and cross checked with the video recordings. Trialling these forms of language-monitoring permitted assessing their feasibility and appropriateness for the research study.

For song language-monitoring, formulaic speech, (Myles, Mitchell, and Hooper, 1999) students were noted as singing words confidently, hesitantly, or not at all. Before the language-monitoring sessions, students practiced the five songs over a number of lessons with and without music. Realia, actions, and movement were used for making meaning salient and were also used during language-monitoring sessions (e.g. waving coloured cloth for the "Colours Song"). Students were monitored in small groups of five to promote confidence and facilitate monitoring. For songs (1), (2), (3), language-monitoring was conducted (without music) over three consecutive lessons (end of term one). However, monitoring took longer than planned due to organisational issues e.g. children forming groups, discipline, calming students, explaining monitoring procedure to the assistant and the students. It was impossible to monitor all students on all the songs, and the CT was unwilling to provide extra time. Therefore, for songs (4) and (5), a different procedure was adopted. 28 students (two absent) were monitored in one lesson (term two: lesson 18); half the students were monitored at a time in the classroom while the other half worked elsewhere, in French, with the CT, and vice versa. Students were monitored in groups of five using the same method and under the same criteria as previously, except for song (4) which was accompanied by very soft music, due to its length.

Numbers 0-10 were taught, using large wooden numerals which the students manipulated, through songs and activities. 29 students (one absent) were individually monitored, over three consecutive lessons (term two), by repeating the numbers in consecutive order.

For clothes names students prepared a set of realia, during a class manual activity, consisting of nine clothing items which they had coloured according to their choice and cut-out (printed images on card). Students were individually monitored over three consecutive lessons (term three). Individual students held up, in turn, the items of clothing they were able to say. Students randomly chose the item of clothing as no set order was imposed (Ellis, 1999a; Ellis, 2005). Students were attributed one point for every clothing item said without hesitation.

Animal names were introduced and practiced during the year through realia, song, and story. For animal's names language-monitoring, students came forward individually and picked up and named the animals, one by one, in any order. (term three).

5.2.3.3. Receptive (comprehension) Skills Monitoring

Two summative classroom assessments involved:

1) phrases linked to the picture story "The Three Little Pigs" (lesson 28);

2) vocabulary consisting of nine farm animal names (lesson 29).

The CT and assistant were present to supervise the students and only intervened for discipline. Students had listened (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008) to two readings of the picture story book, "The Three Little Pigs", in two consecutive weeks prior to the comprehension-monitoring. This picture phrase comprehension-monitoring involved a different set of pictures of the story, compared to those in the book the students were familiar with. Each child had a set of these six individually cut-out pictures, and an A4 size paper grid bearing six numbered squares. Students placed the pictures randomly in front of them. Six phrases, corresponding to the six pictures,

were read out one by one by the researcher. The students observed and chose the picture corresponding to the phrase said aloud, and stuck it on their grid. Very few gestures were used to facilitate comprehension. Those used, were only helpful if the student had a good understanding of what the phrase meant; they only permitted confirming the choice of picture e.g. showing one finger for picture one, was ambiguous as there was one wolf and one pig.

The animal names comprehension-monitoring (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008), involved a printed A4 size grid containing nine rectangles and a space for students to write their name; each rectangle was numbered and contained a picture of three different animals. Designating each rectangle in sequential order, the researcher named an animal for students to colour (that animal only), using orange to avoid confusion (same word in French).

5.2.4. Teaching Materials

'Story approach' teaching materials were developed through the theoretical framework. YL are dependent upon concrete items for negotiating meaning and understanding concepts (Fisher, 1990), and are still in the process of developing abstract thought (Williams and Burden, 1997; Donaldson, 1978). Therefore, realia was used extensively for EFL teaching; students making realia and personalising it (e.g. a postcard, parcel, and letter in an envelope, with the address and stamp) also permitted developing general concepts. For example, a colouring/cutting-out clothes activity enabled students to use the colour of their choice and cut out the pictures themselves ("ownership"). A number of children placed the clothes on themselves as if to dress up ("embodiment"), and others placed the cut-out-clothes on the table in a variety of combinations ("ownership"). In oral games that followed, as each child had his own version of the garment (Boyd and Markarian, 2011), this provided for fun interaction (Ellis, 1999; Ellis, 2005) as each could say, for example what colour the buttons were on their own jacket or how many pockets, providing variety yet remaining within the boundaries of their yet limited language competence. The focus is on the child who, consequently, is at the centre of his own learning endeavor. This 'story approach' provided for creative interaction, as each child's response is creative and spontaneous; a

very different approach to language learning proposed by current programmes.

Eight songs with worksheets including lyrics, to personalise, were introduced to reinforce vocabulary and develop self-confidence in oral output. The same instructions were often repeated to provide for easily comprehensible formulaic speech (Myles, Mitchell, and Hooper, 1999); once familiar with this instruction students no longer required meaning or repetition in the native language. Literacy skills were indirectly introduced from the start of the pilot through words and phrases accompanying pictures on song and activity sheets. Though not asked to read these, students' attention was indirectly drawn to them through pictures to stick or colour.

Materials piloted were designed or selected for teaching metalinguistic (Cameron, 2001) and metacognitive skills (Richards and Lockhart, 1996), essential for "effective learning" (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 148). These were introduced implicitly and explicitly by: focusing on meaning (Ellis, 2005); placing language in context; use of mother tongue for understanding pragmatics (e.g. we say 'good morning' in the morning only; we can say 'hello' at any time of the day or night); and direct explanation of certain simple grammar rules (Ellis, 2005) (field notes and lesson plans 19, 20, 21) e.g. the plural form of nouns using "s" (e.g. shoes, eggs) and the place of the adjective preceding the noun (e.g. "blue pen") contrary to French grammar where the adjective follows the noun (e.g. *"stylo bleu"*). Oral interaction provided for practice (noticing errors; peer/self and teacher correction) (Ellis, 2005; Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2002). Student's developing comprehension skills was facilitated through using well known picture story books (e.g. "The Three Little Pigs") which also featured language previously introduced.

Additional realia was introduced in term three while carrying forward materials used previously, to provide for continuity, repetition, revision and to act as building blocks for further progress e.g. once students mastered combining a number with a noun in the plural form to make a short phrase e.g. "two buttons", they were encouraged to add an adjective e.g. "two blue buttons", and then two adjectives, e.g. "two big blue buttons". In the 'story approach', language is introduced in a non-linear manner, as it is in real-life

activities for children learning mother tongue (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). The objective is to introduce and practice a variety of grammatical features in order to rapidly access and build communicative skills.

Piloting involved 'story approach' materials specifically chosen, designed and developed to reflect real-life situations for language teaching e.g. the "Postman Pat" (Cunliffe, 1981) story, linking clothes, work, travels, and pet cat; the "Three Little Pigs" story linking song with associated realia and vocabulary concerning feelings (e.g. happy, sad, angry...). Carefully selected lexis and formulaic speech provided for versatility e.g. the words happy, sad, angry appeared in stories and songs and were also used as one word answers in reply to questions such as "How are you today?" Students made realia teaching materials (e.g. cardboard plate faces depicting feelings), to reinforce this.

5.2.5. Procedures for Developing and Piloting a Coding System for Content Analysis

During the longitudinal/cross-sectional study, data gathered through video transcriptions was coded in vivo (directly from the speech) for quantitative and qualitative content analysis. Content analysis permits preparing qualitative data for quantitative analysis through codes/frequency counts and also permits a "form of qualitative content analysis where the data are left as *qualitative*" (Coolican, 2014, p.299). The coding scheme was developed and piloted as part of the pilot study. Content analysis involves the coding of texts in order to find categories and then patterns and themes and concepts; the systematic interrelation of themes and concepts permit developing theory (Saldana, 2013). Codes can be used descriptively for qualitative analysis or can be counted as frequencies for quantitative analysis (Saldana, 2013; Coolican, 2014). A code constitutes "a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data" (Saldana, 2013, p. 3). Within this research, codes designate particular categories (types) of language to form themes and concepts for language analysis. The transcripts were reviewed

multiple times and coding followed the stages of: open/line by line coding, which "stimulates generative and comparative questions" (Corbin and Strauss, 1990, p. 12); focused/axial coding, where "major categories or themes" (Saldana, 2013, p. 213) are developed from the data; and selective coding, where final themes and categories emerge (Coolican, 2014; Corbin and Strauss, 1990). At each stage of the process, memo writing, together with field and journal notes, contributed to defining emerging categories (Coolican, 2014; Corbin and Strauss, 1990).

Within this research, categories and themes were generated (Coolican, 2014) naturally through classroom interaction, which was stimulated by a 'story approach' to EFL instruction, and transcripts of student language were coded accordingly. Hence, the transcript data was analysed, until "*saturation*" (Coolican, 2014, p. 259), as themes to highlight patterns and trends, linked to current theory, and used to propose new perspectives (Coolican, 2014). Quantitative analysis was conducted through content analysis frequency counting of codes (Saldana, 2013), and was used to explore hypotheses (Coolican, 2014).

Initial categories/themes focused on:

- the extent to which meaning (understanding words, phrases, and pragmatics) forms part of EFL instruction (in English or native French): through explanation, or generated through questions, or spontaneously proposed by students;

- the frequency of interaction involving EFL question-response situations;

- repetition of English language items as part of instruction;

- motivation and the type of spontaneous target language students produced;

- EFL comprehension, vocabulary use, pragmatics, and length of utterances involving structure.

A splitter-coding technique (data is split into smaller codes from the start), permitted "detailed In Vivo Coding" (Saldana, 2013, p. 23) from the outset. This heuristic/reflective stage and first cycle of coding, led to 38 codes and 8 separate codes denoting structure (appendix 17). During pilot trialling, a second cycle involved slightly expanding these to include further sub-categories (appendix 18). These were subsequently refined to seven principle categories/themes and codes and 15 sub-codes for year one study, and five principal categories/themes and codes and two sub-codes, for year two (appendix 19). Coding was simultaneous, in that several codes could be attributed to a portion of data, (Saldana, 2013) e.g. a student utterance could be coded as spontaneous language (STEI-S), but could also be structurally complex (CGS). "Meaning" was an umbrella category/theme as it encompassed several codes e.g. individual/group responses in English (code REI, REG), and individual/group responses in French (codes RFI and RFG) and individual/group spontaneous English language (STEI-S, STEG-S) could all equally result from meaning. "Meaning" also encompassed reiterating utterances in English or French to clarify understanding e.g. Lesson 5: "Est ce que tout le monde est au bon endroit?" "Is everybody in the right place?" Students' individual spontaneous language (STEI-S) and individual student's responses to questions (REI) in English, were focal points, as these permitted evaluating extent of recall. The eight codes denoting structure were ultimately encompassed in one code (CGS). Chapters six and seven (years one and two study) provide details for code descriptions. In year two, additional coding concerning, metacognitive and metalinguistic skills teaching, natural repetition of language, auto-correction, peer correction, and raised hands, permitted investigating the type of activities engaged in the 'story approach' and how these linked (described in chapter seven) with the theoretical framework (chapter 3).

The category mixing English and French (code switching) by the researcher (code EFM) and the class teacher (code CTEFM) was omitted due to time restraints. However, this could be an area for future research. It reflects the extent of native language use in the 'story approach' intervention, and compared to programmes which restrict mother tongue use in EFL instruction, could permit understanding implications for EFL learning.

5.3. Pilot Intervention Study: Results, Analysis, and Discussion

Table 5.1. summarises the data collection instruments developed/trialled during the pilot study. Qualitative analysis was conducted in view of adjustments for the main study.

Table 5.1.
Pilot study instruments

Data gathered at the start of the pilot study Pre-intervention	Data gathered over the pilot study	Data gathered at the end of the pilot study Post-intervention
Student class interview	8 summative speaking monitoring-tests	Class teacher and Assistant questionnaire
Language-monitoring of students' speaking skills	2 summative comprehension monitoring-tests	Parent questionnaire
Parent questionnaire		
	Ongoing formative language-monitoring of speaking and comprehension skills	
	Class teacher observation notes	
	Lesson plans Journal notes Field notes	

5.3.1. Pre-Intervention Language-Monitoring and Interview

The pilot pre-intervention language-monitoring tool was trialled to provide a pre-intervention qualitative assessment of student's EFL level at the start of each year of the research study; "one can only assess how much a set of educational experiences has added value to the student if one knows that student's starting point and starting abilities and achievements" (Cohen, et al.

2011). Spontaneous language elicited from the 30 students seemed limited with, only ten different words (apple, hello, please, yes, dog, yoyo, blue, goodbye, no, bag) and three phrases produced (I want to eat, hello my name is G…, happy birthday to you). Spontaneous foreign language appears to be difficult to elicit; recall may be difficult, hampered, or distorted, due to affective factors, stress, and peer pressure.

Specific language-monitoring permitted monitoring students on numbers, colours and animal names. Student's speaking skills, however, still appeared limited: ten students counted to thirteen but systematically left out eleven and twelve (none said zero); thirteen students said colours yellow, pink, red, blue, green, and black; 10 students said the animal names dog, cat, dinosaur; 24 students were able to say *'bonjour'* in English (hello) and 27 *'au revoir'* (goodbye). Language-monitoring was conducted collectively (all the students together in the classroom); consequently, results could be distorted by students copying each other. They do however permit general insight concerning the type of language students appeared to possess which seemed limited to one word lexis. Piloting results appeared to demonstrate the feasibility of this pre-intervention instrument and procedure for generally eliciting/assessing YLs current EFL oral communicative skills.

Concerning the pre-intervention interview (self-reflection: Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank, 2011) results (30 students), 18 wanted to learn English, 18 felt that learning English was easy; ten replied it was easy because they learn through watching DVDs and listening to CDs, and ten said they travel to English speaking countries. Eight students reported difficulty in learning English with counting and comprehension as major obstacles. Concerning EFL activities 23 students replied affirmative to wanting to sing, 24 to wanting to dance, and 28 to wanting to listen to stories, do activities, and tell stories. These replies seemed attuned to their developmental needs suggesting the necessity for diverse activities, movement, and personal implication through singing and storytelling; an active and creative child-centered approach where participants do activities/tell stories, rather than remaining a spectator reproducing set formulas. These pilot results provided essential information for the design and development of the 'story approach' ELLP

teaching strategies and materials for the longitudinal/cross-sectional studies by emphasising these language learning needs.

However, for the class interview and language-monitoring, confounding factors may include students replying negatively or affirmatively, or not at all, due to shyness, peer pressure, or copying e.g. 13 students said pink, but could have been copying each other. Individual student oral language-monitoring also seems difficult to conduct due to timetable constraints and class teacher's unwillingness to relinquish time for "testing"; yet EFL oral/aural language-monitoring seems fundamental to progress (Bygate, 2009; Ellis, 2005). These points were considered for designing oral/aural language-monitoring tools for the 'story approach'. Individual student "testing", while all together in the classroom, was piloted through formative and summative language-monitoring (section 5.3.2).

5.3.2. Formative and Summative Language-Monitoring

The pilot formative and summative language-monitoring enabled qualitatively assessing the effectiveness of the 'story approach' teaching strategies, materials, and student progress, and adjusting strategies and instruments for the main study.

Formative language-monitoring, analysed through the video transcripts, permitted capturing spontaneous student language e.g. noticing errors, adjusting interlanguage (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000; Selinker, 1972), building confidence (Mackey and Philp, 1998). As spontaneous language-monitoring limits obtaining the same number of results per student, ten summative classroom-tests were also conducted and analysed qualitatively "to explain and seek causality" (Cohen, et al. 2011, p. 539), and through content analysis frequency counts to "assess the frequency of items or phenomena" (Saldana, 2013, p. 39).

5.3.2.1. Formative Language-Monitoring

The video transcripts analysis demonstrated that, by term two (March 2013) students could understand and say certain clothes/animal names vocabulary and add a number or colour making two-word phrases. Some were repeating teacher talk e.g. "everybody ready!"; Several were creatively building their own phrases using an adjective or a cardinal number and a noun, e.g. "three pockets". Students made similar developmental errors to native speaking infants learning mother tongue, of generalising grammar rules; e.g. "sheeps" instead of "sheep". Transfer of native French grammar rules, when constructing phrases in English was apparent in the children's interlanguage (Selinker and Naiditch, 2015), like placing the colour adjective after the noun (e.g. "shoes blue") rather than before (e.g. "blue shoes"). Teaching strategies included specifying errors (Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2002), involving corrective (Nassaji, 2016a) and negative feedback (Oliver and Mackey, 2003), and noticing the gap between interlanguage and target language (Mackey, 1999); students auto-corrected and produced spontaneous creative language in relation to realia; students could reply to questions (Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Mackey and Philp, 1998) e.g. "what is this?" (reply: "black glasses"); "how many pockets?" (reply: "ten pockets").

These results appeared to emphasise the relationship between native language learning and EFL learning, confirming the need for: interaction; relating learning to real-life events through concrete items/realia; and ongoing progress monitoring. Results permitted refining teaching materials and strategies for the longitudinal/cross-sectional studies.

5.3.2.2. Summative Language-Monitoring

This involved eight oral-communicative tasks, including five songs learned using movement and realia, and two receptive tasks.

Language-monitoring using song (formulaic speech) permitted refining procedures and materials for general "classroom-testing"; the exploration of song as a teaching strategy for oral communicative skills development; and

the administration of the song-questionnaire to further understand YLs motivation within learning (Ellis, 2005). Students had practiced songs, with and without music, for several lessons prior to monitoring. Language-monitoring songs (1), (2) and (3), in groups of five, with all the students together in the classroom, permitted keeping the classroom routine and limiting affective factors (Krashen, 2009). Results contrasted with those of songs (4) and (5), monitored later in one single lesson, where students appeared destabalised due to changes in classroom routine, though the monitoring procedure, (groups of five), remained the same. "Classroom-testing" in small groups, facilitated student evaluation. This contrasted with the observation study (general approach) where song-testing was conducted with all thirty students simultaneously. Furthermore, for songs (2) and (5), students held realia which facilitated evaluating if they knew the vocabulary (e.g. waving the correct colour cloth).

Results demonstrated that for procedure one (song-testing over three lessons), due to time constraints, all students were not tested on all three songs (organisational issues, explanations, and discipline). These present important factors for designing YL, EFL activities; possibly for these reasons, general approaches seem to either omit language-monitoring, or include it without ample consideration (e.g. Kid's Box: Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b).

For procedure two, songs (4) and (5), song-testing was facilitated through splitting the class, reducing discipline and organisational issues due to less children. All students were tested, but performed less well, possibly due to: being destabalised by the change of class-routine; and for song (4), despite music accompaniment due to its length, possibly indicating that music does not necessarily facilitate learning lyrics.

The positive results of this song-monitoring potentially demonstrate motivation and confidence in oral production, and reflect student's appreciation of challenge within learning: despite song (2) having the greatest number and most new words, and (5) the most difficult lyrics, for both, most sang, and many confidently. Overall, best results were for songs (2) and (5), rehearsed and monitored accompanied by realia (Fisher 1990; Williams and

Burden 1997; Donaldson 1978), possibly confirming the advantage of realia for YL, EFL instruction and language-monitoring.

For counting, after 13 intervention lessons, of the 29 monitored, 21 students counted 0 to 10 correctly. Interestingly, the remaining eight, despite all being monitored together in the classroom and listening to their peers, were still unable to count perfectly. However, conversely, some students' memories, may have been refreshed by peer performance. Consequently, for the longitudinal/cross-sectional studies, the procedure was adjusted to include multiple items (in an alternate manner) for individual language-monitoring.

Thirty students were tested individually on nine clothes names; one point was attributed for every correct answer pronounced without hesitation. Raw data results indicate that, only one student got full points despite the comparatively long period of instruction, and using realia for instruction and monitoring. Interestingly, the clothing items most memorised were those which students could manipulate in real life (pocket; button; glasses), and which therefore seem to possess an amplified concrete quality, important within YL instruction (Fisher, 1990). Furthermore, recalling individual lexis in random order differs from rote learned formulaic speech (e.g. singing); memory "operates in a social, meaningful context" (Coolican, 2014, p. 250), and the nature of learning impacts recall (Ausubel, 1960; Ausubel 1980; Brown, 2000). The clothes names, were learned individually and "tested" in random order, contrasting with learning language in a set order (formulaic speech e.g. songs). Rote language learning appears less conducive for developing EFL oral communicative skills, as real-life situations require recall of language to relate to context and circumstance, rather than be reproduced in a set order. Consequently, as a result of the pilot, materials and strategies were adjusted to provide additional time for individual lexis instruction by carrying materials forward from one year to the next.

For individual language-monitoring of ten animal names (term three), students said these in random order; one point was attributed per correct answer pronounced without hesitation. Out of 30 students, only three remembered all ten names. Egg, chick, and hen were least recalled, despite being prime focus at Easter, including for manual activities. This seems to

indicate that despite emphasis on language items, recall is not necessarily facilitated and other factors need to be considered, such as length of instruction (Ellis, 2005), as in FLA.

For the two classroom "comprehension-tests", students were monitored all together (term three). The CT and assistant supervised students to avoid them copying. For the story "The 3 Little Pigs": one point was attributed for each correctly placed picture; 23 students out of 30 got full points. Scrutiny of the data appears to indicate that student's developing comprehension skills was possibly facilitated through using for instruction well known picture story books which also included language previously introduced, allowing for increased focus on meaning (Mackey and Silver, 2005), e.g. before the first reading of the story, one student correctly gave the title in French "Les 3 Petits Cochons", by hearing the English title (no picture shown), and recalling the previously introduced words "three", "little" and "pig".

The nine animal names comprehension test included the same words as those for oral language-monitoring, except "elephant" (same word in French). One point was attributed for each correct response. Out of 30 students, 28 got full points. Hen, egg, and chick were included in the test; results indicate that whereas production of these three names was poor, comprehension was substantially easier, drawing a parallel between FLA and EFL learning, that comprehension precedes production.

Following these results, for the main study, language-monitoring focused on: words/phrases rather than song; maintaining student's routine; emphasising individual monitoring while time-limiting sessions to avoid students losing focus. Teaching/monitoring materials appear to have encouraged the development of creative language; students constructed original phrases e.g. "pink nose cat's" (CT notes: lesson 13), "seven pockets" (CT notes: lesson 22), even if not always grammatically correct. The intrinsic significance of the term 'story approach' is creative language reflecting each student's own 'story', as seen through the individual's eyes. Therefore, materials were re-conducted and expanded in year one.

5.3.2.3. Student Song Questionnaire

This followed the classroom song-testing, and concerned students' auto-evaluation of their own learning for four of the five songs (song (3), "Happy Birthday", excluded); results were valuable for developing the 'story approach' materials and activities. Students responded to five questions about the songs:

1) Which is your favourite?

2) For which can you sing all the words?

3) For which can't you sing all the words?

4) Which has the most difficult words to sing?

5) Which has the easiest words to sing?

Students considered song (4) had the most difficult words; song (2), the easiest, and the best sung; song (1) was the favourite; and song (5) was considered the least well sung.

These self-evaluation results differ from the language-monitoring results; students actually performed the best on song (5) they considered the least well sung, possibly indicating erroneous self-evaluation and underestimation of actual skills. Though the numbers song (1) was not considered the easiest, it was the favourite, and (2) was considered the easiest, despite having the most new words, possibly indicating that preference does not necessarily align with facility, and that students enjoy challenge in learning. These were important points concerning the feasibility of providing challenging materials for instruction. The song questionnaire results appear to indicate that the songs selected for the pilot correspond to the students' zone of proximal development i.e. situated above current competence but within reach through instruction.

5.3.3. Class Teacher, Class-Assistant, and Parent Questionnaires

5.3.3.1. Pre-Intervention Parent Questionnaire

Out of 30 pre-intervention parent questionnaires (appendix 16), 27 were returned following four intervention classes. Concerning motivation, 26 students were enjoying lessons (one questionnaire incomplete). Outside school, apart from one child, all the students received very little exposure to English; however, five spoke other languages at home (Arabic, Spanish).

Results of 27 questionnaires concerning the type of output children were manifesting at home indicated that, after four EFL classes, 23 were spontaneously speaking words, singing, and counting in English. Words indicated by parents on the questionnaires corresponded to language elements introduced in the four EFL classes (e.g. purple, zero, good morning, clap hand, finished, what's your name? Why? Thank you, sit down, stand up). These were different to those recorded at the pre-intervention language-monitoring, possibly indicating that this language was produced as a result of the 'story approach' materials and teaching strategies.

Concerning parent's opinion on the general level of EFL teaching in nursery and primary school in France, two replied being satisfied, seven gave no opinion, and eighteen replied that EFL instruction is largely insufficient; reasons included:

a) Insufficient teaching hours for EFL instruction.

b) Poor level of instruction.

c) Instruction is not progressive and students seem to always be learning the same things.

d) Insufficient input.

e) Insufficient practice with output.

f) Lack of qualified EFL teachers.

g) Neglect of the importance of EFL instruction.

h) Boring instruction approaches.

i) Classes are too big to develop communicative skills.

j) Teaching methods and approaches in practice are not motivating or stimulating.

Results appear to demonstrate multiple factors causing substantial dissatisfaction with general EFL instruction, and seemed to confirm the aims of this research study, highlighting the need for an approach adapted to YLs. After four intervention classes, parents appeared positive concerning the 'story approach'.

5.3.3.2. Teacher and Assistant Questionnaires

Both the teacher and assistant felt student motivation was positively maintained due to: the variety of activities, and materials, including kinesthetic and audio-visual elements; manual activities; revision sessions; personalising instruction (e.g. English folder); parent's enthusiasm. Manual activities and movement contributed to general development of fine and gross motor skills; realia making (three dimensional items) contributed to general cognitive development (e.g. shape, size, volume). Both commented that students seem to be memorising language e.g. spontaneously using English words outside EFL class, (school, home), and when volunteering to reply to questions in English, generally replying correctly. However, certain songs could have been further developed as students knew the longer version in French. The CT commented positively on native language use in the classroom (e.g. meaning; instructions). Both favorably regarded using music/song (Brewster et al. 2002) to : 1) restrain chatting in French during manual activities, 2) channel energy for focus on tasks; 3) promote calm; 4) structure tasks for enhancing time efficiency, e.g. setting time-frames through music length.

Their views also provided data triangulation concerning output and comprehension e.g. both indicated output was better on animal names than on clothes names, which corresponded to the results of the language-monitoring. However, their views also diverged e.g. concerning Christmas vocabulary: on a scale of 1-5 the CT felt this was poorly memorised, rating it 3, whereas the assistant rated it 5. This seems to indicate the necessity for formal (summative) language-monitoring for accurately evaluating student progress. The pilot language-monitoring highlighted the difficulties involved in "testing" students formally; designing appropriate "classroom-tests" and "testing" procedures for this age group was one of the objectives of this research study.

5.3.3.3. Post-Intervention Parent Questionnaires

Twenty-four out of 30 were returned: concerning motivation for EFL learning, results were overall positive with 18/24 parents rating 5/5 for their children enjoying the 'story approach' and wanting to learn English. 21/24 parents wrote positive comments highlighting the dynamic classes and the attractiveness of the materials (parents had access to student work). Independently, three parents mentioned verbally that, at the conclusion of the pilot study, their child had a better level of EFL than siblings in second, third and fourth year primary. None of the parents commented on the half-termly vocabulary lists and summaries received throughout the year; neither did any come forward during the year to discuss the research concerning their child, though the possibility was given.

5.3.4. Piloting of Codes for Video Transcript Data

Pilot analysis remained qualitative and inductive (Coolican, 2014). Video recordings were transcribed indicating the timing of utterances (seconds-minutes), and classroom description placed utterances contextually, to enhance validity of interpretation (Cohen, 2011); initials designated students, to preserve anonymity. Approximately ten minutes of two early pilot lessons (lesson 5: 9.54 minutes; lesson 6: 11.52 minutes) were transcribed, and coded

to trial the coding system (appendix 17). The coding system and coded transcripts were reviewed by a third party to ensure inter-rater (Cohen, et al. 2011) and inter-coder reliability (Coolican, 2014).

Analysis of the two extracts seem to highlight the extent of interaction; in lessons five and six out of approximately 21 minutes of transcription, 16 minutes involved interaction despite watching a song clip in lesson six (approximately 3 minutes long). Explanation of meaning and pragmatics feature in both lessons, stimulating interaction (Ellis, 2005; focus on FonF: Long, 2009; Mitchell, 2009). As in FLA, meaning (Yule 2010; Wells 1986) plays a fundamental role in EFL learning; the child begins with one word utterances and progresses to communicating extended meaning by combining two words (Brewster, Ellis and Girard, 2002; Steinberg 1993). The pilot particularly employed mother tongue skills for students to rapidly access meaning given this limited input context. Studies have highlighted the importance of rich input versus extensive poor input (Paradis and Kirova, 2014). However, popular EFL programmes generally reject mother tongue use in favour of explaining meaning through gesture and body language (e.g. Frino, et al. 2014: Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2 page x (10)), and favour repetition as a language learning vehicle. This seems inefficient in limited contexts. In contrast the 'story approach' focus on interaction; while repetition remains important in language learning, interaction is fundamental (Ellis, 2005; Gee, 1994; Long, 2009; Mitchell, 2009).

Conclusion

Interpretation of the pilot results appear to demonstrate the feasibility of 'story approach' data collection instruments and procedures, teaching materials and strategies, for the main study, with minor adjustments as stated, and including: focus on communicative skills development (comprehension and speaking); ongoing language-monitoring; with meaning as a focal point of instruction.

Triangulation of data collection permitted trialling instruments and procedures and verifying results for the longitudinal/cross-sectional studies. Results from the observation study highlighted important points concerning teaching, learning, and monitoring for the year one study, where communicative skills of students from the observation class (general approach) could be compared to those of the students coming from the intervention class ('story approach').

Results and analysis of the pilot intervention appear to give weight to designing 'story approach' EFL programmes promoting skills for rapidly developing communicative competence. Language learning and communication seem to be problem solving activities where the participants need to recall the appropriate language items in order to comprehend or convey a message. For YLs, this involves developing "higher levels" (Fisher, 2005, p. 4) of thinking skills, where language items could be learned for their pertinence and used as tools within communication, making EFL instruction a creative activity. This seems to require careful selection of language items and the development of "metacognitive control" (Fisher, 2005, p. 4), which can equip students to be creative in EFL language learning and enhance the development of productive skills. The pilot study seems to demonstrate that this can be possible through carefully designed instruction. The 'story approach' ELLP developed through the theoretical framework, appears to contrast with the passivity of many current commercial programmes (Chapter 3), where language is learned through themes, categories, and repeating set items, distancing the learner from the reality of language learning as demonstrated through FLA.

Interestingly, teacher and parent characteristics were similar throughout the school (chapter four section 4.2), yet results from the pilot intervention and pilot observation studies contrasted. This may be due to the efficiency of the 'story approach' teaching strategies, activities, and materials compared to those of the general approach. However, parent and teacher characteristics are examined in the three intervention years to further understand their potential impact on the 'story approach' intervention. Indeed, parent's engagement

may be stimulated by the research study, which may impact the student's motivation, over and above the 'story approach' intervention.

6. First Year Primary Study 2013-2014

This chapter includes the following four sections: 1) the participants, data collection instruments and procedures; 2) quantitative analysis results; 3) qualitative analysis results; 4) discussion of quantitative and qualitative data results. Concerning analysis and results, the unbiased nature of the present study has been ensured through inter-rater reliability (Cohen, Manion and Morison, 2011); inter-rater quantitative and qualitative data analysis and results are reported in sections 2 and 3 respectively.

Year one primary permitted investigating the research aims and questions (chapter one) through: 1) gathering data concerning students coming from a generalised approach to EFL learning and never having been exposed to the 'story approach'; 2) quantitatively and qualitatively evaluating the cumulative effect of the 'story' approach over an academic year; 3) aiming to qualitatively validate the theoretical framework, and trial the 'story approach' with first year primary students never having had EFL instruction through this intervention.

6.1. Participants, Instruments and Procedures

This first year intervention study adopted a purposive sampling method (Cohen et al. 2011). The target population involved a primary school class in France of 23 students (twelve girls and eleven boys), including the seven case study group (CSG) students; the mean age was 74.13 months. Purposive sampling involves the selection of specific types within the population (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Consequently, two students encountering

English at home were excluded, reducing the sample to 21. Rich data was gathered from this context where students have very limited target language input due to restricted EFL instruction and little target language contact outside school.

The sample was selected to "represent, as closely as possible, a broader group" (Teddlie and Tashakkori., 2009, p. 174) so as to possibly be comparable to students sharing a similar EFL learning context.

Quantitative and qualitative data was gathered from 21 students. Details of the data collection instruments and procedures can be found in chapter four. For procedures for the video recording coded transcripts see chapter four, section 4.5 and chapter five, section 5.2.5.

6.2. Quantitative Data Analysis and Results

Descriptive and inferential analyses were conducted on four lessons at the start (lessons 7, 8, 9, 10) and end (lessons 28, 29, 30, 31) of the academic year. The coded transcripts (section 6.3.1 code descriptions) permitted measuring student progress in oral communicative language skills. The lessons were divided into five minute spans and the number of responses per span in each code were counted and aggregated into pre and post scores. The full data set of 18 spans of five minute intervals (90 minutes) includes lessons lasting between 65 minutes (shortest lesson) and 90 minutes (longest lesson); the shorter lessons being those at the start of the academic year. As lessons were not systematically of the same length, analyses were conducted on the full data set of 18 five minute spans, and also on a restricted data set of 11 five minute spans in order to compare each lesson equally. The restricted data set of 11 spans (55 minutes) includes a time frame starting at 5 minutes into the lesson and finishing at 60 minutes.

Concerning descriptive statistics, the mean number of occurrences for production of language at the start and end of the intervention were calculated for each code. Frequency values have been presented in Tables 6.4 and 6.6;

these permit describing results and representing the skewness of the data. Measures of association involved correlational analysis to investigate the relationship between the focus on meaning and the production of creative language.

In order to further investigate the type of progress students might be making in EFL production, inferential analysis was conducted. However, results merely indicate a possible sense of direction, and are to be considered with utmost caution, given the small sample size. Inferential statistical analysis involved measures of difference through hypothesis testing; due to the small sample size, Wilcoxon signed rank tests for paired samples, the same group at two different points in time, were conducted. The effect size was calculated.

6.2.1. Description of Codes used for Quantitative Analysis

The transcript codes were counted for quantitative analysis (description: Tables 6.1-6.2). The codes REI and STEI-S were counted and composite score results of pre-lessons (early academic year) and post-lessons (end academic year) were analysed to investigate the extent of progress in English language production over an academic year. Not all responses were counted; in order to distinguish between language which was truly authentic and language which students may have been copying rather than recalling, particular criteria were applied concerning recall.

According to Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968), the short-term memory is the individual's working memory (WM) where auditory-verbal-linguistic (a-v-l) input is momentarily stored. The rate of decay of this information in the WM is dependent on rehearsal and the amount of interference preventing rehearsal and "evidence suggests that information represented in the a-v-l mode decays and is lost within a period of about 15-30 seconds" (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968, p. 92). Consequently, concerning codes REI and STEI-S a gap of 30 seconds was kept between two same individual responses by students, as it could be considered that though the first child's response was genuine, the second child may be copying the first; i.e. the second child's response was

only counted if said 30 seconds after the last same response by another child. This 30 seconds gap was reduced to an 18 seconds gap (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968) depending on the quantity of interference (e.g. other language, noise, and interruptions) between two same responses, with a minimum gap of ten seconds if substantial interference had occurred. "It seems that forgetting occurs when the extent of interference associated with distracting material is enhanced" (Lewandowsky, Oberauer, and Brown, 2009, p. 124). Therefore, for example, for the code REI, (Individual responses in English to a direct question asked in English), the response should be correct, or comprehensibly correct e.g. Q: "how are you today?" R: "Happy". If another student gives the same response immediately after, this could be considered copying. Consequently, if the response is a one word answer (e.g. happy) a 30 second gap has been kept between two same responses, when counting responses for quantitative analysis; a 10 to 18 seconds gap is kept between two same responses if the answer is a phrase or if other language, English or French, has come to interfere (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1971; Lewandowsky, et al. 2009) between the two same responses e.g. unrelated language spoken by another student. However, if a student repeats his own language this could be considered an indication of the child's confidence in his language ability and has therefore been counted for quantitative analysis.

Table 6.1 describes the codes REI and STEI-S. REI and STEI-S share the following criteria: the utterance/response/answer should be correct, or comprehensibly correct.

Table 6.1.

Definition of Codes REI and STEI-S

Code	Description
REI	Individual responses in English to a direct question asked in English. The answer should be <u>correct, or comprehensibly correct</u> e.g. Q: "What colour is this" R: "Red"
STEI-S	Spontaneous, creative language not prompted by a direct question in English i.e. all English language other than REI. The utterance/answer should be <u>correct, or comprehensibly correct</u> e.g. Q: "... qu'est ce qui se passe dans la nuit? "(… what happens at night?) R: "… nightmare!".

Table 6.2 describes the codes WR-I, WR-G, FS-I, FS-G, CGS-I, CGS-G, SCS-I, SCS-G, Meaning-Teacher, Meaning-Student-I, Meaning Student-G. In a code, the letter I designates an individual student response, and G designates a group response. These 11 codes were analysed to investigate the extent of progress in English language production over an academic year in these particular domains. The criteria applied to these codes are described in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2.

Definition of Codes WR, FS, CGS, SCS, and Meaning

Code	Description
WR-I	One Word Responses in English by individual students i.e. every word in English that makes sense, and is comprehensible even if it is the wrong answer to a question. <u>Exclude</u>: same criteria as for code CGS-I (below).
WR-G	Same as for WR-I, but for a group (G) of students.
FS-I	Formulaic Speech in English produced by individual students. Formulaic speech is phrases learned as chunks and includes poem, rhyme, and song lyrics but without

	music e.g. "Big bad wolf" as the child could potentially be supported by the melody; music also creates interference for word comprehension in data collection.
FS-G	Same as FS-I, but for a group of students.
CGS-I	Complex Grammatical Structures produced by individual student. This includes short phrases composed of two words or more, e.g. "Three rabbits" (lesson 29) Every comprehensible phrase or sentence is counted, even if a wrong answer, and includes a student repeating his own language. This code excludes: counting in sequence, and singing and reciting poem and rhyme (considered formulaic speech); repetition exercises where one student repeats after another, or activities where the EFL teacher asks students to repeat language.
CGS-G	Same as CGS-I, but for a group of students.
SCS-I	Student Code-Switching (English-French). This is defined as the alternation of two or more languages in the same phrase e.g. "... et après je connais (... *and I also know*), mouse" (lesson 31).
SCS-G	Same as SCS-I, but for a group of students.
Meaning-Teacher	Explicit reference to meaning by the EFL teacher, through using words, or words and gestures. Includes the direct translation of words or phrases (English-French or French-English), and the explicit reference to transparent words (words which are the same in English and French) by the EFL teacher. Excludes counting activities and student speech produced as a result of the EFL teacher asking, "what is this?" These constitute vocabulary testing not meaning made explicit. Also excludes repetition of language as this is a memorisation activity. Also excludes instructions in French (mother tongue).
Meaning-student-I	Explicit reference to meaning by individual students, through using words, or words and gestures. Same criteria as Meaning-Teacher.
Meaning-student-G	Same as Meaning-Student-I, but for a group of students.

Different criteria to that applied to the codes REI and STEI-S permitted analysis of these 11 specific language domains. The codes in Table 6.2 privileged breaking language production down into specific components for analysis. Language was analysed differently to codes in Table 6.1, and permitted, for example, distinguishing language learned in chunks (FS:

formulaic speech), from creative language composed by the student (CGS). The criteria applied to codes REI and STEI-S concerning students copying each other and leaving a time gap between two same responses, was not systematically applied to codes WR-I and CGS-I; criteria concerning repetition of utterances was dependent on the context of the utterance and activity in question. For example, concerning code CGS-I, (lesson 28), the researcher points to different realia asking, "what is this?" Two students reply "hen and chicks"; given the context and activity both responses are counted, though less than ten seconds apart. Lesson seven exemplifies code WR-I where the students repeat language (e.g. lesson 7: 'wolf' 44.55-45.27 minutes); these ten utterances were not counted.

6.2.2. Descriptive Statistics

The transcript codes REI and STEI-S permitted quantifying, student responses to direct questions, and the production of spontaneous creative language. The specific criteria for applying these codes (Table 6.1) permitted a conservative view on the progress students made as not all responses and language were systematically counted; language that was considered 'copying' or repeating was not included. The results from the four lessons at the start and at the end of the year were compared for 21 students (n=21). Table 6.3, reports mean (M) results (the average number of occurrences recorded) for the full and restricted data sets. For the REI code (replying direct questions) pre and post tests, the mean results for the 21 students for the full data set of 18 five minute spans and the restricted data set of 11 five minute spans were similar; results show little difference in output at the end of the year compared to the start. However, the difference between the STEI-S code (production of creative language i.e. all language which is not REI) pre and post-tests mean were substantial for the full and the restricted data sets.

Table 6.3.
M and SD Values for Codes REI and STEI-S for Full and Restricted Data Sets

Number of 5mn spans	n	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
		REI Pre-test		REI Post-test		STEI-S Pre-test		STEI-S Post-test	
18: full data set	21	13.07	9.75	14.12	11.96	1.92	4.38	18.56	9.77
11: restricted data set	21	12.18	9.60	11.18	11.92	2.27	4.71	18.72	10.69

Table 6.4 indicates the aggregated frequency of responses per 5 minute span at the start and at the end of the academic year for the full data set. There are only 13, five minute spans (65 minutes) for the full data set, for pre-lessons, as lessons at the start of the year were on average shorter than at the end. Over the year, as the students became more proficient, the CT volunteered an extension of 20-25 minutes resulting in lessons 90 minutes long (18 five minute spans).

Table 6.4.

Frequency of Occurrence for Codes REI and STEI-S per 5 minute span for the Full Data Set for Pre and Post-tests

Full data set of 18 five minute spans	Number of minutes into the lesson	Aggregated frequency of responses for lessons 7, 8, 9, and 10		Aggregated frequency of responses for lessons 28, 29, 30, and 31	
		Pre-test		Post-test	
		REI	STEI-S	REI	STEI-S
1	5	9	0	26	30
2	10	3	0	26	25
3	15	9	15	35	38
4	20	8	0	11	29
5	25	8	7	3	18
6	30	35	0	0	12
7	35	25	2	20	6
8	40	13	0	13	13
9	45	10	1	14	23
10	50	8	0	1	23
11	55	3	0	0	19
12	60	12	0	0	0
13	65	27	0	13	11
14	70			25	9
15	75			7	21
16	80			32	20
17	85			3[a]	8[b]
18	90			1[a]	0[a]

Note. [a] lesson 30 only; [b] lessons 28 and 30 only

Table 6.4 permits viewing at which time during the lessons extensive English language production took place in codes REI and STEI-S compared to little or no production. For the pre-tests, Table 6.4 indicates a concentration of responses for REI between 25 and 45 minutes into the lesson and again a

surge in the last 10 minutes; for STEI-S, there is little production apart from 5 minutes between 10-15 minutes into the lesson. For the REI post-test there are three bursts of production; these occur in the first 20 minutes of the lesson, in the middle of the lesson (between 30-45 minutes into the lesson) and 20 minutes towards the end of the lesson (between 60-80 minutes into the lesson) with oral production tapering off in the last 10 minutes. For the STEI-S post-test, production occurs regularly throughout the post lessons, with two main 5 minute dips between 55-60 minutes and in the last 5 minutes of the lesson. Table 6.4 shows little regularity in the frequency of language production when comparing the four pre and post-tests for the codes REI and STEI-S. It can be assumed, that in an EFL classroom, teaching strategies (materials and activities) would be essential for encouraging oral production in the target language. Based on the hypothesis that all conversation is built upon questions and responses, the question form represented a fundamental teaching strategy within the 'story approach', for the development of EFL oral communicative skills throughout the intervention. In section 6.3 (Qualitative Data Analysis and Results) the frequencies indicated in Tables 6.4 and 6.6 will permit qualitative analysis of language production. This has been examined in relation to teaching strategies (materials and activities) used during the lessons and specifically which of these actually provided for oral interaction and gave rise to extensive oral production.

The criteria applied for the codes in Table 6.2, permitted a less conservative view on results compared to that for the REI and STEI-S codes, as all language was encompassed by one of the codes (section 6.2.1).

The mean values for the 11 codes in Table 6.2 (the average number of occurrences recorded for each code) were calculated for the full data set (18 five minute spans) for 21 students (n=21). The standard deviation values for individual and group student utterances were also calculated for comparison with the mean; however, the mean values for the group responses were very low, and for certain codes the values were zero (.00) e.g. there were zero results for the code SCS-G (group code-switching). Results are reported in Table 6.5. Codes CGS-I, Meaning-Teacher, and Meaning-Student-Individual, demonstrated particular relevance. These results and the relevance of

individual responses versus group responses have been highlighted in the discussion in section 6.4.

Table 6.5.
M and SD Values for Codes WR, FS, CGS, SCS, and Meaning, for Full Data Set pre and post-tests

Codes	M pre-test	SD	M post-test	SD
WR-I: one word utterances from individuals	15.30	13.67	17.11	8.71
WR-G: one word utterances from a group of students	5.30	8.42	3.52	4.63
FS-I: Formulaic speech from individual students	5.69	10.46	5.94	8.08
FS-G: Formulaic speech from a group of students	2.38	3.27	.58	.93
CGS-I: phrases of 2 words or more by individuals	.46	.66	12.29	10.43
CGS-G: phrases of 2 words or more by a group	.00	.00	.23	.43
SCS-I: individual students code-switching	.00	.00	.35	.78
SCS-G: a group of students code-switching	.00	.00	.00	.00
Meaning-Teacher: EFL teacher making meaning explicit	18.38	8.34	36.00	15.33
Meaning-Student-Individual: individual student making meaning explicit	7.46	6.71	16.29	10.79
Meaning-Student-Group a group of students making meaning explicit	1.07	1.60	2.47	2.57

The mean values in Table 6.5 highlight a number of points. The mean number of occurrences for one word utterances from individual students (WR-I) did not increase between the pre and post-tests, and group one word utterances (WR-G) actually regressed. Compared to one word utterances, formulaic speech for individual students (FS-I) remained at a low constant between pre and post tests. These points have been discussed in section 6.4.

Similarly, to one word utterances produced by a group of students, the mean value for group formulaic speech production (FS-G) regressed between pre and post-tests. However, the mean value of occurrences of production of phrases of two words or more (CGS-I: complex grammatical structures) for individual students increased significantly between pre-tests and post-tests whereas the mean value for phrases produced by a group of students (CGS-G) remained quasi-absent throughout the year. These important findings will be discussed in section 4 together with the qualitative data results. The mean values in Table 6.5 indicate that student code-switching (SCS-I and SCS-G) was practically non-existent; this will be discussed in section 4 in relation to the intervention teaching strategies, linked to meaning. Making meaning salient and explicit through words (native language use) gesture and materials formed an integral part of the 'story approach'. Table 6.5 indicates that the mean value for the three codes pertaining to Meaning at least doubled between pre and post-tests, with the highest means being in the Meaning-Teacher category. The significance of these quantitative results in relation to qualitative data results (section 6.3) and the 'story approach' will be discussed in section 6.4.

Table 6.6 indicates the aggregated frequency of occurrences for the code CGS-I and CGS-G (phrases of two words or more produced by individual students and a group of students) per five minute span at the start and at the end of the academic year for the full data set. Lessons at the start of the year (13 five minute spans) were shorter that those at the end (18 five minute spans). Table 6.6 demonstrates the progress students made over the year in their creative oral language skills and their capacity for producing phrases of two words or more. In the post-test results the aggregated frequencies demonstrate a constant flow of production throughout the lesson with ten

minute dips between 20-30 minutes into the lesson and again between 50-60 minutes into the lesson. In section 6.3 this frequency table will be examined in relation to teaching strategies (materials and activities) and qualitative analysis will enable demonstrating the creativeness of this language and differentiating it from formulaic speech. Inversely, Table 6.6 clearly demonstrates that as a group the students did not produce phrases during the year, except for four isolated occurrences in the post-test, and progress solely concerns individual utterances. In the discussion in section 4 these results permit highlighting the issue that what is often termed in the literature as progress in EFL language development seems in fact 'false' progress as competence in producing single words and formulaic speech does not necessarily permit the development of oral communicative skills.

Table 6.6.

Aggregated Frequency of Occurrences for Codes CGS-I and CGS-G per 5 minute span for the Full Data Set in Pre and Post-tests

Full data set of 18 five minute spans	Number of minutes into the lesson	Aggregated frequency of occurrences in lessons 7, 8, 9, 10		Aggregated frequency of occurrences in lessons 28, 29, 30, 31	
		Pre-test		Post-test	
		CGS-I	CGS-G	CGS-I	CGS-G
1	5	.00	.00	25.00	.00
2	10	.00	.00	25.00	.00
3	15	.00	.00	31.00	.00
4	20	1.00	.00	25.00	1.00
5	25	.00	.00	6.00	.00
6	30	.00	.00	.00	.00
7	35	.00	.00	9.00	1.00
8	40	.00	.00	12.00	.00
9	45	2.00	.00	9.00	.00
10	50	1.00	.00	3.00	.00
11	55	.00	.00	1.00	.00
12	60	1.00	.00	.00	.00
13	65	1.00	.00	3.00	.00
14	70			11.00	.00
15	75			5.00	.00
16	80			23.00	1.00
17	85			21.00	1.00
18	90			3.00 [a]	.00 [a]

Note. [a] lesson 30 only

6.2.3. Inferential and Correlational Statistical Analyses

6.2.3.1. Inferential Analyses and Results

Wilcoxon signed rank tests, for related (paired) samples, were conducted using SPSS 26 on the restricted data set (11 five minute spans), to avoid missing data. In this intervention, the Wilcoxon signed rank tests permitted examining results from the same sample of 11 five minute spans (n=11) for the pre-tests and the post-tests for the codes, REI, STEI-S, WR-I, FS-I, CGS-I, SCS-I, Meaning-teacher, and Meaning-Student-I. Though utmost attention was given to transcription of student language and meticulously isolating individual student utterances, this testing was not conducted in isolated laboratory style due to the nature of the research. Therefore, results could be subject to speculation. It is to be emphasised that these statistical results are merely indicative of a direction, and are to be interpreted with great caution. Results are reported in Table 6.7. Due to multiple analysis being conducted, a Bonferroni correction was performed. Effect size was calculated to provide confidence in the p value particularly due to the small sample size (Cohen, et al. 2011). Table 6.7 reports results for the Wilcoxon tests.

The Bonferroni correction of 0.05 divided by eight (the number of codes analysed simultaneously), provided a new alfa level of p=0.0062. In relation to the new alfa level, results reported in Table 6.7 indicate that the median post-test ranks were statistically significantly higher than the median pre-test ranks for the code STEI-S; results for codes CGS-I and Meaning-Teacher, and Meaning-Student-I demonstrate no statistically significant increase between pre and post-tests, regarding the Bonferroni corrected significance level. In contrast to these, results for the codes REI (individual student responses to direct questions in English), WR-I (individual student one word answers), FS-I (formulaic speech), and SCS (Student code switching) demonstrate absolutely no statistical significance, with or without the Bonferroni correction, and a weak effect size.

Table 6.7.

Inferential Statistical Results for the Restricted Data Set of 11, five minute spans

n=11	Code	Median	Z Pre-Post	Sig. (2-tailed) P value	Effect size r
Pre-test -Post-test	REI	9.000 11.000	-.612	.540	-0.130
Pre-test -Post-test	STEI-S	.000 19.000	-2.805	.005	-0.598
Pre-test -Post-test	WR-I	10.000 17.000	-.490	.624	-0.104
Pre-test -Post-test	FS-I	1.000 3.000	-.564	.573	-0.120
Pre-test -Post-test	CGS-I	.000 9.000	-2.652	.008	-0.565
Pre-test -Post-test	SCS-I	.000 .000	-1.732	.083	-0.369
Pre-test -Post-test	Meaning-Teacher	16.000 28.000	-2.402	.016	-0.512
Pre-test -Post-test	Meaning-Student-I	6.000 12.000	-2.142	.032	-0.456

The importance of these results is strictly minimal given the small sample size and the nature of the data collection. However, they possibly permit insight in the light of the qualitative results, with regard to EFL teaching and learning, and will be discussed in section 4 in relation to the literature review and the 'story approach'.

6.2.3.2. Correlational Analyses and Results

Correlation analysis was conducted on the pre and post-test composite scores for the codes Meaning-Teacher (M-T) and REI, STEI-S, WR-I, FS-I, and CGS-I. These measures of association were conducted on the full data set of 18 five minute spans (n=18) in SPSS 26, using the Kendall tau-b test. The test results concerning the correlation coefficients have been reported in Table 6.8. Table 6.8 also reports the statistical significance of these relationships; results indicate a 2-tailed significance level (non-directional hypothesis) (Cohen et al. 2011; Greasley, 2008), between the variables Meaning-Teacher (M-T) and the codes REI, STEI-S, WR-I, FS-I, and CGS-I.

The results in Table 6.8 (as for results in Table 6.7) are to be interpreted with great caution due to the limitations of this experimental research, as previously underlined. Despite meticulously isolating individual student language within the transcripts, the testing was conducted with all the students together in the classroom, and not each student individually in absolute isolation. Results, however, possibly provide a sense of direction, enable supporting qualitative analysis results, and could permit envisaging further experimental investigation and research concerning these relationships.

Table 6.8.
Kendall tau-b and significance values for full data set of 18 five minute spans

n=18	Code	Kendall tau-b	Sig. (2-tailed) P value
Pre-test	REI and M-T	-.453	.036
Post-test	REI and M-T	.609	.001
Pre-test	STEI-S and M-T	-.299	.200
Post-test	STEI-S and M-T	.565	.002
Pre-test	WR-I and M-T	-.379	.075
Post-test	WR-I and M-T	.519	.004
Pre-test	FS-I and M-T	-.057	.796
Post-test	FS-I and M-T	.186	.316
Pre-test	CGS-I and M-T	-.017	.943
Post-test	CGS-I and M-T	.707	.000

Table 6.8 indicates that none of the pre-test measures were significantly correlated. However, a statistically significant positive correlation was found between M-T and WR-I post-test possibly indicating a relationship between one word answers from individual students and meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher. Post-test M-T demonstrated a positive correlation with post-test REI indicating a possible relationship between meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher and individual responses by students to direct questions in English. Post-test results for M-T and STEI-S demonstrated a positive

correlation between the two variables indicating a possible relationship between meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher and spontaneous English language produced by individual students. Post-test correlation results for the production of phrases of two words or more by individual students (CGS-I) and meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher (M-T) were also significant and possibly indicated a positive relationship between the two variables. Conversely, for the code FS-I (formulaic speech produced by individual students), neither pre-test nor post-test results demonstrated a significant correlation with M-T (meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher). These results present interesting findings (discussion in section 4).

Despite conducting a Bonferroni correction, and reducing the alfa level to p=.01, the p value results remained significant. However, it must be emphasised that in order to provide confidence in these results, conducting this analysis on larger sample sizes (Greasley, 2008) would be noteworthy. It is underlined that these results merely present a sense of direction for interesting findings in relation to the qualitative analysis (discussion in section 4).

6.2.4. Inter-Rater Procedures, Results, and Analysis and Discussion

This section reports the inter-rater procedures, analysis, and results of the quantitative data. In the interests of validity and reliability, transcripts of the video recorded data were independently coded by four different raters. In the same perspective as quantitative analysis in preceding sections of this chapter, results are to be interpreted with caution and are merely proposed as providing a sense of possible direction in relation to the qualitative analysis. Correlation analysis was conducted in SPSS 26, using the Kendall tau-b test, to determine the degree of association between the researcher's results and the independent raters' results. Due to multiple comparisons involving three raters, a Bonferroni correction was conducted, bringing the alfa level down to p=0.01.

Inter-rater coding particularly focused on the codes REI, STEI-S, WR-I and CGS. This analysis permitted further investigation of codes STEI-S

(spontaneous individual language) and CGS-I (complex grammatical structures: individual student phrases of two words or more) compared to REI (utterances prompted by a direct question in English), and WR-I (one word answers by individuals). Group utterances were excluded as the focus was on individual student oral communicative language competence.

6.2.4.1. Procedures

Appendix 20 describes the coding criteria applied to transcripts for inter-rater coding reliability, the same developed, trialled and used for data analysis by the researcher.

For codes REI and STEI-S, two independent raters (raters 1 and 2) each coded a transcript of pre and post-lessons 9 and 28. For codes WR-I and CGS-I, two different independent raters (raters 3 and 4) each coded a transcript of pre and post lessons 7 and 29; each rater coded independently.

6.2.4.2. Correlation Results

All results are reported taking into consideration the new alfa level of 0.01. For the code REI, all results demonstrated a statistically significant correlation between all coders. Pre-tests results are reported as follows: researcher and rater 1 rt=.851, p=0.00; researcher and rater 2 rt=.764, p=0.001; rater 1 and rater 2 rt=.814, p=0.00. For post-test results, researcher and rater 1 rt=.921, p=0.00; researcher and rater 2 rt=.602, p=0.002; rater 1 and rater 2 rt=.637, p=0.001. As these results demonstrated satisfactory correlation (Cohen et al. 2011, p. 200), no further correlation analysis was conducted (Cohen et al. 2011, p. 200) on code REI. However, the transcripts were re-examined and the minor discrepancy was found in a very few omissions in rater 2 counting the number of instances of REI code. Indeed, careful counting of codes was imperative.

For code STEI-S correlation results were weak or negative; none were statistically significant. The following results were noted: for pre-tests, researcher and rater 1 rt=.225; researcher and rater 2, rt=-.234; rater 1 and

rater 2 rt=-.083. For post-tests: researcher and rater 1 rt=.148; researcher and rater 2 rt=.088; rater 1 and rater 2 rt=.489. In view of highlighting causes of divergence in results, pre and post Wilcoxon tests were carried out for raters 1 and 2 (lessons 9 and 28) concerning code STEI-S. These results demonstrated no significance levels for any of the paired-samples Wilcoxon tests.

In order to get a deeper understanding of the lack of correlation and contradiction in test results between the researcher and raters 1 and 2, for code STEI-S, rater 2 coded a second pre-lesson and post-lesson (lessons 7 and 31). Correlation results between rater 2 and the researcher's pre and post-tests for lessons 7 and 31 and Wilcoxon test results, are reported as follows: correlations for lesson 7 rt=1.000, p=.000; for lesson 31 rt=.862, p=.000. These results contrast sharply with the weak and even negative results of pre and post-lesson 9 and 28 for coders RE (researcher), HA (rater 1) and LO (rater 2). Inferential analysis for pre and post-lessons 7 and 31 for rater 2 and the researcher also demonstrated significant results: For these 2 lessons results for the researcher demonstrated significance as being p=.002, and for rater 2, p=.002.

These contrasting results could be interpreted as follows. Coding results for STEI-S appear to carry greater subjectivity in interpretation than for code REI. These divergences appear to highlight the difficulties involved in deciding to what extent spontaneous language is prompted by an interlocutor or initiated by the EFL learner. It seems that STEI-S coding requires careful consideration; results for inter-rater coding require being viewed through aggregated scores of several lessons to give an overall view, rather than through individual lessons. This is illustrated by the contrast between the strong correlation results and significant inferential statistical results for code STEI-S concerning researcher and rater 2 data sets for pre and post-lessons 7 and 31, compared with the weak and even negative results for the same tests conducted on lessons 9 and 28.

Accurate STEI-S inter-rater analysis seems to require carefully reading the text; scrupulously respecting the coding criteria; carefully analysing the context in which the interaction is occurring to identify the output (i.e.

repeating, copying, genuinely replying a question, or producing spontaneous language). Classroom context, activities, and materials, to determine the type of language spoken were provided on the transcripts.

For code WR-I, both pre and post tests demonstrated statistically significant results for all coders. Pre-test results were noted as follows: researcher and rater 3, rt=.800, p=0.00; researcher and rater 4, rt=.900, p=0.00; rater 3 and rater 4, rt=.886, p=0.00. Post-test results indicated the following: researcher and rater 3, rt=.893, p=0.00; researcher and rater 4, rt=.879, p=0.00; rater 3 and rater 4, rt=.936, p=0.00. These results appear to demonstrate reliability in the application of the coding criteria for WR-I.

For code CGS-I, statistically significant results were found for post-tests; however, pre-tests were impossible to conduct as no instances of code CGS-I were found by any of the raters in the pre-lesson. Post-test results are reported as follows: for researcher and rater 3, rt=.915, p=0.00, for researcher and rater 4, rt=.892, p=0.00; for rater 3 and rater 4, rt=.987, p=0.00. These results appear to demonstrate reliability in the application of the coding criteria for CGS-I.

Correlation analysis results for pre and post-test REI, appear to demonstrate reliability in the use of the criteria established for the coding. There were few divergences, and inter-rater correlation results were statistically significant for code REI.

The challenges involved in assessing oral language require meticulousness from coders for accurate results. This first year study attempted to break language down into its various components to determine its source and therefore its efficiency within the EFL student's language progress. Coding analysis has permitted detailed examination of student language, for extracting language, which is genuinely resulting from student's creativity, and assessing the extent of language progress. Concerning code STEI-S, specific training for coders to proficiently apply the criteria for spontaneous language (code STEI-S) could involve code-specific on-line video presentations for applying the criteria, and transcripts with practice exercises and corresponding coding corrections.

6.3. Qualitative Data Analysis and Results

For this first year study, data has been analysed through content analysis. This combines counting the frequency of phenomena and the observation of emergent patterns (Saldana, 2013). Analysis attempts to highlight aspects of the quantitative results (section 6.3) by viewing them from a qualitative perspective. Field notes, lesson plans, student interviews, independent observation notes from the CT, and questionnaires, allow for extensive analysis (Saldana, 2013), and permit interpretation of the quantitative data (Saldana, 2013).

Qualitative data analysis has taken a double deductive-inductive stand. In an attempt to validate the theoretical framework, data has been gathered and analysed to support the hypothesis that personal story is central to EFL learning. However, the analysis has equally remained open to emanating themes (Coolican, 2014). This research study encompasses "three main characteristics" (Saldana, 2013, p. 250):

- prediction and control of events;

- explanation of how and why phenomena occur;

- understanding these for application, with a view to improving EFL oral communicative skills in primary school students.

6.3.1. Pre-Intervention

A pre-intervention qualitative class interview together with individual student testing, permitted determining if the student's self-evaluation of their own EFL knowledge was accurate; out of 21 students, 19 were interviewed (one child absent, and the child with SEN had not yet joined the class). Student's current level of spontaneous spoken language was also investigated, with the caveat however, that YLs are shy and may not necessarily be forthcoming in demonstrating skills. A semi-structured interview format enabled maintaining a casual tone (Coolican, 2013) to encourage students to express themselves

freely. Students were also asked to say anything they wanted in English. The following single words were produced: eight students counted in sequence with the highest number being 12; one student said the number "five" only, and another said "six"; vocabulary consisted of animal names (fish, cat, dog, duck, pig, sheep, horse), colours (pink, blue, purple), and four random words (hello, yes, no, cold). Table 6.9 reports phrases produced:

Table 6.9
Results of class interview concerning production of phrases

Student	Phrases and words including a grammatical structure	English grammatical structures used	French grammatical structures used	Number of English phrases grammatically correct
BE	Stand up; sit down	Verbal phrase: verb+particle		2
TE	A cow; a pig	Article 'a'		2
BN	3 pigs	Plural using final 's' rule		1
HU	Sheeps	Extension of plural final 's' rule		0
NN*	2 sandwich cheese; 4 bread		Transfer of French structure	0

All of the phrases were said by the CSG students, except for student NN* who had English classes outside school (information from parent questionnaire). The CSG had been exposed to the 'story approach' during the pilot study.

These results appear to indicate limited oral production for students having had 45 minute weekly EFL classes in the previous academic year. The grammatically correct phrases were produced by CSG students (BE, TE, BN);

one student (HU), extended an English grammatical rule to an irregular plural noun (sheep), a common strategy in English speaking children learning their mother tongue (literature review chapter 2). Inversely, NN* applied French grammar rules for building phrases in English, placing the adjective (cheese) after the noun (sandwich), and omitting to pronounce the plural final 's' sound on the word bread (though, also grammatically correct as "4 bread") the final 's' being silent in French. Interestingly, transfer of mother tongue grammar rules to FL learning is a common strategy used by EFL YLs (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Paradis, 2011; Selinker, 1972).

Qualitative analysis of the baseline interview appears to demonstrate that students made accurate assessments of their existing knowledge; their evaluation corresponds to results from language monitoring conducted to investigate their current knowledge in specific areas (counting from 0 to 10; colours; animal names). For example, out of 19 students interviewed and tested for counting from zero to ten: of the ten students who believed they could do so, seven were able to count correctly from 1 to 10, two students made only minor mistakes and one student refused to count, possibly out of shyness or to avoid risk taking; of the nine remaining, five said they couldn't count and four were uncertain. When these nine were tested, only one was able to count correctly and of the eight remaining, one student counted incorrectly and the seven others refused to be tested. Interestingly, of the 19 students, none said zero. These results, illustrated in Figures 6.1a, 6.1b, 6.1c, will be discussed in section five in relation to the literature review and current EFL programmes concerning metacognitive and metalinguistic skills development.
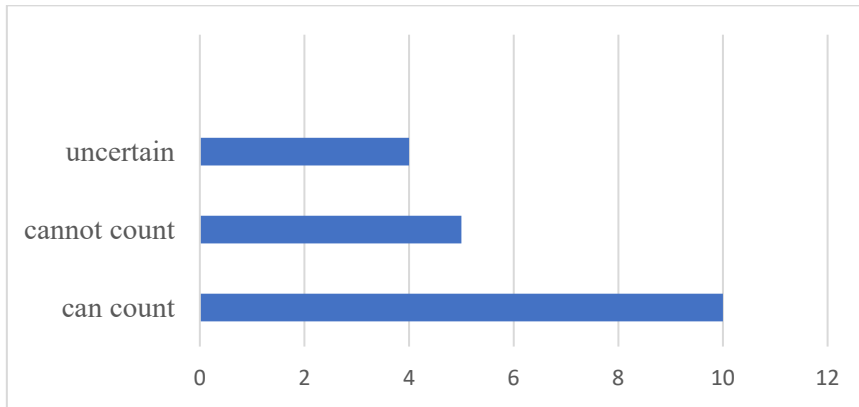
Figure 6.1a. Baseline interview results concerning students' belief of their existing EFL skills in counting 0-10.
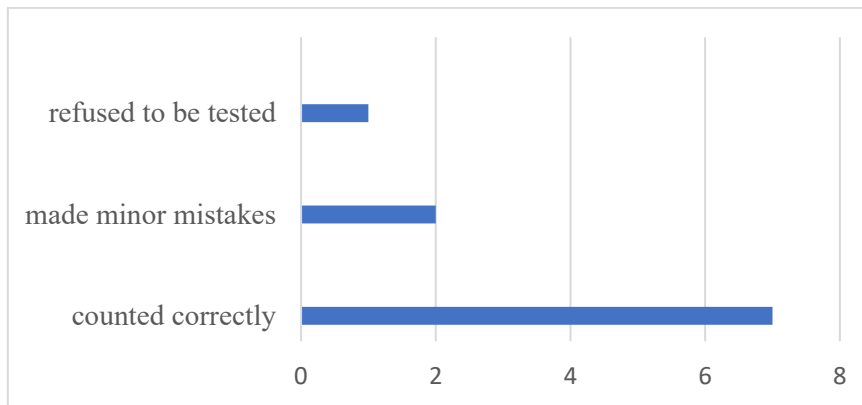
Figure 6.1b. Baseline EFL test results for students believing they can count 0-10.
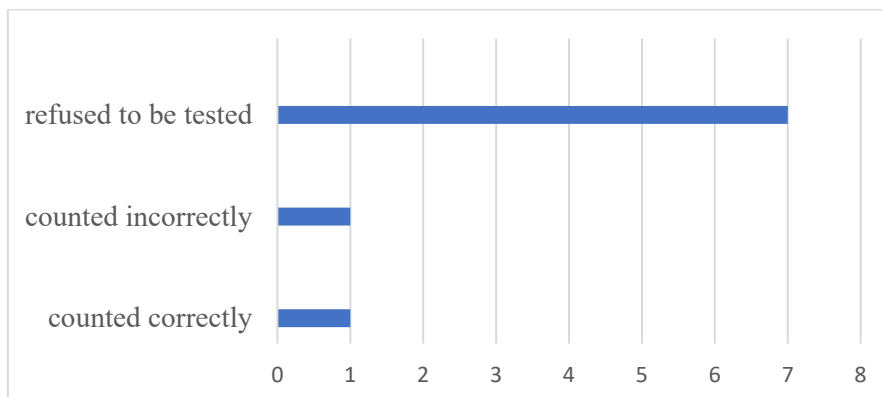
Figure 6.1c. Baseline EFL test results for students disbelieving (uncertain/cannot) in their capacity for counting 0-10.

6.3.2. Qualitative Analysis of the Coded Transcript Data

Qualitative analysis was drawn from the coded video recorded transcript data of the four pre and post 60-90 minute weekly EFL lessons to determine the type and extent of target language produced (research question four). Quantitative results of codes REI and STEI-S relate to interesting qualitative findings. REI refers to student replies in response to direct questions asked in English and is language which has been stimulated and elicited through these questions. STEI-S, conversely, represents language which students have spontaneously produced in a communicative context and therefore expresses creative language (code descriptions: section 6.3.1). The differences in the means of both these codes between pre and post-tests reveal the dramatic increase in STEI-S in post-lessons. Qualitative analysis of the 'story approach' teaching strategies (activities and materials) and lesson (teaching) plans permitted investigating the factors appearing to generate this increase (section: 6.3.3). Alongside, close examination of the transcripts (deductively and inductively) permitted viewing what type of language students produced within the codes REI and STEI-S.

Language coded REI appears to result from a stimulus-response and formulaic speech teaching strategy; students are able to reply to questions as a result of having learned set responses or chunks of language similar to a form of conditioning. Examples of this can be seen in the video recorded transcripts: in lesson 7 students respond with one word answers to the EFL teacher showing wooden numerals and asking the question "what number is this?"; in lesson 8 students respond with one word answers to the EFL teacher pointing to pictures in a book and asking "what colour is this?"; in lesson 9 students reply to the question "where are you?" with the phrase "here I am". The findings of this study concerning the application and place formulaic speech holds within EFL learning and its marked use within current programmes have been discussed in section 4.

Language coded STEI-S is creative language which students are able to produce spontaneously in an interactive communicative context. In the pre-lesson and post-lesson transcripts phrases of two words or more are coded

CGS-I (code descriptions: section 6.3.1). Examples of code STEI-S and code CGS-I feature in lesson 29 where the EFL teacher is reading a storybook and students comment spontaneously on the pictures in English; and in lesson 30 students attempt to ask and reply to questions asked by their peers in an oral interactive activity, demonstrating codes STEI-S, CGS-I, REI, and WR-I:

Student QM: Hi aah you today? (*How are you today?)*: code STEI-S and CGS-I

Student NN: … (student NN hesitates)

Teacher: … How are you today N—(NN)? Il te pose la question. (*He is asking you the question*).

Student NN: … Happy: code REI and WR-I

In lesson 31 students describe cardboard clothes they have cut-out and coloured themselves; student language was particularly creative as each described their own work. They also produced grammatically correct phrases (code CGS-I) including structures like the conjunction "and" (e.g. "pocket and tie"), adjectives with a singular noun, the plural with final "s", (e.g. "blue hat"; "black glasses"; "brown shoes",) and cardinal numbers with a noun and more than one adjective (e.g. "two black shoes"; "orange and green trousers"; "jacket and yellow buttons and blue pocket").

In the quest to achieve grammatically correct language, metacognitive skills (MCS) development formed an integral part of the teaching strategy in the 'story approach' (research question two). Metacognitive skills are defined as having cognizance of the processes involved in learning and being able to consciously use that knowledge appropriately (Fisher, 2005; Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Williams and Burden, 1997). In this study native language served to explain target language structure and meaning (research question three); interestingly, students apparently integrated several English grammar rules (examples above) and were also able to correct themselves (auto-correction) and peers. The following are examples of MCS instruction: in lesson seven the EFL teacher explicitly identifies the question form (Enever, 2011; Mackey, 1999; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Mackey and Silver, 2005)

and the transparent word 'beige', (transparent word being the same word in the foreign language (FL) and mother tongue); in lesson eight the EFL teacher identifies the number of words in the phrase 'please can I collect' and gives the translation/meaning (Ellis, 2005; Mackey and Silver, 2005).

By lessons 28-31 students were able to identify structural mistakes (Ellis, 2005; Nassaji, 2016a), auto-correct, recognise and recall transparent words, and ask and reply to questions (research question four) in teacher-student and peer activities (example above lesson 30), for example: lesson 28: one student starts saying 'egg white' and then corrects this to 'white egg'; the whole class corrects student BS who says 'egg brown'; BE remembers the transparent word beige. At the start of lesson 29, student BT asks the EFL teacher the question "... and did you sleep well?" (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Mackey, 1999).

In the pre-lessons (7, 8, 9, 10), the plural noun with 's' was explained to the students, and in the post-test lessons (28, 29, 30, 31), students were using this structure confidently, for example: lesson 28 student TE says "hen and chicks" and student DM says "five balloons".

However, grammar rules were also regularly reminded implicitly (Ellis, 2005) to maintain the level of knowledge acquired and expand on this, for example, in lesson 29, the EFL teacher congratulates student BN for the correct plural form "rabbits" and repeats the phrase giving the singular "one rabbit" and the plural "two rabbits" while particularly emphasising the final 's' sound; student BE overuses the plural form and says, "birds" instead of "bird"; the EFL teacher encourages student BE to make the grammatical correction of plural 's' but without telling the rule (e.g. interactional feedback, and negative feedback, like recasts: Mackey and Silver, 2005; Oliver and Mackey, 2003). Most effective pedagogy, is when learners receive feedback on their own productions (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000).

Nonetheless, explicit reminders of structure were also necessary (Nassaji 2016b) on a continuing basis and new structure was introduced when the students seemed ready; e.g. in lesson 30, students are explained the use of the verb "be" with the pronoun "I" to say "I am six" in reply to the question "how

old are you?" In lesson 31, student BS says, "blue jacket one" and is explicitly corrected by the EFL teacher, to say "one blue jacket".

Students required encouragement in developing skills e.g. In lesson 30 student KD asks student TE a question, and the teacher encourages student TE to extend her response:

Student KD: How are you today?

Student TE: Happy.

Teacher: You're happy? *C'est tout?* Happy? (That's all? Happy?*).*

Student TE: Happy and ready for work.

Metacognition is also closely linked to the concept of negotiation of meaning ('understanding' e.g. through social interaction: Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Mitchell, 2009; Nassaji 2016b), which YLs are in a process of developing (research question three). According to Fisher, "This growth of metacognitive knowledge is a key factor in the success of learning – in knowing how to plan, predict, remember, and find out" (Fisher, 2005, p. 10). In view of this, in the 'story approach', particular attention was given to the execution of instructions and organising work; YLs were incited to take responsibility and "ownership" (theoretical framework) for their own learning, e.g. in lesson seven, students were encouraged to speak in turn, and to listen to each other for learning or verifying self-knowledge (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008); students were also responsible for correctly filling the pages in their English book, and any mistakes became apparent when asked to open their books at the correct page.

Metalinguistic skills (MLS) also feature importantly in the 'story approach' (research question one) teaching strategies (materials and activities); it is defined as knowing how and when to use language in context and includes pragmatics and pronunciation (Lightbown and Spada, 2013; Nassaji 2016b). MLS were taught explicitly throughout the year, e.g. in lesson eight, the EFL teacher explains that "good morning everyone" refers to the whole class, but they should just respond "good morning" (to her as an individual), and not

also say 'good morning everyone'; in lesson eight, student BT pronounces the transparent word "beige" correctly in English, demonstrating he has remembered the explanation from lesson seven (that the pronunciation differs from French), and the EFL teacher explains to student BoS, who says 'ping' for the word pink, that in English pink has a final 'k' sound.

Concerning pronunciation, the approach entailed designing activities which would naturally generate practice/repetition: e.g. in lesson seven, the EFL teacher incited the rehearsal of the initial 'h' sound (difficult for French speakers) with the question 'where are you?' Students were handed their English book when they replied, "here I am"; in lesson nine students had to comprehend the question and respond "here I am" according to the colour they were holding (more challenging).

The process of developing metacognitive and metalinguistic skills, described above, appears considerably different to the development of formulaic speech (characteristics of FS: Myles, et al. 1999). Contrary to formulaic speech, teaching MCS and MLS and developing student's awareness of structure, is fundamentally attached to meaning (Ellis, 2005). The quantitative results of the correlation analysis of meaning explained by the EFL teacher and spontaneous creative language (codes Meaning-Teacher and STEI-S), and meaning explained by the EFL teacher and structured language (codes Meaning-Teacher and CGS-I) seem to appear to underline this link. In this study, meaning has been conveyed by appropriate use of the mother tongue (Enever, 2011; Mitchell, 2009) for metacognitive and metalinguistic instruction particularly under three different conditions (illustrated in Figure 6.2):

1) by making meaning salient (Ellis, 2005; Mackey and Silver, 2005; Oliver and Mackey, 2003) through direct translations and explanations (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar);

2) by eliciting and questioning (Mackey and Silver, 2005) (provoking target language out-put and asking students to give meaning in English or French);

3) by confirming and giving feedback, involving praising, encouraging, or by re-adjusting or rectifying responses, through recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, and explicit error correction (Oliver and Mackey, 2003).
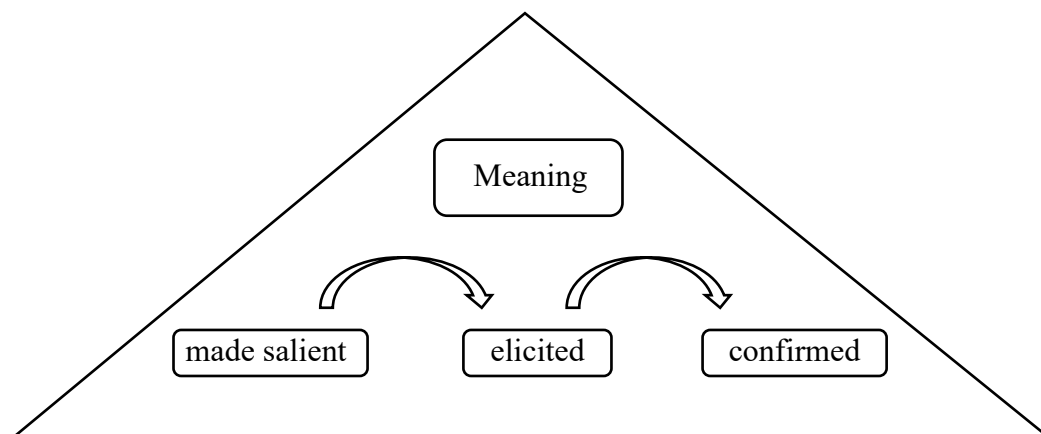
Figure 6.2. Meaning: three step teaching pattern for MCS and MLS development, in EFL, YLs, with limited target language contact and instruction time.

Students were given explicit explanations, generally in their mother tongue, concerning structure, vocabulary, pronunciation, and use of language in context, (examples above). Images and gestures often prove insufficient means for conveying meaning but also for verifying meaning, e.g. lesson 29, without mother tongue use, a student could have left the classroom thinking the word 'door' means rabbit. In effect, storybook pictures cannot convey the meaning of each word, e.g. 'cosiest' and 'kindest' in lesson 29 where students required a native language explanation. Students also make meaning salient for themselves (native language within EFL instruction: Mitchell, 2009) , e.g. lesson 29 a student confirms the word glasses in English, "*en anglais on dit* glasses", and the group of students confirm the meaning of the text from the story read by the EFL teacher, "I'm the smartest giant in town" with the French translation, "*Je suis le plus beau géant en ville*".

6.3.3. Content Analysis of 'story approach' Teaching Activities

This section reports the analysis and results of the video recorded data, in conjunction with lesson (teaching) plans, through a frequency counting content analysis approach (Saldana, 2013). This is complemented by a holistic view and an 'interpretive lens guided by intuitive inquiry and strategic questions" (Saldana, 2013, p. 52). However, the type of student participation in teaching activities enables evaluating to a certain degree student engagement with the instructional setting and assessing the extent of interaction (research question five). Consequently, content analysis permits viewing learner participation and classroom interaction; it gives insight to the interactive nature (Ellis, 2005; Mitchell, 2009; Nassaji 2016b) of the activities proposed through a 'story approach' in this year one study, of which the effectiveness in EFL learning has been measured quantitatively and reported in section 6.2. Despite the small sample size, and tentative confidence in these quantitative results, it is noteworthy to understand to what extent results are reflected in the qualitative analysis.

6.3.3.1. Activities Generating Interaction

Analysis involved two pre and post-lessons (7, 8; 28, 31) demonstrating student participation (n=23) in the 'story approach' teaching activities and are representative of the 36 intervention lessons. Teaching activities are matched with the type of student participation and the number of oral exchanges in English and French for these two pre and post-lessons. In section 6.2. data included 21 students (two excluded due to English at home) and concerned production of target language only. Analysis here, includes all 23 students as the focus is the amount of oral participation (number of exchanges per teaching/student activity) generated by the different activities. The lessons were divided into teaching-sequences. The number of individual and group exchanges within each teaching-sequence were identified through the recording transcripts, and counted. Analysis of these exchanges included:

- student response in English to teaching activities (involving metacognitive and metalinguistic instruction);

- instances where the EFL teacher is verifying (using English or French) student comprehension (involving negotiation of meaning) and reviewing pronunciation;

- students repeating English language and reading aloud;

- students spontaneously commenting (in English or French) on activities.

In any YL instructional setting, students tend to talk simultaneously or out of turn; therefore, any inaudible or incomprehensible language has been excluded in the number of exchanges.

The different teaching/student activities taking place within each teaching-sequence were distinguished within the transcripts; these were colour coded based on the theoretical framework/'story approach' and analysed through content analysis (appendix 21). The teaching-sequences, illustrated in Figure 6.3, highlighted that whereas the two pre-lessons (7 and 8) comprise 21 and 24 teaching-sequences respectively, the post-lessons (28 and 31), have considerably less with only 13 and 10 teaching-sequences, respectively. Therefore, though lesson time increased on average between pre and post-lessons the number of teaching-sequences decreased.

Analyses revealed the following (seconds rounded to the minute):

- pre-lesson teaching-sequences were generally short, lasting approximately one to five- minutes, with, in lesson seven, only one semi-long sequence (8 minutes) and one long sequence (17 minutes). Lesson eight followed a similar pattern with only one semi-long sequence (10 minutes).

- post-lessons sequences were longer; lesson 28 has 4 semi-long sequences lasting between 8-9 minutes and one long sequence of 15 minutes; lesson 31 has two semi-long sequences of 6-12 minutes and two long sequences of 15-21 minutes. The significance of the number and length of sequences will be discussed in section four in relation to the literature review.
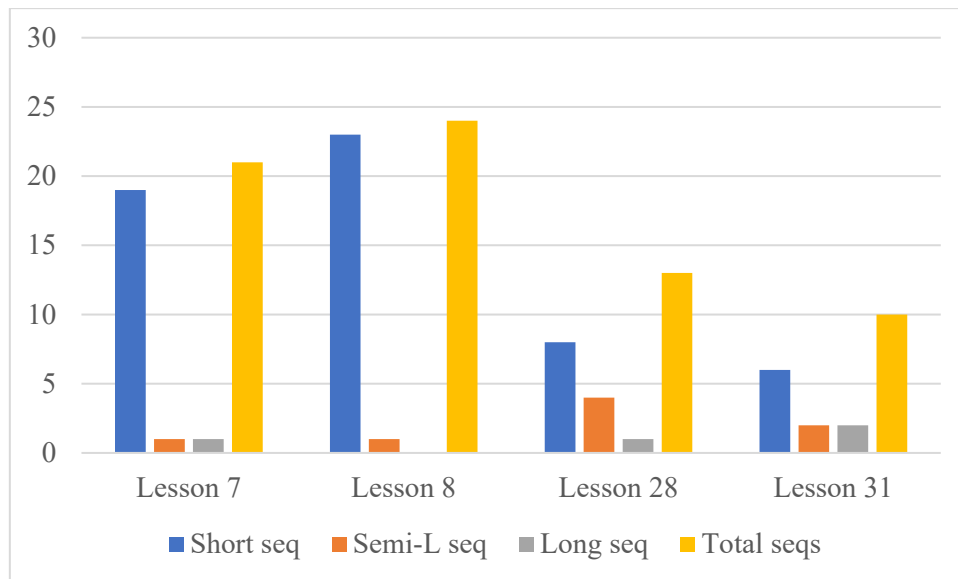
Figure 6.3. Length of teaching-sequences for pre and post-lessons

- activities (Figure 6.4) drawing the most interaction involved question-answer games and picture description where students had to reply or describe; in pre-lessons 7 and 8, this included 12 teaching-sequences out of 45 (26.7%); in post lessons 28 and 31, this included 16 teaching-sequences out of 23 (69.6%); most post-lesson sequences generated substantial individual exchanges, with exchanges between teacher and individual students reaching a high of 80 in lesson 31 for individual students on a picture description task; this appears to demonstrate the interactive nature (Ellis, 1999; Ellis, 2005) of these 'story approach' activities within instruction;

- singing took second place to questioning and description activities, being present in 19/45 teaching sequences (42.2%) in pre-lesson, but only 2/23 in post-lessons (8.7%);

- within teaching activities, realia, and concrete items such as student's personal English book and personalised work (e.g. decorated pictures; hand-made realia) seem to be linked to interaction as these appear in all the teaching-sequences which drew substantial participation, particularly in post-lessons, being present in 7/45 (15.6%) teaching sequences in pre-lessons and 13/23 (56.5%) in post-lessons.
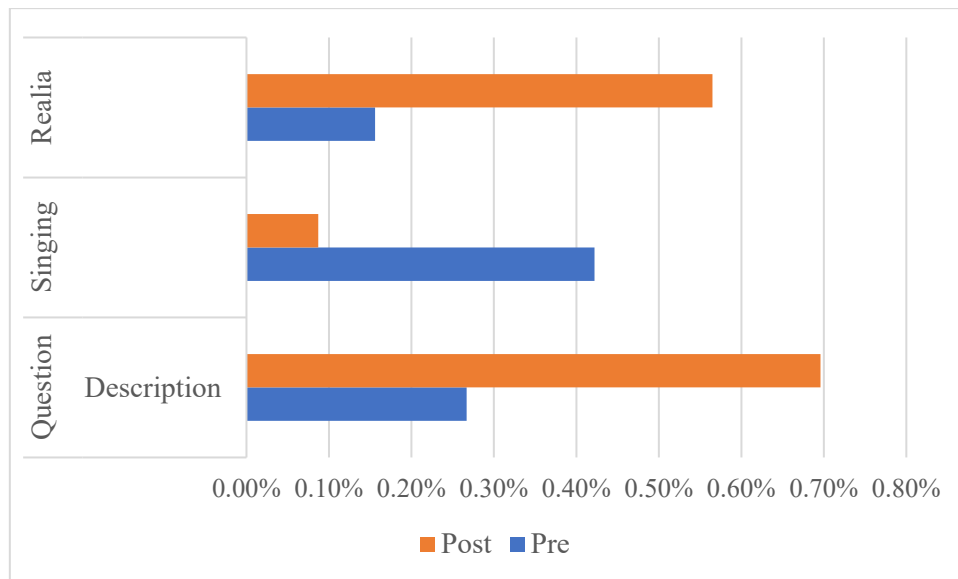
Figure 6.4. Representation of principle activities in pre and post-lessons

- significantly more interaction occurred in the post-lessons compared to the pre-lessons and seems to be linked to the type of teaching activities taking place. Whereas in the pre-lessons, tasks were centred on singing, action, and movement, in the post lessons activities centred on questioning and description.

The total number of individual exchanges in pre and post-lessons (Figure 6.5), are as follows:

lesson 7 (80 minutes): 158 exchanges;

lesson 8 (71 minutes): 123 exchanges;

lesson 28 (82 minutes): 287 exchanges;

lesson 31 (81 minutes): 313 exchanges.
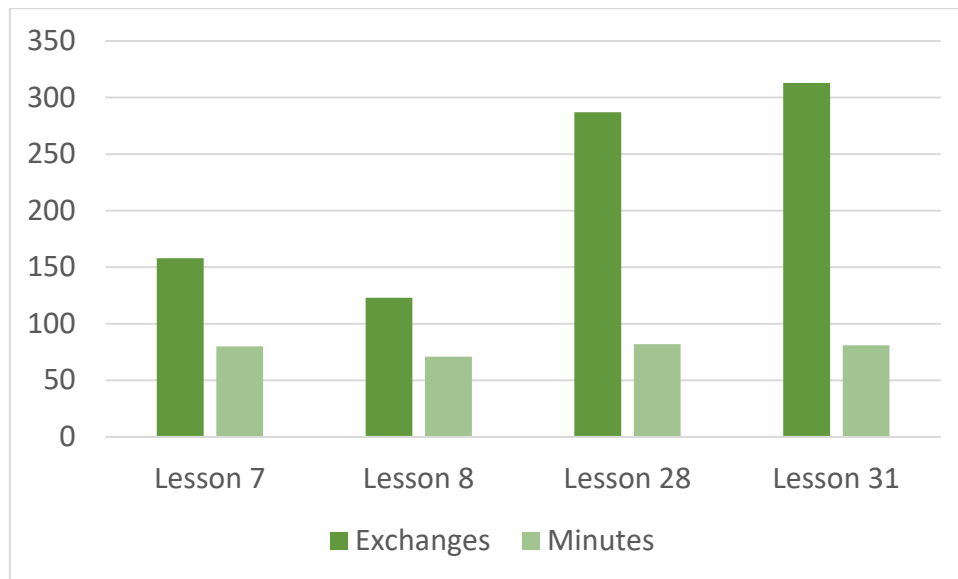
Figure 6.5. Interaction through individual exchanges in pre and post-lessons

Interestingly, though pre-lesson seven was practically the same length as post-lessons 28 and 31, there were substantially more exchanges in the post-lessons. These implications will be discussed in section four.

An outsider to the study provided inter-rater reliability for the number of exchanges and colour coding of activities; A minor discrepancy involved counting of exchanges on the researcher's part; this was rapidly resolved and 100% agreement was established.

6.3.3.2. Activities Generating English Language Output

This section distinguishes the amount of target language produced within the interaction generated through the activities and materials (section 6.3.3.1) in pre and post-lessons 7, 8, 28, and 31.

To determine which activities appear to produce the most English language output, analysis was conducted through comparison of the time-slots where the most target language was produced in codes REI, STEI-S and CGS-I and CGS-G (Tables 6.4 and 6.6), and the time-slots concerning which activities generated substantial interaction (section 6.3.3.1; Figure 6.4.).

Concerning pre-lessons 7-10, according to frequency Table 6.4 (Codes REI and STEI-S), the most English language was produced 25-45 minutes into the

lessons and again in approximately the last five minutes (practically no pre-lesson production in Table 6.6 for codes CGS-I and CGS-G). Concerning post-lessons 28-31, according to frequency Tables 6.4 and 6.6 English language was produced fairly regularly throughout the lessons but with a noticeable dip (code CGS-I) between 55-60 minutes into the lessons, and a dip between 25-30 minutes (see Table 6.6).

Comparison of the time frames of the aggregated frequency of responses in English with the time-frames of the teaching activities (appendix 21), reveal interesting results.

Details of the activities which took place in the 45 pre-lesson and 23 post-lesson teaching-sequences where the most English language output was produced by individual students are given below (illustrated in Table 6.10).

1) movement (action games, singing with movement, manual activity) was substantially more present in pre-lessons in 25/45 teaching-sequences (55.60%), than in post-lessons in 3/23 teaching-sequences (13.04%); however, only two teaching-sequences (8%) contributed to individual EFL output in pre-lessons and none in post-lessons;

2) the use of realia generated individual English output in 5/22 teaching-sequences (22.73%) where it was present in the pre-lessons, and in all six teaching-sequences (100%) in post-lessons;

3) question-description game/tasks were used extensively, generating English out-put in 6/12 teaching-sequences (50%) where it was present in pre-lessons, and in 14/16 teaching-sequences (87.50%), in post-lessons;

4) student's own personalised work generated EFL output in pre-lessons, in 5/7 teaching-sequences (71.40%) where it was present, and in 10/11 teaching-sequences (91%) in post-lessons;

5) singing activities were prominent in the pre-lessons in 20/45 teaching-sequences, though contributing mainly to group English output; only 2/20 teaching-sequences (10%) contributed to individual output, with 24 individual exchanges in pre-lesson 8 (sequences 17,19) and none in lesson 7;

singing was largely absent in post-lessons, with 2/23 teaching-sequences with this activity, and none contributing to individual output;

6) comprehension checks appear to contribute considerably to English output in post-lessons with all eight teaching-sequences (100%) where it was present, generating output; less, however, in pre-lessons, with only 5/10 teaching-sequences (50%) where this was present, generating output;

7) native language use (instructions, explanations, feedback), generated English output, in 10/14 teaching-sequences (71.40%) where it was present in pre-lessons, and in 3/5 teaching-sequences (60%) in post-lessons.

Movement is linked to singing in the 'story approach'; analyses demonstrated that both these teaching activities reduce in the post-lessons, with a greater decline for singing, as movement is also linked to manual work, which continues to be present in the post-lessons.

Results demonstrate that group responses are substantially fewer than individual responses in English and seem to be confined to singing (e.g. sequence 18 lesson seven). Analysis demonstrates valuable results and elucidate important points concerning the theoretical framework; these points are discussed in section 6.4.

Table 6.10

Activities in the teaching sequences (T-S) generating English Language output in pre and post-lessons

Activity	Pre-lessons Number of T-S with this activity on a total of 45 T-S	Post-lessons Number of T-S with this activity on a total of 23 T-S	Number of T-S which generated target language output through this activity in pre-lessons	Number of T-S which generated target language output through this activity in post-lessons
1) Movement	25/45	3/23	2/25 = 8%	0/3 = 0%
2) Realia	22/45	6/23	5/22 = 22.73%	6/6 = 100%
3) Question-Description games/tasks	12/45	16/23	6/12 = 50%	14/16 = 87.50%
4) Personalised work	7/45	11/23	5/7 = 71.40%	10/11 = 91%
5) Singing	20/45	2/23	2/20 = 10%	0/2 = 0%
6) Comprehension Checks	10/45	8/23	5/10 = 50%	8/8 = 100%
7) Native language use	14/45	5/23	10/14 = 71.40%	3/5 = 60%

6.3.4. Qualitative Analysis of the Class Teacher Notes, Tick-off Charts and Field Notes

In the year one study, the CT commented on the teaching activities, individual student behaviour, and participated in the oral testing using the specifically designed tick-off charts (the interconnectedness of curriculum, pedagogy, and testing, for speaking skills development: Bygate, 2009). Comments were recorded/written each lesson as the teaching activities were taking place. They provided, inter-rater reliability through an outsider's view on the research, gave insight concerning student's progress and difficulties and the validity and reliability of the teaching strategies of the 'story approach' within a real teaching context (Mackey and Silver, 2005; Oliver and Mackey, 2003); particularly noteworthy are the CT written transcriptions of student language in English.

6.3.4.1. Term 1

Organisational and behavioural factors, and implementing teaching activities, were facilitated by having a smaller class (23 students compared to 30 in the pilot study). This also permitted more oral practice while still having the stimulation of a group for interactive teaching (Ellis, 2005; Nassaji, 2016b). The students seemed to have a better EFL level than anticipated. The CSG, who had the story approach intervention in the pilot study, was initially producing a greater amount and more complex language e.g. using the article "a", and cardinal number with a plural noun e.g. "a cow" "three pigs" and verbal phrases like "sit down" and "stand up" (lesson 1). However, the video recording transcripts of individual student responses and spontaneous language demonstrate that the other students seemed to have substantially caught up by the end of term.

At the start of term, students were monitored orally to determine their current EFL level. For a colours test (lesson 2) the CT remarked that students were reciting from memory, not necessarily knowing the meaning of the colour words. Consequently, tick-off charts trialled in the pilot study for individual oral testing were used, and students were asked to touch individually each

item they were naming or describing (realia, pictures or other); the CT and researcher independently recorded individual student's oral responses on these specifically designed charts. This permitted verifying the reliability and validity of this oral monitoring mechanism and comparing CT and researcher results in case of discrepancy; the video recording also provided evidence concerning student responses. Results of the testing seem to demonstrate that though students were tested individually, in the classroom altogether, they did not produce the same language.

The CT noted that some students participate regularly, or more often than others; a number of these were the CSG students. Students were eager to touch the realia e.g. coloured cushions, miniature toy animals, puppets, nativity figurines and barn (e.g. lessons two, three, eight, nine, ten) and used their fingers to count (e.g. lesson four, student BoS; lesson five student NC; lesson eight, student KD). The CT also regularly indicates individual students singing spontaneously in English to themselves (e.g. lessons three and five) or commenting in English in situations where the language has not been purposely elicited (e.g. lessons three-four: "here I am"; "thank you") and generally notices the student's engagement with movement and song (e.g. lesson five: spontaneous dancing, smiles and enthusiasm for the activities); the CT commented in lesson eight that students left the classroom singing in English, or sang spontaneously in the playground. Another regular CT comment is students looking at one another to verify or confirm language during group action games and group song testing (e.g. lesson five song testing: students KD, and BoS); in lesson seven, for the action game, a number of students copy the two students who have extensive English at home. Students also seemed to have a tendency of whispering the answers to each other in group testing (e.g. lesson eight, student HU). These points highlight the importance of peer support (Oliver, 1998). Lesson eight involved group song testing; in the field notes the researcher comments that students remained calm and quiet despite having to sit through the activity and wait their turn; the CT, however, commented that the two students who have extensive English at home were particularly talkative and therefore disturbing and distracting.

The student's English books/folders permitted personalising work and returning to work and activities previously done, for reviewing. The 'story approach' is not linear, where one unit or theme follows on from the preceding as in current programmes, but functions in a parallel manner where material is revisited in view of building upon it in a variety of ways. In this regard the CT comments, in lessons eight, eleven, and twelve, that students are attempting to read the personalised song sheets, worksheets and any script from their English book, now that they are building reading skills in their mother tongue. The CT commented (lesson nine) that the students, including the child with SEN, appeared very attentive during lessons, and were enjoying the EFL classes. For the child with special needs, attendance was supposed to be sporadic, but the child requested to attend every lesson (CT comment lesson twelve).

Throughout the year the teaching strategy included the development of executive functions, e.g. organising and personalising work, often according to a model proposed by the EFL teacher displayed for the class. This was occasionally a source of stress when, for example, students had misplaced documents or were in difficulty with the task (e.g. CT notes lesson twelve; field notes lessons twelve, thirteen, fourteen). Nonetheless, students seemed to enjoy the manual work activities and were disappointed if these were cut short (e.g. field notes lesson fourteen).

Formulaic speech (Enever, 2011; Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Myles, Mitchell, and Hooper, 1999) was taught through, song, but also through set phrases linked to class activities like instructions for class errands (distributing materials or collecting work). The 'story approach' used the question form (Boyd and Rubin 2006; Enever, 2011; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Mackey and Silver, 2005) as a basis for the development of communicative skills. Initially questions, such as "who would like to distribute?", "who would like to collect?" and the corresponding answers, were written on the board; this strategy permitted focusing on metacognitive and metalinguistic skills development (Ellis, 2005; Long, 2009) and seemed to be appreciated by students (e.g. field notes lesson 21). The phrases written on the board permitted students reading the replies until they were able to

say/use them without the written prompt, by lesson 25 (CT notes). Students were enthusiastic to do class duties like collecting or distributing; systematically the majority of the class wanted to participate. Students learned to reply, "Please can I collect" "Please can I distribute".

6.3.4.2. Term 2

Lesson one term two, was exceptionally in the afternoon; students seemed manifestly tired (CT and researcher's notes). Students spontaneously read and repeated aloud to themselves from their English books (lesson 15: CT notes). In the 'story approach', students were prompted to take known words and phrases and transform them to modify meaning (Ellis, 2005: principle eight) for use in other contexts; e.g. happy birthday became "happy teacher", "happy friend"; students spontaneously made their own combinations with words they knew and names of their peers and invented phrases like "happy teacher", "happy M--- (MAX)", "Happy O--- (OC) (lessons 15, 16, 17, 18); examples from lesson 19 are, "Happy friend Jesus" (student TE), "happy friend Jess cat" (student BE). The CT comments that one child said, "Happy birds", particularly remarking the correct use of the plural "s" ending (lesson 19: student TE). In lesson 20 the CT noted that students are encouraged to extend this communicative strategy and employ other known vocabulary, inventing phrases like, "angry yellow giraffe" (student BS), "black happy cow" (student NEFX) and "sad white mouse" (student DM); surprisingly, a student who had extensive English at home said the grammatically incorrect phrase "happy fox brown" (lesson 20: student WE). Realia (soft toys, plastic figurines, and masks) together with song and story were used as part of the teaching strategy for teaching vocabulary and grammar; students also made their own realia to keep in their English book/folder and use in class for oral language activities (e.g. clothes names: lesson 19); students seemed to greatly appreciate these materials. Realia was often selected to relate to words in the song or story (e.g. cat, red van, birds). In the 'story approach', story and song were used to reinforce vocabulary memorisation, and metalinguistic and metacognitive skills. Pictures were often used as oral language prompts; these were put up on the board during the activity e.g. in lesson 20 for an action

game where the students, and not the EFL teacher, were now saying the actions (field notes; CT notes).

The CT noted that some students auto-corrected their own grammar mistakes e.g. adding an 's' to words to make the plural (e.g. lesson 17 student BN), and would spontaneously test each other on vocabulary (e.g. lesson 18 students NN and BE). Students spontaneously built language on known words and phrases, e.g. "who is this?" was introduced, and as the students were already familiar with the word "who" in the question form, from questions in previous lessons ("who would like to distribute?"), they immediately understood the new question, and were able to correctly reply, "teacher". However, in lesson 19, the CT expresses surprise that all the students said "merci" and not "thank you" when she distributed materials, yet they knew the words in English. Students seemed to naturally repeat (Mitchell, 2009) after the EFL teacher words and expressions in English, e.g. Lesson 20 (CT notes): the EFL teacher drops her glasses by mistake and says, "oh my glasses!"; a CSG student (BT) immediately imitated this with realia from the English book/folder and repeated "oh my glasses!"

A class interview (self-reflection: Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank, 2011) in lesson 21, revealed interesting points; out of 23 students, 21 put up their hand to the question "Who likes learning English? In relation to the question "why do you like learning English?" the researcher was expecting replies like "I like singing in English", or "because we have fun"; however, replies centred on comments like "to learn new words", "because dad speaks Italian and I will be able to speak three languages" and "to go to England and speak to people in English" (CT note lesson 21).

Students integrated the question form surprisingly well; e.g. Lesson 21, two students (BT and HU) asked the EFL teacher "Did you sleep well?" (field notes). However, from the replies students gave, it was clear that meaning sometimes seemed an issue; e.g. lesson 23 (CT notes), students confused the meaning of "How are you today?" and "Did you sleep well?" The CT noted that students seem to naturally translate English into their native language (the internalisation of target language is also mediated through inner speech, and native language use: Mitchell, 2009); e.g. Lesson 21 the CT comments

that as the story was being read in English a child (HU) translated aloud in French. Students were regularly given oral language homework. This permitted taking language out of the classroom context and into a real life environment, e.g. one homework activity involved students asking their parents "Did you sleep well?" 15 students out of 23 did this homework (CT notes lesson 23). Lessons followed a plan but in real teaching situations this is often modified due to unforeseen events and can be positive in permitting extra activities (lesson 24: field notes) or can be restrictive.

Code-switching was largely absent, however the CT noted some specific phrases (lesson 25): *"J'ai pas de* red, *euh, rouge*!" (BT); *"J'ai mis ma fiche dans mon* book" (HU); *"J'ai pas de* yellow" (KD). The CT notes examples, of spontaneous language (lesson 26), and students enjoying activities ("affective filter hypothesis", Krashen, 2009, p. 31) (lesson 27). Students were tested individually for comprehension in lesson 27 (field notes); though students KTH and PT came after student KS who has extensive English at home and performed well, both KTH and PT did badly on the task. Language was frequently introduced as a result of real-life situations. For example, in lesson 27; a student replies in French, that he has a cold, when asked "how are you today?" as a result, the EFL teacher introduced the phrase "got a cold". This became one of the replies the students could give to this question, and was student DM's response in the following weeks' lesson (video transcript lesson 29; field notes). This 'story approach' strategy seems to allow for "qualitatively richer" (Ellis, 1999a, p.219) interactions, and creative language development.

6.3.4.3. Term 3

Term three consolidated progress in terms one and two: lesson one, involved informal oral testing; despite two weeks Easter holiday students performed well (video transcript lesson 29; CT notes; field notes); there are instances of overuse of grammar rules, similarly to the start of the year (developmental errors: Dulay and Burt, 1973; Lightbown and Spada, 2006) e.g., "mouse" became "mouses" (student BT). Students became more spontaneous in their output, e.g. "thank you" replaced "merci" (lesson 29: CT notes); students

seemed more at ease with the written form and could recognise sentences e.g. "happy Easter" (student PT: lesson 29, CT notes). Another example of students translating words and verifying meaning between themselves is the following extract (lesson 29: CT notes):

"Fox, c'est un renard?" demande BS; NEFX se retourne et lui dit "mais oui, normalement fox *c'est renard"* ("Fox means renard ? " Asks student BS ; student NEFX turns around and tells him, "of course, fox means renard").

On a picture story-comprehension monitoring task (lesson 30), students performed well; out of 23 students 19 got full marks; precautions taken enabled insuring that each student's work was their own and not copied from one another. Lesson 31 featured oral language-monitoring through a picture story-telling task; however, some students spoke very softly and were hardly audible (CT notes). The CT and the researcher recorded results independently on a tick off chart; though results were cross-checked with the video recording, certain phrases were still inaudible (these results were left out of the analysis). By lesson 32 several students were asking questions like "How are you today?" and "did you sleep well?" (field notes). A new story "Little Red Hoody", was introduced; students had more difficulty understanding the story-line question "How are you today?" than "did you sleep well?" Though both phrases were familiar to the students, they were now placed in a new context compared to how they usually hear them. In addition, the former question was not conveyed in pictures, whereas for the second, the picture showed grandma in bed. However, students seemed able to deduct meaning even without pictures in other instances e.g. all appeared to understand the question "what is the baby's name?" and one student (KD) gave the answer (lesson 33: field notes). The CT emphasises student's enjoyment of EFL classes, and their considerable progress, over the year, in vocabulary and structural knowledge (Lesson 36, final lesson).

Literacy skills and activities were used to support the development of oral communicative skills throughout year one, though students were still developing these native language skills: words and phrases were written on the whiteboard for students to observe the phonetic composition and number of words per phrase; words in a phrase were counted on fingers; students cut-

out phrases into separate words to recompose them. As the year progressed, and literacy skills developed in their native language, students were able (term two onwards) to read phrases in English.

At the end of term three, student's comprehension and reading skills were monitored through an informal animal names reading-comprehension activity. The 21 students also completed an informal self-evaluation questionnaire (appendix 10), concerning their progress in English; this involved nine questions relating to language items studied during the year and a tenth question concerning their favourite class activities. 63% of students replied positively to the nine language questions, 26% replying they had achieved some skills ("a little"), and 11% stating they had achieved none in certain areas. For questions one, two, three, and seven respectively: all students stated they could sing, of which five said "a little"; only two students replied negatively to being able to ask and reply questions in English, and all except one affirmed being able to count to ten. 18 students stated knowing many words in English (speaking and comprehension). Favourite activities for the majority of the students were class activities/tasks and games (task-based activities: Ellis, 2005; Enever, 2011), rather than singing, saying stories, listening to stories, and writing words.

The points in section 6.3.4 will be discussed in section 6.4 in relation to the literature review and the theoretical framework.

6.4. Discussion: Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis and Results

This section concerns quantitative and qualitative data analysis and results from sections 6.2 and 6.3 providing interrelated meta-inferences and discussion in line with a parallel mixed methods paradigm (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The deductive-inductive nature of this study will permit determining the extent to which the theoretical framework and 'story approach' have

contributed to the development of EFL oral communicative skills in these YLs. The feasibility concerning the application of the 'story approach' in real-life teaching contexts will also be highlighted. The coded transcript data has been analysed within this perspective for emerging themes, and the data is discussed in relation to three principle aspects (Saldana, 2013): - the prediction and control of events; - the explanation of how and why phenomenon occur; - the understanding of these for application within EFL teaching, in sections 6.4.1, 6.4.2, and 6.4.3. These sections are equally a discussion of:

- the theoretical framework and 'story approach' in relation to the literature review and theories of child development (chapters two and three);

- the qualitative validation of the theoretical framework through the target language transcripts;

- the transcript coding within the perspective of inductive qualitative analysis: "In inductive data analysis, the goal is generally for research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant, or significant themes within the raw data" (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 179).

This permits evaluating the findings of this study in relation to previous findings and existing hypotheses and assumptions within child development, language learning, and EFL instruction and pedagogy. It equally permits discussion of the codes from an inductive perspective (Charmaz, 2006; Coolican, 2014; Corbin and Strauss, 1990).

Section 6.4.4 presents an evaluation of the 'story approach' considering the research aims and questions of this study (chapter one). Section 6.4.5 provides a discussion on implications for future investigation; the implications drawn from this discussion provide a basis for future studies to expand on the analysis and results of this study, with points for investigation identified.

6.4.1. The Prediction and Control of Events

Any classroom teaching situation is unique by virtue of the setting and the personalities involved; it appears to be a purely human event where each individual impacts and contributes to the final result. Within this uniqueness, it seems that certain parameters permit steering the proceedings in one direction or another and thus imply controlling events to a certain degree. Within classroom teaching, it is the teaching approach and strategies, including the materials and activities, which highly influence outcomes (Cameron, 2001; Ellis, 2005; Fisher, 2005;).

The 'story approach' has been elaborated according to a theoretical framework encompassing specific materials and activities; these have been developed and designed in view of catering for the changing developmental needs of primary age YLs. According to the literature, the YL, initially highly dependent on concrete items for intellectual development (Fisher, 1990), gradually develops the capacity for abstract thinking (Williams and Burden, 1997; Donaldson, 1978), and learns through a process of accommodation and assimilation (Williams and Burden, 1997). Within the 'story approach', realia, manual activities, movement, and self-expression, allowing for spontaneity and creativity through personal 'story' (theoretical framework), are all key elements of the teaching programme. A gradual introduction of increasingly abstract materials and activities (images replacing realia; reading following on naturally from oral comprehension; writing naturally replacing action games, colouring and manual work) permit accompanying the child in the developmental process, which is the result of biological factors (Wood 1988). In the 'story approach', teaching and learning occur in a parallel rather than a linear pattern where revisiting previously introduced grammatical concepts and notions of language allow for repetition and rehearsal (Brown, 2000; Ellis, 2005; Mitchell, 2009) and using them as building blocks for constructing new knowledge (Ausubel, 1960; Ausubel 1980). Consequently, students learned key words (e.g. nouns, adjectives, and cardinal numbers), one word utterances (Codes: WR-I, WR-G), formulaic speech (Codes FS-I, FS-G), and responses to questions (Code: REI), at the start of the year, and were able to subsequently combine these into creative and grammatically

correct phrases of their own invention (Codes STEI-S; CGS-I; CGS-G). For example, mastering the use of final "s" to form the plural, using the conjunction "and" or employing the article "a". This target language was coded through the lesson transcripts in view of inductive analysis for investigating the type of language these EFL YLs produced, and how these language elements permitted the development of EFL oral communicative skills.

6.4.1.1. Theoretical Framework - (Personal) Story:

As a social being, it appears that the child should be placed at the centre of the learning process (Vygotsky 1978) with social interaction and stimulation within this environment being a prerequisite for language development (Lightbown and Spada 2006; Ashworth and Wakefield 2004; Pinker, 1995). The type of learning environment seems fundamental for the stimulation of intellectual and cognitive growth (Williams and Burden 1997; Rosenberg 1997; Gardner, 1999), placing extreme importance on the materials and activities for the general developmental process including EFL learning. In view of this, the use of the question form (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Fisher, 2005; Mackey and Silver, 2005) is an integral part of the 'story approach', and provides the back-bone of the teaching strategy in the development of oral communicative skills (research question four). YLs are in a state of actively negotiating meaning which seems to imply that collaborative language learning and interaction should be at the forefront of the teaching strategies (Donaldson 1978; Ellis, 1999; Ellis, Heimbach, Tanaka, and Yamazaki, 1999; Fisher 2005; Gass, Mackey, and Ross-Feldman, 2005; Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000; Wells 1986). Taking the assumption that all conversation is based principally upon, and is the result of, questions and answers, it seems that the development of YL question-answer skills would provide a firm basis for EFL oral communicative skills development (codes description: section 6.2.1). Specifically designed games and activities/tasks (section 6.3.3) provided the basis for this. Materials and activities within the teaching strategy permitted introducing and rehearsing language through the question form, and providing support and stimulation

for students to create personal authentic language (their story). This differs from current commercial programmes which seem to bind students to a fictitious scenario.

6.4.1.2. Theoretical Framework - "embodiment" and "ownership":

YLs are sensitive to emotional factors (Brown 2000; Zull 2011), and therefore appear to require engaging at a personal level with the learning environment; this engagement is also purposeful in creating lasting memories (Zull 2011). In section 6.3.4.3 (term 3) qualitative analysis of data demonstrates how, despite two weeks of vacation and no contact with the target language, students performed well on informal oral testing; only audible responses were considered (any inaudible responses were excluded at all points in this study). Within the 'story approach', activities and materials, of which the realia and personalised English Books, provide for engagement at a personal level. These materials provide a support for real-life activities (theoretical framework: "embodiment") which foster the child's involvement in the learning process (theoretical framework: "ownership"), and peer to peer, and teacher to student, interaction. Through this involvement, these real-life activities appear to enhance memorisation (Vygotsky 1978), and encourage the practice of pronunciation (Nassaji, 2016b), as in the example of the initial 'h' sound during book distribution ("Where are you?", "Here I am"). Inversely, in current commercial programmes, rehearsal for memorisation and pronunciation appear to be conducted through repetition of recorded language and pupil/activity picture-book images. These teaching strategies provide students with a predetermined out-come; unlike the 'story approach', this appears not to be spontaneous real-life language. Within the theoretical framework YLs are given space to invent spontaneous responses (story) e.g. in the realia cardboard-clothes activity, students were able to give authentic replies according to their personally coloured-clothes realia. Students organised their own personal folder; this appears to have contributed to developing EFL reading and vocabulary/language skills (CT notes).

Formulaic speech (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Myles, Mitchell, and Hooper, 1999) was introduced/learned through games, activities, story, and

song. However, unlike current commercial programmes which seem to lock students into formulaic speech through rote learning (Brown, 2000), the 'story approach' attaches formulaic speech intrinsically to its meaning (Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Ellis, 2005; Sawyer 2011). It therefore contributes to the development of EFL oral communicative skills by providing a prop and trampoline for creative language, made possible through the understanding of meaning (Ausubel, 1960; Ausubel 1980; Wells 1986). This study does not refute the use of formulaic speech; on the contrary, formulaic speech is an effective tool for developing target language; however, a firm distinction needs to be made in teaching strategies involving formulaic speech according to the particular instructional context (SLA or EFL). Indeed, rather than formulaic speech remaining as chunks, in restricted target language and instructional contexts (EFL), as in this study, it appears that rapidly attaching meaning to formulaic speech (Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Ellis, 2005) permits greater efficiency in language comprehension skills and structural knowledge, and consequently, in creative production (Ellis, 1999a). This appears to be evidenced through the transcripts, where e.g. the formulaic phrase. "happy birthday" is transformed through the child's creativity ("embodiment"; "ownership") e.g. "happy teacher". This seems to be reflected in the quantitative results where there appears to be no correlation between FS-I and meaning (M-T). Indeed, FS-I seems to have become creative language in the post-tests, so no longer exists as FS-I, but is now CGS-I and STEI-S. It is emphasised that the quantitative results are to be considered with great caution due to the small sample size; however, they possible permit a sense of direction in combination with the qualitative results and analysis.

Making meaning salient and explicit through words (native language use) gesture and materials (e.g. realia) formed an integral part of the 'story approach'. Students seem to spontaneously search for meaning (lesson transcripts and CT notes e.g. section 6.3.4.3: term 3), an integral part of child development and linked to reality: "ideas become the basis of their actions and responses are tested, validated, revised or improved in the light of subsequent experience" (Fisher, 2005, p. 46). The centrality of meaning (Codes: Meaning-Teacher; Meaning-Student-I; Meaning-Student-G) within

the 'story approach' teaching strategies will be discussed in the next sub-section; these codes were also developed from the transcript data in view of inductive analysis to investigate their relevance within oral communicative skills development.

6.4.2. The Explanation of How and Why Phenomena Occur

The teaching strategies (including materials and activities) for the 'story approach' have been designed according to the theoretical framework. As defined in earlier chapters, 'story' refers to the learner's 'personal' story (concerning the learner directly e.g. personal likes and dislikes), and also includes story in the form of narrative, song, and rhyme. The two facets of 'story' are "embodiment" and "ownership" (theoretical framework); both encompass meaning: "embodiment" involves the learning of phenomenon through "absorbing" them in multiple ways including bodily movement, manual activities and games involving action and gesture (teaching activities: section 6.3.3); likewise, "ownership" accommodates the notion of meaning as it implies engaging (taking "ownership") with the phenomenon at hand, as, for example in personalising work through colouring, cutting out or inventing phases.

For year one intervention, quantitative and qualitative results are based on the progress of the whole class. Issues of sensitivity prevented conducting general testing with the intervention class (experimental group) and students from other classes not having had the 'story approach' (control group). This, however, was conducted at the end of third year primary (chapter eight). The qualitative results of the transcripts (section 6.3) and the quantitative results (section 6.2) for spontaneous language (STEI-S) and complex grammatical structures (CGS-I: phrases of two words or more) in the post-tests, seem to demonstrate the possible effectiveness of the 'story approach' teaching strategy in this year one study. Post-test results of the Wilcoxon signed rank test for spontaneous creative language (code STEI-S) appear to support qualitative results of the transcript data despite the Bonferroni correction, as did results for the code for phrases of two words or more (code CGS-I) before the Bonferroni correction. Though these quantitative results are to be

interpreted with utmost caution due to the small sample size, they possibly provide a sense of direction and appear to favourably support the qualitative transcript analysis of progress between pre and post-tests. Likewise, the post-test correlation results of meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher (code Meaning-Teacher) and one word answers (code WR-I), individual student responses in English (code REI), spontaneous individual student language (code STEI-S) and phrases of two words or more (code CGS-I) appear to demonstrate the fundamental importance of meaning in the development of YL, EFL oral communicative skills (research question three).

In contrast, the post-test results of the Wilcoxon signed rank tests conducted for codes REI (individual student responses in English) and WR-I (individual student one word answers in English) and FS-I (individual student formulaic speech) appear to demonstrate a minor increase, particularly compared to code STEI-S (spontaneous creative language), supporting results of the qualitative transcript analysis. These results seems to suggest that as individual factors, these codes do not, alone, lead to the development of oral communicative skills: descriptive analysis results appear to demonstrate (section 6.2.) that for the full data set for REI and WR-I, the mean hardly increased between pre and post-test, and for FS-I, remained at a constant low throughout the year. Indeed, teaching formulaic speech is important within EFL pedagogy (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Myles, Mitchell, and Hooper, 1999), however, within the 'story approach', formulaic speech is rapidly transformed through meaning in order to become creative language (Boyd and Rubin (2006; Ellis, 2005). Results, however, do seem to suggest that combined, the development of language skills of replying to questions in English (REI), one word answer skills (WR-I), and formulaic speech (FS-I) skills, in individual students, do together, contribute to the development of spontaneous creative language (STEI-S) and complex grammatical structures (CGS-I: phrases of two words or more). These skills (STEI-S and CGS-I) are practically non-existent in the pre-test transcripts and seem to develop significantly over the academic year, gradually taking over from REI, WR-I and FS-I. Results of analysis for STEI-S and CGS-I seem to support the hypothesis that a 'story approach' can be an effective means of developing EFL skills in primary school students (5-11 year olds) in teaching contexts

where students have limited weekly EFL instruction and limited contact with the target language out-side school.

The correlation results (Table 6.8 codes: Meaning-Teacher; WR-I; REI; STEI-S; CGS-I) seem to suggest that the approach to achieve EFL language skills is through explicit engagement with meaning (research question three). Within the 'story approach', the explicit conveying of meaning has taken multiple forms with native language use (Enever, 2011; Mitchell, 2009) being the foremost; this was principally employed for conveying meaning of words, phrases, and structure, but also for discipline, feedback, comprehension checks, and clarifying instructions. Interestingly, despite this, students rarely code-switched; the mean values (section 6.2.2: Table 6.5) indicate that student code-switching (SCS-I and SCS-G) was practically non-existent. However, current commercial programmes e.g. Frino, et al. 2014: Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2, p.viii, preclude the use of the native language in YL, EFL instruction, relying on images in books, gestures and miming to convey meaning (e.g. Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). The results of the present study appear favourable to native language use, and seem to demonstrate how EFL learning can be fast tracked this way e.g. section 6.3.2 where a student confused the meaning of rabbit and door.

Meaning was also conveyed implicitly and explicitly, through questioning (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006), by repeating student language, and through interactional trial and error (Ellis, 1999; Ellis, 2005), including corrective (Nassaji, 2007; Nassaji, 2016a) and negative feedback (Oliver and Mackey, 2003). Students searched, in English, for the correct vocabulary or grammatical structure (research questions one and two) e.g. in lesson 28 the EFL teacher praises a student, and repeats the student's language, then asks a question to another student. This example demonstrates how students can create their own meaning through personal 'story':

Teacher: Super! Happy and tired and ready for work. *Tu es très courageuse.* Very good. Well done. What about you? (Teacher turns to another student).

Explicit grammar instruction is a long debated issue with those in favour (Batstone, 2002), and those against (Truscott, 1999). Combining implicit and

explicit instruction (Ellis, 2005; Long, 2009) in this intervention appears a good balance, and seems confirmed by the quantitative and qualitative results. YLs are in a state of rapid development (Yule 2010; Lightbown and Spada 2006) and harnessing this learning capacity, requires instructional programmes, strategies and approaches being in tune with the ever changing physical, emotional, and cognitive development of this age group.

6.4.2.1. Theoretical Framework - "empowerment"

The notion of "empowerment" (the development of oral communicative skills) in the theoretical framework, seems to be qualitatively exemplified through this transcript data.

Interestingly, narrative, in the form of story, is an instructional approach advocated for EFL instruction (Cameron, 2001). However, the results of this first year intervention, appear to indicate that typical song, rhyme, or story structure with formulaic phrases like 'once upon a time', appear unconducive to efficient EFL instruction in settings where target language exposure is limited, and teaching time restricted. This is illustrated by the CT's observational notes in term one, that students appeared to be reciting the colours without understanding meaning (formulaic speech: Myles, Hooper, and Mitchell, 1998; Myles, et al. 1999) i.e. not really knowing which word refers to which colour. Indeed, the previous year (nursery class), these students had learned a colours song (pilot observation study), but rather as formulaic speech devoid of meaning. Informal oral testing as part of the pre-intervention class interview at the start of the year, demonstrated poor oral production skills in general, with only the CSG (from the pilot intervention class in the previous year) and one child having additional English classes out-side school, producing phrases. In first language acquisition YLs produce telegraphic phrases (Brown 2000) or chunks of language. This, however, is unlike formulaic speech as it becomes creative through its link to reality, and meaning, whereas formulaic speech in EFL instruction is often the result of memorisation of set phrases without attention to real meaning (Ellis, 2005: principle one).

In the 'story approach', general vocabulary and formulaic speech from song or narrative have been carefully selected for efficiency in learning and link to meaning (Ellis, 1999). Words which can lend themselves to creativeness have been introduced in priority through the materials and activities e.g. 'Happy birthday' was transformable to 'happy teacher', 'happy friend' (lessons 15) and then to 'happy Jess cat' and 'happy friend Jesus' (lesson 19). This teaching strategy combined with the creativeness of the 'story approach' appears to give YLs the freedom to invent personal story, and therefore provides for creativity in language learning. This approach and teaching strategy seems to provide space to practice building metalinguistic and metacognitive skills (Ellis, 1999; Ellis, 2005) and using structure, and progressively integrating grammar rules ("empowerment"), like correctly placing the adjective, and using several adjectives with a noun; e.g. term 2 (section 6.3.4) students invented their own phrases (e.g. 'angry yellow giraffe) and the CT remarks the correct use of the plural ending 's' rule ('Happy birds').

The most predominant teaching activity in the pre-lessons was movement and in the post-lessons was question-description; the most predominant material in the pre-lessons was realia, and in the post-lessons, student personalised work (section 6.3.3, Table 6.10; and appendix 21). The relevance of these activities and materials appears to give weight to the efficiency of the theoretical framework: movement and realia encompass the notion of 'embodiment'; the question-description games and student personalised work encompass the notion of "ownership". These combined appear to lead to "empowerment" which is the development of EFL oral communicative skills.

As indicated in the theoretical framework, literacy skills seem to develop naturally from the capacity to communicate orally and can also serve as a support for the development of oral communicative skills; students naturally used their fingers to count (section 6.3.4: CT comment, term 1); within the 'story approach', this spontaneous reflex was used for developing EFL oral communicative skills, by counting the number of words in a phrase, and the number of letters in a word. Words and phrases were also written on the whiteboard; students appeared to use mother tongue skills (Mitchell, 2009) to

focus on pronunciation and word formation. Each language has its own particular sound patterns (Delahaie 2009; Pinker 1995), and for EFL YLs the challenge lies in distinguishing one word from the next within a phrase. These visual aids, and concretely enumerating language items, favoured the development of metacognitive and metalinguistic skills; in term 1, students were already attempting to read their personalised song-sheets (e.g. CT notes lessons eight and eleven), as they were building reading skills in their mother tongue. Learning to read stimulates the development of metalinguistic awareness (Lightbown and Spade, 2006), in first language and EFL learning.

6.4.2.2. Student Engagement with the 'story approach'

Students appear to have naturally and enthusiastically engaged with the 'story approach' teaching strategies (CT notes; parents' informal comments at the end of the academic year). Students seemed to manifest their appreciation through their enthusiasm to engage interactionally, demonstrated in the response rates for specific activities (section 6.3.3 and appendix 21) e.g. lesson eight: 33 exchanges in the first 6.34 minutes (S1); lesson 28: 42 exchanges within 8 minutes (S7). Appendix 21, and transcript analysis of student language (section 6.2), also demonstrate that though group interaction and responses are present, the quantity of individual student-teacher interaction, and individual student-student and teacher-student interaction and responses in English are substantially superior. Contrary to some current EFL programmes e.g. Chatterbox (Strange, 2009a, 2009b), I Love English (Wirth, 2008), and Kid's Box (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b), where students repeat pre-recorded language in unison, the focus of the 'story approach' teaching strategy (activities and materials) encourages and facilitates individual spontaneous student interaction within the development of individual oral communicative skills. Indeed, communicative contexts involve individual speakers, not groups speaking in unison to one another. Quantitative results demonstrate that, similarly to one word utterances produced by a group of students, the mean value for group formulaic speech production (FS-G) regressed between pre and post-tests. However, the mean value of occurrences of production of phrases of two words or more (CGS-I:

complex grammatical structures) for individual students increased significantly between pre and post-tests whereas the mean value for phrases produced by a group of students (CGS-G) remained quasi-absent throughout the year.

Quantitative and qualitative results, detailed in sections 6.2 and 6.3, emanating from these teaching strategies and specifically designed activities and materials appear to permit fast tracking EFL communicative oral language skills development (research questions four and five). These six year old YLs were able to acquire, in one academic year of 34 one hour weekly lessons, sufficient EFL skills to be able to communicate in correct complex grammatical structural language (phrases of two words or more) of their own inventiveness (spontaneous language).

6.4.3. The Understanding of Phenomenon for Application

Year one, parent and teacher questionnaires provided information concerning impressions on the current general level of EFL teaching in primary schools in France and an evaluation of the 'story approach'. A pre-intervention student interview and monitoring of specific language items (11 colours, counting 0-10, ten farm animal names) permitted a self-evaluation (self-reflection: Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank, 2011) by students of their current level of competence in English; results are discussed below.

The pre-intervention parent questionnaire indicated practically unanimous disappointment with general EFL instruction in France. Comments indicated a lack of contact with the target language, too few hours of instruction, and consequently weak EFL skills development. This seems confirmed by the pre-intervention monitoring. Parents seemed to feel a 'fun' programme would best cater for student needs. Parents who did not express an opinion commented that they have little experience with the French educational system (e.g. their child has no older siblings). Concerning the general primary teacher's questionnaire, the main comment was lack of time in the curriculum for extensive EFL instruction, with one hour weekly EFL classes already constituting substantial time relinquished at the cost of other subjects (e.g.

Math, French). In the first and second year of primary curriculum, most teachers used a current commercial programme of their choice for EFL teaching, and some would seek further resources (internet; British Council site). None of the teachers evaluated EFL oral language skills progress at any point in the year, nor gave homework of any nature. The development of reading and writing skills in English was avoided.

A pre-intervention student interview coupled with individual language-monitoring on specific language items, confirmed that six year old students do have an understanding of their own EFL knowledge and competence. This seems significant for the development of metalinguistic and metacognitive skills where applying rules of language, mastering pronunciation, and handling pragmatics are all fundamentals of EFL learning. The 'story approach' is based upon the development of these skills rather than that of formulaic speech which can only be considered communicative if it can be used by students creatively and meaningfully out-side the learning context (Ellis, 2005; Myles, et al. 1999). This was achieved through linking language to meaning and reality by taking it out of context through oral homework activities. Examples of students being able to convert formulaic speech into creative communicative language produced in different contexts to which they were learned, are demonstrated in the transcripts (e.g. lesson 29, 'Here I am'). Current EFL programmes (e.g. Strange, 2009a, 2009b; Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b) seem to focus instruction on fictitious story characters and song, developing skills which are limited to singing and reciting; consequently, students seem to have difficulty with applying language meaningfully to real-life communicative situations.

Achievement appears to be linked to student engagement. The positive evaluative CT comments (appendix 8) concerning the 'story approach' included materials, teaching activities, and the researcher's dynamic (teacher characteristics: Enever, 2011; Lucas, 2011a; Lucas and Villegas, 2011) in the application of the 'story approach', including different forms of evaluating progress. The CT particularly noted: student's, enthusiasm for song, engagement with the teaching strategies and activities and their attraction to the realia, including making realia, and the question-answer games involving

realia (e.g. winning a felt shape for each correct reply) (research questions four-five). The upgrade of the child with SEN from occasional to weekly EFL class attendance, the progress made (quantitative and qualitative results), and student enjoyment and implication with the teaching activities and strategies (CT notes), all appear to demonstrate enthusiasm.

The application of the 'story approach' within similar teaching contexts for classes of 20 to 30 students appears feasible. Results of this study demonstrate the possibility of developing EFL communicative skills in one-hour weekly classes. This appears to cater for time-restricted EFL learning contexts, and possibly satisfying parents' grievances concerning the lack of EFL skills development. The use of realia and student's own personalised work provide concrete items necessary for intellectual and EFL progress and seem particularly suited to the developmental needs of these YLs (Williams and Burden 1997; Donaldson 1978). They provide for "embodiment" and "ownership" as part of the theoretical framework. Unlike images in a book, employed by current programmes (e.g. Chatterbox: Strange, 2009a, 2009b), they can be manipulated, personalised, and adapted; they thus provide for creativity and spontaneous language, hence the code STEI-S (spontaneous individual student English) in the quantitative/qualitative analysis. Realia and student personalised work can be designed according to the child's learning and environmental culture; this permits greater engagement and therefore "ownership" as the child is able to construct personal 'story' from a familiar environment he/she is already in the process of mastering, allowing for richer qualitative interactions, and creative language development. (Ellis, 1999a). The video transcripts demonstrate extensive evidence of student's enthusiasm to carry out classroom duties ("embodiment"-"ownership") (field notes; transcripts; CT notes); phrases like 'please can I distribute?' were quickly mastered by the majority of students ("empowerment"). This seems to indicate the importance of linking EFL learning to real-life activities, for personal implication in learning, and equally relate to "embodiment" and "ownership" in the theoretical framework (e.g. students physically carrying out class duties/responsibilities).

Realia in the 'story approach' relates to the child's environment/culture/traditions, has the advantage of familiarity, is therefore easily obtainable, personal, and consequently also cost effective. Current course books and programmes recommended for YLs in this instructional context, present a one-for-all solution for EFL learning where the content is designed to fit all contexts, all social, and all cultural settings e.g. Chatterbox (Strange, 2009a, 2009b), I Love English (Wirth, 2008), and Kid's Box (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b). Yet the global community of YLs is diverse and rich in intrinsic value; these elements seem absent from present EFL programmes. The 'story approach' implies that different cultural settings require EFL programmes suited to their particular needs and contexts. This entails designing course books and programmes which take into account the native language and culture for EFL instruction, while also including universal notions of ethics, politeness, and open-mindedness to other (different) world cultures and traditions. Furthermore, developing general learning skills (e.g. learning to learn, executive functions) is an essential aspect of the 'story approach', as for any YL programme, as these skills facilitate future learning in all domains.

6.4.3.1. Classroom Monitoring

The informal and formal formative and summative language monitoring appears to have been successfully trialled through the 'story approach' and appears an integral part of any YL EFL programme. The tick-off charts for individual testing within the classroom were simple and effective to use by the EFL and CT teachers. However, one issue was difficulty in hearing some students who spoke very softly, possibly due to lack of confidence, and being unsure of their response (e.g. CT observation notes lesson 31). These students were asked to repeat their response; this was generally not more audible, possibly indicating the importance of confidence building (self-efficacy: Enever, 2011; Graham, 2007) in YLs. Inaudible language was excluded from quantitative analysis; indeed, whether classroom or laboratory settings, this pertinent issue of encouraging shy students to speak up seems a challenge. Student results appear to have been unaffected by being monitored

individually in front of the whole class. This language-monitoring was conducted so that "interference" prevented students from holding language in their short-term memory (e.g. two different monitoring-tasks carried out simultaneously) which has a 30 seconds duration (Williams and Burden, 1997); therefore, students would only be able to reply correctly if they already had the knowledge e.g. Lesson 27: though students KTH and PT came after KS, who has extensive English at home and performed well, both KTH and PT did badly on the language-monitoring task. Individual monitoring with all the students in the class seems to demonstrate that a student will not perform much better on a monitoring-task simply by watching or listening to those who come before. The good performer's influence seems minimal; the following student either has the knowledge or does not. However, concerning activity-tasks, watching, and listening to peers (Graham and Macaro, 2008) does seem to influence proficiency development and learning over time; this was demonstrated through the progress students made over the academic year (quantitative and qualitative results).

In contrast to individual language-monitoring in the classroom, group language monitoring proved less reliable. Students had a tendency of whispering the answers to each other or looking at one another to verify or confirm language during the monitoring-task (e.g. CT observation notes and researcher field notes: lesson five song-testing). These group "tests", though less reliable for the evaluation of student's knowledge, proved efficient as a means of peer to peer instruction (peer support: Oliver, 1998). In classroom learning, students generally appeared supportive of each other, often translating words, and verifying meaning between themselves (e.g. CT notes lesson 29). Student's attachment to meaning was also demonstrated by their spontaneous need to translate words and sentences into their mother tongue (Mitchell, 2009). The CT noted that students seem to naturally translate English into their native language (e.g. CT notes lesson 21, where the student simultaneously translates the English story being read aloud, into French).

For group song/formulaic speech testing (lesson eight) field notes indicate that students remained calm and quiet despite sitting through the activity and waiting their turn. This appears to indicate that sustained activity can hold the

classes attention, and students appear to enjoy challenge (also evidenced through the pilot study results chapter five section:5.3.2.3). The CT, however, commented that the two students, who have extensive English at home, caused disturbance for others. This possibly demonstrates the importance of catering for multiple levels within EFL class-teaching. Though is not always practical in classes of 20-30 students, requires careful consideration.

Another important point for EFL instruction is student's spontaneous inclination to repeat language (e.g. Lesson 20 CT notes: the student imitates the EFL teacher when she drops her glasses). In the 'story approach', activities naturally generated repetition, rather than providing set phrases on a CD for the class to repeat in unison, as in current commercial programmes (e.g. Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b; Strange, 2009a, 2009b; Wirth, 2008). Class activities generated student participation creating an interactive environment with each student bringing wealth to the learning situation; mistakes enabled reviewing structure and correct responses provided a model for other students. Students tended to make the same or similar mistakes related to their current interlanguage level (Mackey, 1999). Recordings on a CD can possibly provide a correct model for learners but appear to remain restrictive by not responding to specific, real-time, needs. These needs are often difficult to address directly if there is no recourse to native language use. Expressing meaning through pictures, gestures, or mimic is insufficient for many words, like 'cosiest' or 'kindest' (lesson 29); students seem to require an explanation in their native language (Enever, 2011) for efficient learning.

6.4.3.2. Meaning and Native Language Use

Quantitative and qualitative results (sections 6.2-6.3) appear to endorse mother tongue use in EFL classroom instruction, particularly for conveying meaning (research question three). Table 6.10 lists advantages and disadvantages experienced through this study. The advantages seem to demonstrate effectiveness for explicit EFL learning, and the disadvantage of less target language in-put seems not to have negatively affected target language out-put. However, the disadvantage of requiring EFL teachers

possessing communicative skills in the student's native language demands careful consideration with regard to the availability of qualified EFL teachers and teacher training.

Table 6.11.
Advantages and Disadvantages of Native Language Use in the EFL Classroom

Advantages	Disadvantages
Grammar rules can be taught	Less target language input
Pragmatics can be explained	Requires EFL teachers who have good oral communicative skills in the student's native language
Pronunciation can be practiced and differences easily understood	
Instruction for activities can easily be understood and quickly executed	
Time economical as students understand rapidly	
Easier to maintain discipline particularly in large classes	
Permits giving valuable feedback to students; encouraging those who lack confidence and curtailing mockery from insensitive students particularly in oral communicative instructional settings	

Meaning plays a fundamental role in language learning (Wells 1986; Yule 2010); through rehearsal, language can be retained in the long-term memory; "this may take the form of simple repetition or more elaborate means which involve the association of meaning to what is to be remembered" (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 16). The 'story approach' is designed to permit language leaning to progress in a parallel manner where material is revisited in view of building upon it in a variety of ways (Gee, 1994) e.g. lesson 18: due to familiarity with the word 'who', in questions in previous lessons, (e.g. 'who would like to distribute?') students were able to understand a new question,

'Who is this?' In another instance, student KD was able to deduct meaning through simply understanding two key words ('baby', 'name') in the question: "what is the baby's name?"

6.4.3.3. Developing EFL Oral Communicative Skills

According to Wells (Wells, 1986), native language learning proceeds in five stages of which question forming (what, where) appears early on (stage 2), and replying to questions comes later (stage 5). By lesson 32 a number of students were asking questions, e.g. 'how are you today?' 'Did you sleep well?' and replying with phrases like 'got a cold' (student TE: lesson 31). EFL learning seems to follow the same stages of development as native language learning but not necessarily at the same pace. This pace appears to be dependent upon the type of EFL teaching instruction (Ellis, 2005). The 'story approach' used the question form as a basis for the development of oral communicative skills (the pedagogy of the question form: Mackey and Philp, 1998; Boyd and Rubin, 2006), as questions are inherent to the YL (Fisher, 2005), and appear to be the base of all communicative interaction.

Quantitative and qualitative results of this intervention study demonstrate a majority of one word utterances for individual students, (WR-I) at the start of the intervention, which appear to be replaced by the end of the academic year with phrases of two words or more (CGS-I) (research question four). As in native language acquisition, EFL learners progress from one word utterances to meaningful phrases involving syntax (Wells 1986; Steinberg and Sciarini 2006). Similarly, EFL Students tended to extend target language grammar rules when speaking creatively (developmental errors: Lightbown and Spada, 2006), just as English native language learners when learning mother tongue (Gee, 1994), like applying the final 's' systematically to make the plural e.g. 'mouses' (student BT lesson 29: transcript and field notes); these instances provided an opportunity for grammar explanation. Within the 'story approach', developing language skills takes the form of building blocks, where language elements combine, to rapidly master vocabulary and structure; language is directly related to a real environment, while leaving

space for creativity in developing communicative skills, just as in mother tongue development.

Results seem to demonstrate the importance of movement, interaction, and personalising work within activities design. The pre-lessons include more activities and shorter activities than post-lessons to cater for YLs need for diversity given their short attention span and their curiosity in the process of negotiating meaning (Ellis, 1999; Fisher, 2005; Gee, 1994; Wells, 1986). Quantitative and qualitative results of a 'story approach' within a classroom instructional setting, seem to demonstrate that students are stimulated and mutually encouraged to learn from one another and engage in the learning process, by evaluating their own knowledge through listening and participating, learning and rehearsing vocabulary, grammar rules, meaning and pronunciation.

The quantitative and qualitative results (sections 6.2 and 6.3) appear to suggest that the theoretical framework and 'story approach' can be applied effectively in similar YL contexts with the same characteristics of the present study, including:

- restricted time for EFL classroom instruction (one hour weekly);

- limited access to the target language;

- classes of 20 to 30 students;

- lack of evaluation (formative and summative) of EFL language skills development.

Conversely, it appears that the theoretical framework and 'story approach' are not restricted to an EFL context, but could be applied to any YL foreign language instructional setting, for example, French as a foreign language for native English speaking YLs.

6.4.3.4. Inductive analysis through the coded transcript data

Chapter three describes a theoretical framework for the design of a 'story approach'. Inductive qualitative analysis of the transcript data led to the development of 13 codes (chapter five, section 5.2.5.) relating to the target language produced by the YLs in this year one intervention The goals of qualitative analysis include developing categories/themes to describe meaning (Mackey and Gass, 2005) Within inductive qualitative research this study has adopted procedures involving systematic coding of data, employing open, axial, and selective coding, until saturation (Corbin and Strauss, 1990), "to examine data from multiple vantage points" (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p.179). The purpose is to provide an in-depth analysis of student target language output in the transcripts, and "not only to uncover relevant conditions, but also to determine how the actors respond to changing conditions and to the consequences of their actions", (Corbin and Strauss, 1990, p. 5). Inductive analysis of the coded transcript data appears to contribute to the validation of the theoretical framework in chapter three, but equally reveals further analysis is required to fully reflect the root of, and path to, EFL oral communicative competence in YLs. Hence, analysis in years two and three.

6.4.4 'Story approach': Evaluation

This section presents an evaluation of the 'story approach' year one intervention, within the perspective of the discussion and the research aims and questions which have guided this study (chapter one).

The correlation results of this first year primary study, of meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher (M-T) and one word answers by individual students (code WR-I), Meaning-Teacher (M-T) and the production of phrases of two words or more by individual students (code CGS-I), individual responses to questions in English (code REI), and individual student spontaneous creative language (code STEI-S) appear to be equally reflected in the qualitative results of the language transcripts (Table 6.1 for full code descriptions). These results appear encouraging despite the small sample size,

implying possibly, greater confidence in correlation test results if these were carried out on a larger sample size (Greasley, 2008). These results appear to give weight to native language use in the EFL classroom (research question three).

Results appear to demonstrate that EFL learning, needs to be designed to the specific context in which the students are evolving and a one for all programme (e.g. Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014b; Nixon and Tomlinson, 2017), cannot fulfil the learning and developmental process in all instructional settings, contexts, and cultures. Current commercial programmes seem limited in their scope as they appear not systematically designed for use in individual contexts; their application in second language instructional settings maybe effective, but seem unsuitable for EFL instruction, particularly in restricted instructional and target language settings, as is the context in this study. In this study, realia and materials have been carefully selected according to the theoretical framework and 'story approach', from within the environment and therefore relate to the student's immediate surroundings ('personal' story); this implies a potentially economically viable and flexible programme which could also suit the needs of financially restricted or unconventional settings.

The end of year informal self-evaluation student questionnaire, demonstrated that more than two thirds of the class now felt they could sing, ask, and reply to questions, knew many words (speaking and comprehension), and count up to 10, in English; a third of the class felt confident in counting up to 20. Favourite activities for most of the students were class activities/tasks and games. These activities correspond to the developmental age of these students, and the EFL oral skills competence they felt that they had acquired gave weight to the quantitative and qualitative results in sections 6.2 and 6.3 (research question four and five).

However, the 'story approach' presents some reservations. The importance placed on meaning conveyed through the native language implies the necessity for bi-lingual teachers in EFL classroom instructional settings. Current commercial programmes preclude the use of the mother tongue, thus any EFL teacher can teach in any EFL setting. This, however, presents ethical

considerations of teachers operating in unfamiliar cultures at the risk of being uninformed as to what is culturally acceptable practice in a given place (Hoff, 2006). Another requirement of the 'story approach' is the need to design programmes suited directly to the cultural context of the instructional setting. This demands greater implication from EFL programme and curriculum designers and publishers compared to the present situation where EFL programmes are considered versatile enough for worldwide use regardless of native language or cultural implications. For example, the Kid's Box Teacher's Books seems to indicate that this programme is "taken by pupils all over the world" (Frino, et al. 2014, p.vi; Frino, et al. 2014a, p.vi).

Teacher characteristics are an important factor in any YL instructional setting (chapter 3 section 3.3.12), and contribute to learning outcomes and student progress (Enever, 2011; Lucas, 2011a; Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Villegas and Lucas, 2002). This intervention was carried out by an experienced, YL EFL teacher (the researcher) in-line with appreciable characteristics for YL teaching (Enever, 2011), providing advantage for the full potential of the 'story approach' to be realised. Moreover, the 'story approach' teaching strategies and materials were seamlessly implemented. Training sessions would possibly be required for teachers new to the 'story approach', to ensure accurate instructional strategies and material use, and appropriate teacher characteristics for YL instruction.

The parents were eager for their children's progress (questionnaire results), which provides an additional contributing factor to these encouraging first year results. Being principally from a middle-class background, their educational and socio-economic status provided support (Enever, 2011; Kuchah, 2018; Murphy, 2018) to the 'story approach'. Though the parents were mono-lingual French speaking adults, their literacy skill permitted conducting oral homework with their children through writing down the children's phonetical responses, which were then analysed by the researcher.

6.4.5. Implications for Further Study

In view of evaluating and validating the theoretical framework within the context of other languages and cultures, further trialling of the theoretical framework and 'story approach' would be required. Research on specific teacher-training would be necessary for native English speakers to undertake EFL classroom instruction in English (target language) and the native language of the instructional setting. Within the 'story approach', this could imply that monolingual EFL teachers would be required to become proficient in another language and culture; or that native language speakers of a given cultural setting, would also be sufficiently proficient in English to teach EFL.

An additional area of research would be the possibility of reversing the instructional setting; native English speaking YLs could receive FL instruction through the theoretical framework and 'story approach'. For example, research could involve trialling a 'story approach' programme for English speaking YLs to learn French, Chinese, or Arabic. Furthermore, research could be conducted on testing/trialling the framework and 'story approach' in non-English language settings, such as Spanish YLs learning German or Chinese. This would further entail FL teachers of the native language in question, to become proficient in the instructional language.

7. Second Year Primary Study 2014-2015

This second year primary study includes: section one, which summarises the participants and the data collection instruments and procedures; sections two and three, which concern the quantitative and qualitative data analysis and results; section four, which involves the discussion; section five, presents the conclusion drawing together elements from the quantitative and qualitative analysis, results, and discussion in relation to classroom practice. As in the first year primary study, the Case Study Group (CSG) was imbedded in this second year primary class.

The purpose of this second year study was to investigate the research aims and questions (chapter one) in relation to second year primary students not having previously had the 'story approach' intervention, and the on-going progress of the CSG.

7.1. Participants, Instruments, and Procedures

Participants were selected according to specific criteria (purposive, non-probability, sampling procedure). Qualitative data was gathered from 23 students and quantitative from 14 students, including one child with special needs, and the CSG students who were imbedded in this class. The mean age for the 23 students was 86.56 months, with a range of 80 to 95 months; eldest was the child with SEN.

Data collection included: the pre-intervention interview, and language monitoring; coded transcripts of the video recordings, which also permitted

monitoring the CSG progress; and parent reports on language produced outside the instructional context (Gee, 1994).

As in year one, the question form was largely used to develop oral communicative skills. Formulaic speech provided a trampoline (Gee, 1994; Myles, et al. 1999) for further learning through "economy" in language learning where a phrase learned could be a question or a response serving several purposes (e.g. "please can I distribute?") while providing for "ownership" and "embodiment". Questioning is fundamental to FLA development (Pinker 1995); the same appears to apply to EFL in YLs (Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Mackey and Philp, 1998).

Year two built on year one vocabulary (e.g. feelings, colours and cardinal numbers 0-20) to include the pronouns "I" and "she", 15 different verbs, the article 'a', the conjunction "and", combining adjectives to form longer phrases and re-enforcing the plural final 's' ending e.g. Lesson 33: "she has a brown dog"; "I make some cakes". This was achieved by introducing language through 'story' according to the theoretical framework. Authentic stories for native speakers provided a support; students were encouraged to build on this language inventively and creatively (Ellis, 1999a; Ellis, 2005).

'Story approach' material and realia were re-conducted and adapted throughout year two, in addition to new materials. A teaching strategy for oral communicative skills development, involved students engaging in literacy activities (reading and composing phrases) through matching magnetic words to magnetic pictures for description activities. Student's attention was drawn to ('noticing') (Ellis, 2005; Nassaji, 2016b) key words and phrases in English written on the whiteboard. These activities appear to contribute to the development of oral skills through reading aloud (pronunciation, vocabulary, meaning). Magnetic pictures were also used separately for oral description activities, reinforced through reading words and drawing corresponding pictures (task-based activities: Ellis, 2005: Gass, et al. 2005). These activities were also important in view of the FME requirement for third year primary students to build English reading comprehension skills (chapter four: Table 4.1), though this was not the principle aim of the research.

Refer to chapter four Methodology, for further details concerning participants (section 4.2), instruments (section 4.3), procedures (section 4.4), and coding (section 4.5).

7.2. Quantitative Data Analysis and Results

7.2.1. Descriptive and Inferential Statistical Analyses

Out of the 35 approximately one-hour lessons (55-75 minutes), of the academic year, four lessons at the start of the year (lessons 1-4) and four at the end (lessons 27-30), were transcribed and analysed through content analysis. Quantitative data analysis focused on oral communicative language skills progress through the number of words and phrases produced in pre-tests compared to post-tests. Given the small number of questions produced in student output over the year, (eight in post-lessons 28, 29, 30), these were included in the qualitative analysis only. The number of words and phrases produced per 5-minute span were aggregated for pre and post-tests to determine composite scores for analysis. The words and phrases selected for analysis came from the seven students in the CSG and the seven students selected from the class according to specific criteria to match the CSG.

Not every word or phrase spoken by the 14 students within the 11 five minute spans was counted. The following were excluded: students repeating after one another or after the EFL teacher within a language learning repetition exercise; singing; numbers, if part of a counting exercise. However, repetition of student language was counted: 1) if students were required to say the same response in a game or activity e.g. during book distribution: EFL-T: "Where are you?", Student: "Here I am!"; 2) if the student was repeating his own language spontaneously, or as a model for the class (considered demonstrating confidence in language ability). A phrase was defined as being two words or more which carry meaning and make sense within the context of the discourse (Pearsall, 1999).

Descriptive analysis enabled calculating the means for output (target language produced) for pre and post-tests, and inferential analysis (Wilcoxon paired samples test) permitted determining if the increase in output of oral communicative skills was statistically significant. It is important to emphasise that, due to the small sample size, inferential statistical results are only an indication of a possible direction and are to be considered with great caution.

7.2.2. Descriptive Analyses and Results

Descriptive analysis involved the mean number of occurrences concerning production of language (words and phrases) at the start and end of the intervention.

Table 7.1 presents the mean (M) and standard deviation pre and post-test results for words and phrases for the restricted data set. Results indicate a small increase in the mean between pre-tests and post-tests for words whereas there is an important progression in the production of phrases between pre-tests and post-tests.

Table 7.1.
Mean and (Standard deviation) for words and phrases pre and post tests for Restricted Data Set (11 minute spans)

n	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
	Words PRE-TEST	Words POST-TEST	Phrases PRE-TEST	Phrases POST-TEST
11	9.00 (7.25)	12.09 (6.96)	6.09 (11.51)	33.63 (14.20)

The large standard deviation results for words pre-tests and post-tests indicate a certain amount of variation from the mean in the data in the group under study. Indeed, the data reveals that some five minute spans are rich in the production of out-put, whereas other five minute spans reflect very little or no production. Concerning the phrases pre-test, the standard deviation result is larger than the mean, indicating an even greater variance of data from the mean than for words, whereas for phrases post-test the small standard deviation result compared to the mean reflects that the mean adequately

represents the data. As for first year primary, these results seem to demonstrate that teaching activities stimulate the production of output, possibly explaining the large standard deviation results. However, given that the same activities were carried through the year (section 7.3: qualitative analyses), the results reflect the noteworthy progress students made in the production of phrases of two words or more between the start and the end of the year. These results indicate that whereas students' progress in word output between pre and post-tests was marginal, the progress in phrases output was substantial (research question four).

7.2.3. Inferential Analyses and Results

Inferential statistical analysis involved measures of difference through hypothesis testing; Wilcoxon test for paired samples were conducted. As in year one study, though utmost attention was given to transcription of student language and meticulously isolating individual student utterances, this testing was not conducted in isolated laboratory style due to the nature of the research. It is to be emphasised that these statistical results are merely indicative of a direction, and are to be interpreted with great caution.

Related (paired) samples Wilcoxon tests were conducted using SPSS 26 on the restricted data set (11 five minute spans). In this intervention, the related samples Wilcoxon tests involved examining results from the same group (n=14) over 11 five minute spans for 4 pre-tests and 4 post-tests for words and phrases as indicated in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2.
Inferential Statistical Results for the Restricted Data Set of 11 five minute spans, for words and phrases.

n=11		Median	Z Pre- Post	Sig. (2- tailed) P value	Effect size r
Pre-test Post-test	words	8.00 11.00	-1.129	.259	-0.240
Pre-test Post-test	phrases	3.00 35.00	-2.669	.008	-0.569

Results reported in Table 7.2 demonstrated the following. The Wilcoxon signed-ranks tests indicated that for phrases, the median post-test scores/ranks were statistically significantly higher than the median pre-test scores. However, in contrast, concerning words, results indicated no statistically significant difference between median pre-test and post-test ranks. Effect size was calculated to provide added confidence in the p value due to the small sample size (Cohen, et al. 2011 pp. 616).

7.2.4 Inter-rater Reliability: Quantitative

This section reports the inter-rater procedures, analysis, and results of the quantitative data in year two study. In the interests of validity and reliability, and to ensure objectivity, transcripts used for gathering data for statistical analysis were independently analysed by a rater disassociated with the study.

The inter-rater reliability process proved simpler than for year one, where data coding was more complex. The rater, however, needed to be vigilant about only counting the utterances produced by the 14 students selected for quantitative analysis, and not the whole class of 23 students; this process was facilitated by each utterance being attributed (alphabetic coding) to the particular student speaking e.g. "I'm happy and ready for work" (BQ). Only individual student utterances were counted in the analysis (not group utterances), the focus being individual student oral communicative language competence. In contrast to year one, the process of counting individual student utterances was simplified as only individual student utterances (words and phrases) had been transcribed, therefore avoiding discrepancies. Indeed, in the year one study, as both group and individual utterances had been transcribed, great care was required in only counting individual utterances. Inter-rater counting also proved simpler than in year one as the context had no bearing on the language to be included; only counting, singing and certain repetition of language for learning activities were excluded. However, as in year one, carefully reading the transcripts and double-checking results was

essential. The few discrepancies were discussed, culminating in 100% agreement; therefore correlational analysis was unnecessary.

7.3. Qualitative Data Analysis and Results

As for primary year one study, data has been analysed through content analysis, by counting the frequency of phenomena and the observation of emergent patterns (Saldana, 2013). Analysis focuses on the qualitative data in the field notes, lesson plans, student interviews, class teacher (CT) independent observation notes, and questionnaires; these allow for in depth analysis, and also permit interpretation of the quantitative data (Saldana, 2013), which could provide a possible sense of direction, despite the small sample size.

As for year one, qualitative data analysis has taken a simultaneous deductive-inductive approach. In view of qualitatively validating the theoretical framework, data has been gathered and analysed to support the hypothesis that personal story is central to EFL learning. Similarly to year one, analysis has remained open to emerging themes (Coolican, 2014). This study encompasses three principle aspects for the development of EFL oral communicative skills in native French speaking primary school students: predicting and controlling events; explaining the how and why of phenomenon; providing vision and direction for their application (Saldana, 2013). "The aim is ultimately to build a theoretical explanation by specifying phenomena in terms of conditions that give rise to them, how they are expressed through action/interaction, the consequences that result from them, and variations of these qualifiers" (Corbin and Strauss, 1990, p.9).

7.3.1. Pre-intervention Class Interview and Baseline Testing

An informal class interview permitted gathering information on the students' current EFL level; student replies to the four questions (Table 7.3) were recorded. The interview was followed by the summative testing of the

language elements featuring in questions 1-3; question four involved students saying anything they could in English. The CT and researcher independently noted responses and compared results. Table 7.3 indicates students' responses for the three specific questions and the total language produced by 17 students from the class of 23, for question four, "Can you say anything else in English?" Results seem to indicate limited oral production for second year primary students who had 45-minute weekly EFL classes in the previous academic year.

Concerning question four, unlike in year one for the same question, no students counted or said numbers. Out of the 30 words pronounced, "dog" was said seven times; Nintendo is a trade name; the words yes and no, said twice each, could be read from the whiteboard; "cat" was said twice and "hello" and "goodbye" once each. Within the language produced in this research context, these are considered high frequency words; "elephant" is the same word in French. These make a total of 17 basic words. The remaining 13 words are low frequency (glasses x 2; what; shoes x 2; shirt; rabbit; boys; sheep; donkey; camel; run; pig) and most could be considered language beyond the minimum students could be expected to know in second year primary, according to commercial programmes. Nine of these 13 words were said by the CSG, with "run" being the only verb; the word "pig" was said by the student with SEN who followed the 'story approach' intervention the previous year. Of the remaining three words, two were said by students who spoke another language at home or had access to the target language outside school. Subsequently, only one word ("sheep") out of the 30, was said by a student who had had a general approach to EFL learning the year before, was from a totally French native speaking family with no access to the target language outside school, and not having had the 'story approach' intervention. The four phrases, however, were said by four students who had a general approach to EFL the previous year, though two of which came from non-native French speaking families. These results will be discussed with regard to the literature review and overall results.

Table 7.3.
Pre-intervention interview responses

Students (*n*=23)	1 Can you count 0-10?	2 Can you say the colours?	3 Can you say the animal names?	4 Can you say anything else in English? Total language produced
Yes	20	11	5	<u>WORDS</u>: 30
No	1	1	10	Glasses; no; dog; dog; what; glasses; shoes; Nintendo; yes; no; goodbye; hello; shirt; yes; dog; cat; dog; rabbit; dog; cat dog shoes; boys; elephant; sheep; donkey; camel; run; dog; pig.
Unsure	2	11	8	
				<u>PHRASES</u>: 4 No don't speak English; my friend boys; sit down; thank you very much.

Table 7.4 reports the pre-intervention summative monitoring results of questions one-three, the numbers, colours and animal names, together with the results for student self-evaluation of these language items for 22 students (one absent). The results in Table 7.4 demonstrate that for numbers 0-10, all the students were successful in their self-evaluation and the monitoring. However, only three students said zero (KD, TE, BN); these were all CGS students. For the colours monitoring, only five students were successful, of which four were CSG students. The majority were correct in their self-evaluation (15 students); the seven students who made an incorrect self-evaluation, all believed that they knew the colours in English. Only two students, both from the CSG, could say the animal names. For the animal names, less students were able to correctly self-evaluate. Out of the nine who were incorrect, four students over-estimated their knowledge answering yes to the question at the interview, and five under-estimated their knowledge and answered no to the question.

Table 7.4
Results of self-evaluation and pre-intervention summative testing

Students (n=22)	Numbers 0-10	11 Colours	10 Animal names
Test Results Number of students to get 80% of language items correct	22	5	2
Correct self-evaluation	22	15	13
Incorrect self-evaluation	0	7	9

7.3.2. Number of Occurrences for Teaching and Learning in the Pre and Post Lessons

The four pre and post-lesson transcripts for second year primary revealed interesting qualitative results. Teaching strategies focused on: the development of MCS, including executive functions, learning to learn, and using grammatical knowledge appropriately; MLS development, including the awareness of lexis, grammar rules, pragmatics, and pronunciation. Metacognitive strategies "include an awareness of what one is doing and the strategies one is employing, as well as a knowledge about the actual process of learning" (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.148). Metacognitive skills involve the capacity of being consciously aware of and capable of formulating and applying appropriately one's own knowledge. Metalinguistic awareness is "the ability to treat language as an object separate from the meaning it conveys" (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 8) and is the capacity to talk about language and not just use it to transmit information (Lightbown and Spade, 2006).

Tables 7.5 and 7.6 report the number of instances for the following six categories for the four pre and four post-lessons which were transcribed: teaching of MCS and MLS (including meaning); students repeating language naturally; auto-correction (students spontaneously self-correcting their own language errors); peer to peer correction (students correcting peers); the

extent of participation from students (number of hands raised). The field notes, journal notes, and CT notes permitted on-going memo writing for building categories (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). The number of instances in the transcripts, in each category on Tables 7.5 and 7.6, were colour coded and counted. "Categories are the cornerstones of a developing theory. They provide the means by which a theory can be integrated" (Corbin and Strauss, 1990, p.7). These categories permitted comparing phenomenon and making links (Corbin and Strauss, 1990) with year one analysis and results; and investigating the validation of the theoretical framework inductively: EFL oral communicative skills resulting from "empowerment", reached through "embodiment" and "ownership", which emanate from personal story; deductively: the centrality of personal story emanating "embodiment " and "ownership" leading to "empowerment" which is the development of EFL oral communicative skills).

Column one in Tables 7.5 and 7.6 summarises activities in the pre and post-lessons for the class of 23 students. The pre-intervention oral language-monitoring took place in lessons one-five (B-Oral testing). Students displayed their current speaking skills in, counting 0-10, 11 colours, 10 animal names, and 14 actions. This language-monitoring was conducted using realia (colour cushions; plastic animal; pictures depicting actions). Questioning and interaction games (speaking), largely prompted by realia, took place throughout the year; these provided for speaking practice, self-evaluation, peer-evaluation and informal (formative) oral language-monitoring. Indeed, Bywater, (2009), stresses the inter-relationship of pedagogy, curriculum, and testing for the development and assessment of speaking skills. Topics included, the weather, and questions pertaining to the student's daily life ("personal story"). Questioning included display and genuine questions (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Mackey and Silver, 2005). A display question is when the answer is known e.g. "What is your name?" (the EFL-T knows all the student's names); a genuine question is one where the answer is unknown e.g. "How are you today?". Interaction involved students replying, or where meaning (words, phrases, grammar rules) was conveyed and discussed (English and French).

Table 7.5.
Aggregation of instances relating to the 4 pre-lessons

4 pre-lessons Lesson time	Activities	Instances of meta-cognitive teaching	Instances of meta-linguistic teaching and meaning	Instances where students <u>repeat</u> language naturally	Instances where students auto-correct	Instances where students correct peers	Students' hands raised Mini-Maxi
Lesson 1 59 min	-Questioning -Interaction -Class interview -Action game -Manual activity -B-Oral testing	12	11	0	0	0	2-12
Lesson 2 58 min	-Questioning -Interaction -Song clip -Singing/movement -B-Oral testing	6	14	3	1	0	1-11
Lesson 3 60 min	-Questioning -Interaction -Manual activity -B-Oral testing	12	15	2	0	0	2-11
Lesson 4 60 min	-Questioning -Interaction -Manual activity -Song clip -B-Oral testing	10	23	2	0	0	2-23
TOTAL		40	63	7	1	0	

Activities in Table 7.6 involved: phrases for picture description (Phrases pic-description), using images from a book; story picture description (storytelling), using 3D magnetic pictures; oral question-answer games combined with manual activity (MAS-Q/A game: Manual Activities Speaking-Question/Answer game). The conversation practice activities involved students introducing themselves individually, in front of the class, with their name and age and telling the class two things about themselves

using 12 pictures as prompts. These pictures had been adapted from a storybook to teach verbs to the students. Language-monitoring took place in lesson 33. Students performed this activity in pairs, as a conversation. Results were video and manually recorded, but due to time constraints, the actual transcripts have not been reported. Generally, manual activities involved drawing, sticking, cutting, placing pictures or elements, filing, and distributing materials or books to the class. Counting 0 to 20 was accompanied by clapping movement (0-20 with movement).

Table 7.6.
Aggregation of instances relating to the 4 post-lessons

4 post-lessons Lesson time	Activities	Instances of meta-cognitive teaching	Instances of meta-linguistic teaching and meaning	Instances where students <u>repeat</u> language naturally	Instances where students auto-correct	Instances where students correct peers	Students' hands raised Mini-Maxi
Lesson 27 68 min	-Read-Speak Q/A game -Speaking Q/A game -Manual activity -MAS-Q/A game -Action game -Phrases pic-description	33	39	13	2	7	1-14
Lesson 28 67 min	-Questioning -Interaction -Phrases pic-description -0-20 with movement -Storytelling -Manual activity -MAS-Q/A game -singing/movement	32	38	1	7	17	2-18
Lesson 29 64 min	-Questionning -Interaction -Phrases pic-description -Conversation practice -Questioning	28	35	2	2	13	1-15

	-Interaction -0-20 with movement -Manual activity -MAS-Q/A game -singing/movement						
Lesson 30 70 min	-Questioning -Interaction -Storytelling -0-20 with movement -Conversation practice -Phrases pic-description -Action game -Manual activity -MAS-Q/A game	26	43	3	6	5	1-17
TOTAL		119	155	19	17	42	

The action game was a comprehension and speaking exercise (Action game). This involved students, each saying in turn as many actions as they could, for the class to perform; pictures of the 14 actions were displayed to prompt language production. In the pre-lessons, the action game formed part of the pre-intervention language-monitoring and following this was used by the EFL-T as a comprehension skills development activity (the researcher led the activity and added extra actions for students to learn). Students sometimes repeated language spontaneously (naturally), corrected themselves (auto-correction) and corrected their peers. The raised hands are a minimum to maximum number of hands raised for participation throughout the lesson (N=23).

Noteworthy results, not indicated on Tables 7.5 and 7.6, are numerous instances of peer support (Oliver, 1998) in the pre and post-lessons. In lesson 30 there are four instances where the students correct the teacher; these points seem to demonstrate the importance of listening skills (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008). Despite the EFL teacher's teaching strategy of using the native language for explanations and therefore regular code-

switching, there were only two instances of code switching from the students (lessons 28 and 30). The progress of one particular student (PG) (selected according to the criteria of the CSG), has been tracked and will be discussed in the following section. PG initially had substantial difficulty with EFL oral language skills, but gradually improved.

Parent Reports on the oral homework provided important data on students' capacity to reproduce oral language outside the classroom context. This data also provided triangulation concerning student progress (research question four), through this evaluation, which was made independently of the researcher and CT. Students practiced describing pictures in class, using 15 different verbs (to wake up, to get out of, to brush, to eat, to go to, to like, to paint, to write, to be, to jump, to make, to play, to put on, to watch, to tell) and were asked to describe the same pictures at home under the supervision of more knowledgeable persons (e.g. parents), who were asked to comment on the child's performance. Each week the students had a different set of three pictures to describe and were asked to say one phrase per picture using verbs learned in class. Tables 7.7 and 7.8 report results for the five sets of homework given over seven weeks (23rd April-4th June 2015). Set one was given in the week immediately preceding the two week spring break, and the remaining four after the break over four consecutive weeks. Indeed, Ellis stresses the importance of extensive out-put (Ellis, 2005, principles seven-eight), and formulaic speech requires being taken out of context for it to become creative (Myles, et al. 1998; Myles, et al. 1999).

Parents were encouraged to comment as objectively as possible on their children, to enable gathering information to determine the efficiency of the 'story approach' in teaching and developing EFL skills, through the child's capacity to produce language in a new context. To optimise objectivity, parents were asked to write down the child's exact wording (for the researcher to analyse), indicating if the phrases were: comprehensibly correct i.e. taking into account pronunciation or grammar errors; correct but required help; partially correct or incomplete phrase; totally incorrect. The parent's eagerness to see their children's progress (parent participants: chapter 3 section 3.3.12; chapter 4: section 4.2; chapter 6:section 6.4.4) and being

principally from a middle-class background, their educational and socio-economic status provided support (Enever, 2011; Kuchah, 2018; Murphy, 2018) to the intervention. Despite the parents being mono-lingual French speaking adults, their literacy skill permitted conducting oral homework with their children, for analysis by the researcher. This was conducted through parents having a written example of what a correct response could be for a picture description, and writing down the child's actual phonetical response. For example, parent XX for student TE wrote "I mime some cakes" (the verb response learned by the students was "make", but this student clearly did not say "make") i.e. parents textually wrote down their child's response. In this example, the word "cake" was a facilitating factor, as it is the same word in French. Parents' active engagement with the learning process can be a source of motivation for YLs (Lucas, 2011), encouraging "empowerment" (Chapter 3 section: 3.1.4).

As year two intervention focus was on verbs, Table 7.7 reports the number of phrases students produced using a verb for each homework picture. Table 7.8 reports the number of comprehensibly correct phrases each student produced, for these same pictures, even if they did not contain a verb.

Comparing the results of Tables 7.7 and 7.8 column A, there were overall, more students who said comprehensibly correct phrases (Table 7.8: 54 students) than students who said phrases containing a verb (Table 7.7: 49 students). This seems to indicate that communicative skills can involve making oneself understood, even if grammar and pronunciation are still developing. According to Long (FonF), within implicit/explicit instruction, learners employ knowledge according to their own "powerful cognitive contribution" (Long, 2009, p.378).

Table 7.7.

Parent reports concerning results of 5 sets of oral homework for phrases containing a verb

23 Students	A Number of students who said 3 phrases using a verb	B Number of students who said 2 phrases using a verb	C Number of students who said 1 phrase using a verb	D Number of students who said no phrases with a verb	E Number of students who said a verb alone	Number of students absent
Homework 1 Lesson 26	12	8	1	0	1	1
Homework 2 Lesson 27	13	4	4	2	0	0
Homework 3 Lesson 28	8	10	4	1	0	0
Homework 4 Lesson 29	9	6	4	4	0	0
Homework 5 Lesson 30	7	6	4	4	0	2
TOTAL	49	34	17	11	1	3

Table 7.8.
Parent reports concerning results of 5 sets of oral homework for comprehensibly correct language

23 Students	A Number of students got 3 phrases correct	Number of students got 3 phrases correct but required prompt for one	B Number of students got 2 phrases correct	Number of students got 2 phrases correct but required prompt for one	C Number of students got 1 phrase correct	Number of students got 1 phrase correct but required prompt	D Number of students got 0 phrase correct or were absent
Homework 1 Lesson 26	12	1	8	0	1	0	1 student absent
Homework 2 Lesson 27	14	0	3	0	2	0	4
Homework 3 Lesson 28	8	0	10	0	3	0	2
Homework 4 Lesson 29	9	0	7	0	4	0	3
Homework 5 Lesson 30	11	0	6	0	1	0	3 2 students absent
TOTAL	54		34		11		

Comparing columns B and C of Tables 7.7 and 7.8, more phrases using a verb (Total: B: 34 and C:17) were said compared to the comprehensibly correct picture description phrases (Total: B:34 and C:11). Indeed, students produced phrases using a verb, but these were not necessarily a comprehensible description of the picture e.g. in homework 2 BEPM said "I am" in relation to picture 3 (picture of a girl brushing her hair); this phrase contains a verb, but does not describe the picture. This seems to demonstrate the necessity of building language skills harmoniously for communicative competence to be

achieved; students would need to advance on all fronts, simultaneously integrating grammar rules, learning verbs, adjectives, nouns, understanding pragmatics, practicing phonology (Ellis, 2005; Nassaji, 2016a; Oliver and Mackey, 2003), just as in FLA, through real life and personal 'story' activities. Table 7.8 reports that only one child needed prompting (homework 1) and a maximum of four students (homework 2) were not able to perform on this oral communicative skills task outside the school context.

Table 7.7 demonstrates that only 1 student (homework 1 column E) produced a verb alone i.e. not in a phrase ("go" student KD). These results appear to indicate that students had passed the one word response stage (as in FLA stages of development) and were now able to produce language in chunks and phrases as in the language building phases of FLA. The cumulation of language produced over the five sets of homework in Table 7.8 (columns A, B and C additioned and multiplied by 3, 2 and 1 respectively, to obtain the total number of phrases) amounts to 240 comprehensibly correct phrases (241 minus one phrase in homework 1, where the student needed prompting). These student generated phrases, did not necessarily contain a verb e.g. "Mr. Wolf story": homework 5 (KD), and also demonstrate student's language creativity e.g. "I please my teacher": homework 1 (KD), "I make cupcakes": homework 2 (PH), "It's my story": homework 3 (BT). As in FLA, this creativity leads to further language development when supported by more knowledgeable peers, parents, and teachers. Data from the parent reports (240 comprehensibly correct phrases produced), is in addition to the phrases produced during class which were video recorded and transcribed for quantitative and qualitative analysis.

Tables 7.5 and 7.6 report the activities performed during the year. They demonstrate how through questioning and interaction (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Mackey and Philp, 1998), students were able to progress onto more challenging oral skills activities like phrases pic-description, storytelling, and MAS-Q/A games. These were regularly interspersed with action games, singing and manual activities to cater for YLs needs for physical activity, necessary for maintaining concentration and discipline. Action games permitted calming the class and provided for

comprehension development; songs provided for phonology development through careful selection of authentic rhymes and songs (Brewster et al. 2002). Music contributed to restricting talking during manual activities and provided a time frame for students to finish their work, contributing to metacognitive skills development (executive functions) (Fisher, 2005).

7.3.3. Pre and Post-Intervention Parent Questionnaires

Parent questionnaires (chapter four section: 4.3), provided important data. The post-intervention parent questionnaires permitted parent evaluation concerning students' EFL progress through the 'story approach'. Evaluation also involved informal personal observations throughout the year, and formally through the parent reports on the oral homework which enabled more objectivity as the student's actual words were written down by parents.

Out of the 22 pre-intervention questionnaires, eleven parents rated their child as having low to average EFL language skills (counting, animal names and singing); these skills related to language items used for the pre-intervention testing carried out in the initial lessons. Nine children were rated as having good skills (able to say a few words beyond those having low-average skills), and two students were rated as having excellent skills (able to formulate a few phrases in English); these two students (TE, BT) were part of the CSG. Concerning appreciation of English classes (after four 'story approach' classes), fourteen rated the classes as very enjoyable; five as enjoyable; two rated the classes as average and one child had no opinion. Of the two students who found the class averagely enjoyable, one was a CSG student who expressed some boredom; Indeed, one of the challenges of year two study was maintaining the momentum and progress with the CSG while bringing the other students up to speed. Regarding current general EFL teaching in primary school (Figure 7.1), fourteen parents considered it low, with too few hours of instruction and insufficient focus on oral skills; four parents considered it average commenting that instruction should be more fun; three parents had no opinion and one considered it excellent without commenting why.

285
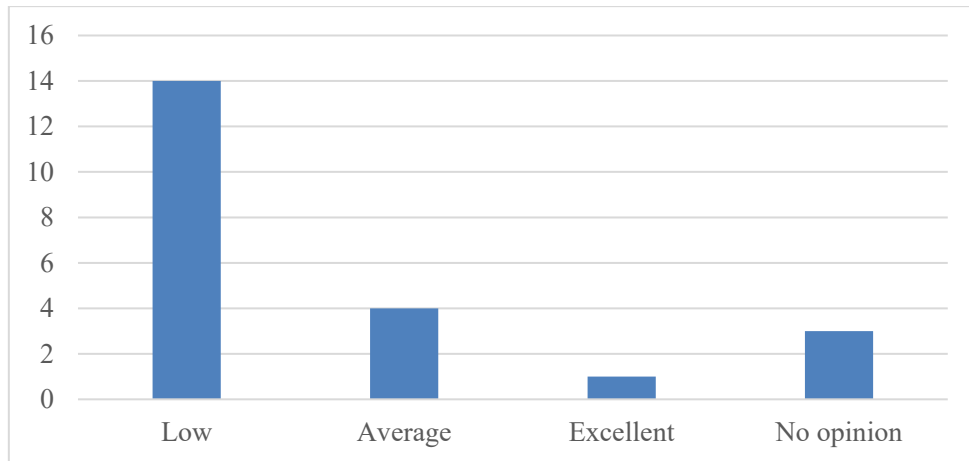
Figure 7.1. Results of 22 pre-intervention parent questionnaires concerning parent's opinions of general EFL teaching currently in the school.

Amongst the 23 post-intervention questionnaire responses, sixteen parents felt that their child had improved substantially in vocabulary, phrase production and pronunciation (Figure 7.2), though one felt that pronunciation had not improved (student BE). Six parents felt that their child had improved only a little in these three areas of EFL development; one felt that though vocabulary had improved substantially, phrase production and pronunciation only a little (BEPM). The Parent reports (oral homework) permitted parents a more impartial assessment of their child's progress.
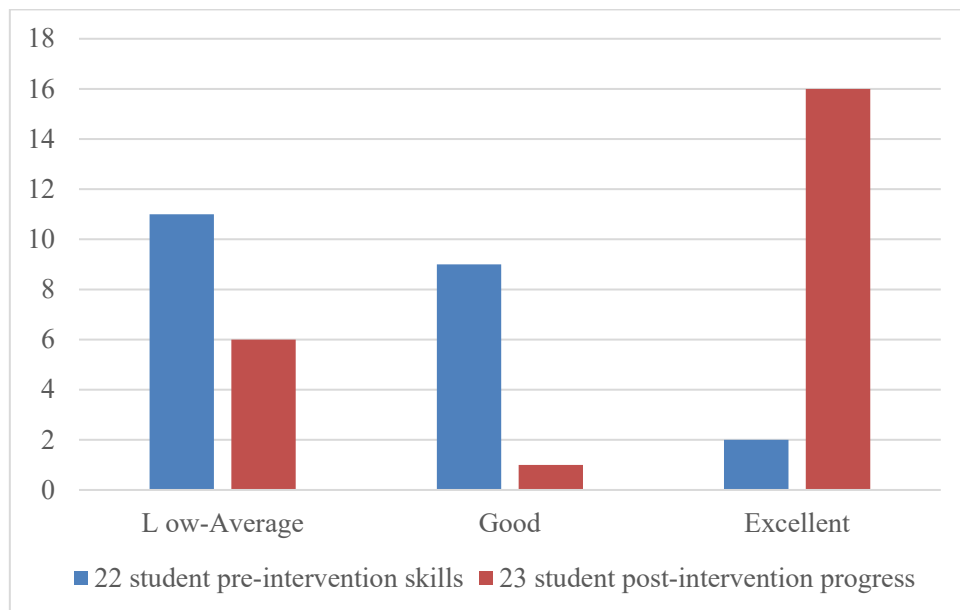
Figure 7.2. Results concerning student's pre-intervention EFL skills and post-intervention progress through the 'story approach'.

286

Concerning enjoyment ("affective filter hypothesis", Krashen, 2009, p.9) of English classes (Figure 7.3), sixteen parents said that their child rated them tremendously enjoyable, six rated the classes enjoyable, and one (PG) rated the EFL classes not enjoyable; surprisingly, this child participated substantially in the activities and progressed tremendously. This child's progress has been traced through the discussion (section four).
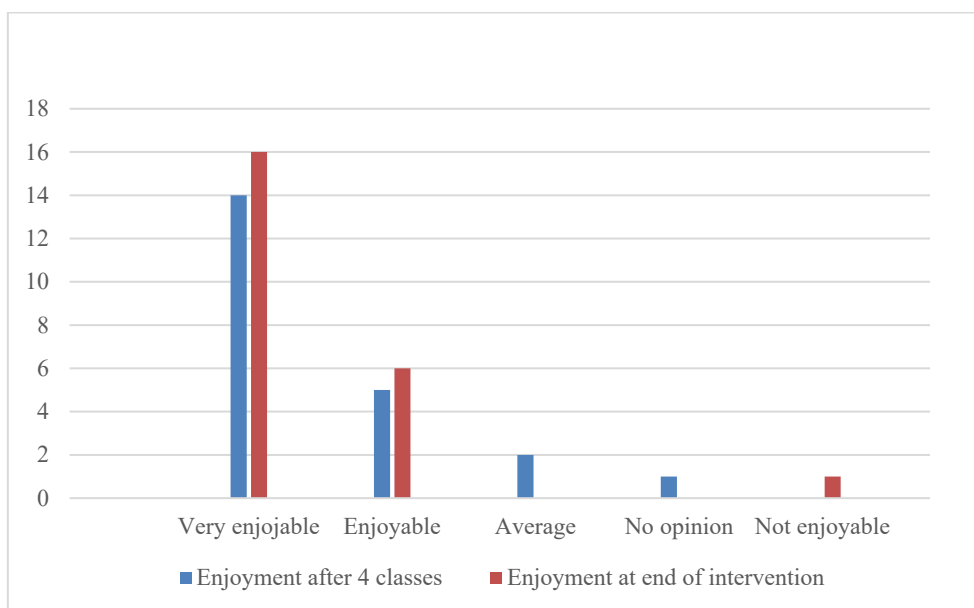
Figure 7.3. Results of parent questionnaires concerning student's enjoyment of the 'story approach' intervention.

7.3.4. Inter-Rater Reliability: Qualitative

The CT, present every lesson, provided inter-rater reliability for the qualitative data concerning the parent reports for the five sets of homework, and the parent questionnaires. School policy stipulated the CT responsibility to manage the homework (parent reports) and questionnaires; she could thus verify responses and discuss these with the EFL-Teacher. The CT observation notes permitted double checking student oral responses and therefore their progress, and provided an out-sider's view (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) on the teaching materials and strategies. For example, the CT mentions in lesson 11, that a song is introduced appropriately to calm the class; she names the students who participate, and points out students who seemed to be questioned more often than others, in order for the EFL-T to re-adjust; she

approves the teaching materials (e.g. weather realia) commenting that they encourage firm concentration, are fun, and permit the participation of individual students with a rapid turn-over. The CT, however, expressed reservation about the effectiveness of using the native language for instructions, discipline, and reassurance, suggesting it caused confusion; results, however, appear to refute this. These notes were written during each lesson and were discussed immediately after with the EFL-T.

The parent reports provided inter-rater reliability concerning student's EFL communicative oral skills development. Phrases produced at home were supervised by the parents (or childminder); any language the child produced in relation to the oral homework was textually written down. Parents could therefore also monitor their own child's progress.

7.4. Quantitative and Qualitative Data Results and Discussion

This section draws together results from the quantitative and qualitative data analysis for discussion in view of validating the theoretical framework and evaluating student EFL oral communicative skills progress through the 'story approach'. Within this thesis, theory falls within an "if-then logic" (Saldana, 2013, p. 250); as outlined in the year one study, this includes the controlling of teaching events, explaining resulting phenomenon, and insight for further progress. (Saldana, 2013).

The 'story approach' activities and materials were developed to provide stimulation for student engagement and interaction, through realia, concrete items, and movement, for the development of "embodiment" and "ownership" (theoretical framework). The results reported in sections two and three, appear to demonstrate that these encouraged "empowerment" through achievement, and consequently, students were able to build communicative oral skills, producing phrases of their own invention. Activities involving reading (Lucas and Villegas, 2011) and composing phrases were designed to

implicitly reinforce oral comprehension, phonology, vocabulary, and syntax. Students spontaneously read and understood words written in English on the whiteboard, and magnetic words for activities. This could possibly form the object of further research.

7.4.1. Quantitative: Discussion Regarding Descriptive and Inferential Analysis Results

Descriptive analysis and results for the means of words and phrases demonstrate little increase in words and substantial increase for phrases between pre and post-tests. Likewise, though to be considered with considerable caution due to small sample size, post-test inferential analysis results (Wilcoxon test) for phrases demonstrate statistical significance (research question four). The increase in the number of words over the year was marginal and seems to be attributed to the fact that students were producing more phrases instead of words in the post-lessons, yet most of the same materials were used. This seems to demonstrate the efficiency of the teaching materials, methods, and strategies of the 'story approach' (research question five). This progression also appears similar to that occurring in FLA (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006), where words precede phrases and comprehension precede oral skills. According to the above results it seems that this process can occur at an accelerated rate for EFL learners within oral communicative skills, if the type of materials and teaching methods and strategies are appropriate and tap on the full potential of the students learning abilities (Anderson, 2011; Ellis, 2005; Mitchel, 2009). These quantitative results appear to support the qualitative results which equally seem to demonstrate students' capacity and accelerated development in EFL communicative skills through the theoretical framework and 'story approach'.

These results present important implications for EFL instruction through a 'story approach,' based on the theoretical framework. The substantial progress made by the 14 students in the sample between pre and post-tests in phrases output appears to confirm the 'story approach' as an effective tool for

efficient EFL instruction within this research context. Furthermore, the results for phrases reported in Table 7.2, appear to give weight to the inferential statistical analysis results from first year primary (chapter 6, section 6.2.3.1) for code STEI-S, which is spontaneous English language produced by individual students. These first and second year statistical results (Wilcoxon test), though to be regarded as no more than simply indicating a direction, appear to indicate that students could produce language for communicative purposes, spontaneously, and creatively and could construct phrases (research question four).

7.4.2. Qualitative: Discussion Regarding Analysis Results of the Transcript Data

This study's aims include the qualitative validation of the theoretical framework for YL EFL instruction, executed through the 'story approach'. Within this study, the intervention teaching events have been controlled by the theoretical framework of the 'story approach', where it is intended that the child's personal story allows him to take "ownership" of the learning venture. Teaching strategies linked to the 'story approach' have been outlined in Tables 7.5 to 7.8; through engagement with the teaching methods and materials, students appear to be motivated to participate and focus on learning (research question five). Through coding and establishing categories, the prediction and control of teaching events and the how and why (Saldana, 2013) of out-comes of the 'story approach' are answered through these activities and materials which provided for fast moving interaction and trial and error situations. Students were able to test their knowledge and learn through feedback, involving, corrective feedback: "reformulations, prompts, and metalinguistic feedback" (Nassaji, 2016a, p.536); and negative feedback: recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, and explicit error correction (Oliver and Mackey, 2003); from the EFL teacher and peers. These activities permitted comparing and applying intonation, vocabulary, and grammar rules absorbed through language in the environment (classroom) to different contextual situations, as in FLA (Delahaie, 2009). The video transcripts demonstrate how and why students progressed in their EFL oral

skills during year two study, and the qualitative and quantitative data analysis and results appear to endorse the progress made.

In this second year 'story approach' study, students took "ownership" of their learning from the start by self-evaluating their oral skills competence through a pre-intervention class interview (self-reflection: Graham, et al. 2011); they were then tested to demonstrate their true level. For the self-evaluation, out of the 22 students, seven students thought they knew the colours but were unable to say them; for the animal names, nine incorrectly evaluated their knowledge, with four students over-estimating their competence, and five under-estimating it. The pre-intervention test results demonstrated very limited oral communicative skills for second year primary students who had 45-minute weekly EFL classes in the previous academic year. It appears, therefore, that individual oral formative and summative testing needs to be an integral part of EFL teaching and learning (Bygate, 2009). Assessment seem an important mechanism in evaluating self-knowledge, in order to link new knowledge to that already learned (Gee, 1994); only when students are aware of what they really know, can they focus on what they do not. Likewise, the EFL teacher's on-going awareness of the student's level of competence is necessary to adapt the learning activities to the student's needs (Gee, 1994). For these reasons, formative and summative testing was conducted throughout the year as an important aspect of the theoretical framework and 'story approach'.

Metacognitive skills, including executive functions, seem an important aspect of YL, EFL instruction. These include learning how to learn, consciously employing learning strategies, understanding the process involved in recall and retrieving information from memory, and being able to consciously apply one's knowledge (Fisher, 2005; Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Williams and Burden, 1997) and are all integral parts of the theoretical framework executed through the 'story approach'. These aspects were highlighted in the pre-intervention interview: all students evaluated that they were able to count zero to ten, yet in the testing, only three students said zero. This is the same word in French (same pronunciation) therefore the issue here may not be language or recall, but rather metacognitive; the students have not sufficiently focused

on the instructions (executive functions) i.e. the process of consciously applying knowledge, rather than mechanically. Tables 7.5-7.6 report a total of 40 instances of metacognitive instruction in the pre-lessons, and 119 Instances in the post lessons (research question two). This increase in metacognitive instruction seems to tally with the increase in skills as reflected in the quantitative and qualitative results; despite the slight increase in the total lesson time (32 minutes more in the four post-lessons), this appears to indicate that the greater the competence, the more it is possible to focus on the metacognitive aspects of learning.

Metalinguistic instruction is an integral part of any EFL programme and features importantly in the 'story approach' (Tables 7.5-7.6); within the four pre and post-lessons, the number of instances increased dramatically between pre-lessons (63 instances) and post-lessons (155 instances), as did the student's competence (research question one). This qualitative data might suggest that as students produce more language, more opportunities arise for building on those skills.

In EFL, as in FLA, children develop oral communicative skills by memorising chunks of language or formulaic speech (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). These chunks provide a trampoline (Gee, 1994) to more elaborate speech when supported by more capable persons who scaffold the child's learning and take him to the next level of competence by evaluating his zone of proximal (ZPD) development (Williams and Burden, 1997). However, if this formulaic speech is not scaffolded, it becomes redundant (Myles, et al. 1998; Myles, et al. 1999) as in the following example: In the pre-intervention interview, the four phrases were produced by four students (PG, BEPM, SH, BQ) from French native speaking families and who had benefited from a general approach to EFL learning the previous year. These formulaic phrases (Table 7.3) proved not to be an indication of oral communicative language skills as these students were unable to use these phrases creatively for communicative purposes over the year. Moreover, progress of two of these students (PG and BEPM) was laborious. Further on, PG has been tracked through the transcript data to exemplify this together with examples of scaffolding student's language development. It seems that formulaic speech

can only enable oral communicative skills development if used consciously to support language development and is transported to other contexts (Myles, et al. 1999). In second year primary, within the 'story approach', this was actively carried out through realia and picture description, question-answer games, storytelling, and oral homework (parent reports).

The encouraging results of the parent reports on the oral homework (Tables 7.7-7.8) demonstrated that students can take language out of the classroom or learning context (Gee, 1994). Concerning parent reports for phrases containing a verb (Table 7.7) interestingly the student (DK) who got zero phrases correct for homework one, did not attempt to say them in English but spontaneously translated the formulaic story-phrases for homework one, two and four, into French, possibly indicating he had developed comprehension skills and could apply these out of context; in EFL, as in FLA, comprehension precedes production (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006). However, this is not always the case; in EFL learning, as in FLA, sometimes production precedes comprehension (Donaldson, 1978) as the learner may understand the words but may not be able to interpret them as the speaker/teacher intended, making the importance of meaning fundamental. Throughout the study, intensive meaning-focused instruction (Ellis, 2005, principle two) included native language use (research question three). The following transcript, extract one, exemplifies the EFL teacher (EFL-T) using words in English, with gestures and the scene outside the window to illustrate weather conditions and demonstrates the following: from gestures and looking outside the window (as one would look at a picture), not all the students were able to gather meaning (lines 9-10); students came to understand the meaning of the weather words through trial and error (lines 13-20); students correct peers (lines 20-21); the EFL teacher corrects pronunciation implicitly (line 21) and the whole class participates in reviewing it (lines 22-23); it is clear here that language learners support each other in the learning process (Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, Linnell, 1996). This extract demonstrates that the classroom seems to permit oral communicative skills development through students generating the language rather than, the teacher, a syllabus, or a programme (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Ellis, 2005, principle eight). Instead of being an artificially staged learning environment, the classroom becomes

a real-life learning context. Learners mutually support each other. Given the quantitative and qualitative results, this 'story approach' teaching strategy seems particularly suited to EFL oral development within the learning context outlined for this study, and could possibly suit other similar teaching contexts.

EXTRACT One: Lesson 30 Time: 0-5 minutes into the lesson

EFL-T questions students on the present weather conditions, gesturing and looking out of the window.

1) EFL-T: "So what is the weather like today? Is it sunny?"

2) Student: "*oui*" (yes). One student replies correctly indicating that the question was understood.

3) EFL-T: "A lot or a little?"

4) Students reply as a group: "little"

5) EFL-T: "What else is there? Sunny and…?"

6) Student BN: "cloudy" (correct reply).

7) EFL-T: "And look at the roses. The roses are going like this (gestures movement). The roses… so, there is what… a little what (gestures movement for windy)?"

8) BT puts up his hand to reply.

9) Student BT: "Be quiet" (BT is a good student and is not being rude here. BT's reply is grammatical but does not correspond to the question. He might be confusing the EFL-T gesture with the one she does when she wants students to be quiet).

10) EFL-T : "*Pas tout à fait. On parle du temps là. Tu vois il y a des roses qui bougent. Qu'est-ce qu'il y a là?*" ("Not quite… We're talking about the weather now. You can see the roses moving." EFL-T gestures movement for windy. "What is there… ?")

11) Student KD : "*Il y a un petit peu de vent ? "* (There's a little wind)

12) EFL-T: "*Oui. Mais en anglais*" (Yes... but in English?)

13) Student CC: "Cloudy" (replies incorrectly)

14) EFL-T : "Cloudy, *c'est nuage"* (EFL-T gives translation in French)

15) Student IEM: "*La pluie*" (Rainy)(replies incorrectly)

16) EFL-T: "Rainy, *c'est la pluie"* (EFL-T gives the meaning of rainy)

17) Student KDPT: "sunny" (replies incorrectly)

18) EFL-T: "Sunny, *c'est le soleil"* (EFL-T gives the meaning of sunny)

19) Student NC: "Rainy" (replies incorrectly; this response was already given by IEM line 15)

20) EFL-T: "Rainy, *c'est la pluie"* (EFL-T repeats the meaning of rainy)

21) Student PG: "Winty" (pronunciation error for windy, but the EFL-T accepts it)

22) EFL-T: "Windy! *Tout le monde dit* windy" (Windy ! Everyone say windy!)

23) All the students repeat "Windy"

Extract 1 demonstrates student PG's potential skills through replying correctly (vocabulary), possibly indicating that though classes were not enjoyable (post-questionnaire section 7.3.3), the 'story approach' teaching strategies and materials permitted learning anyway (in extract two, PG also correctly applies structural knowledge). PG's parent post-questionnaire also indicates a little pronunciation progress (not significant progress), demonstrated in extract one ("winty"), possibly indicating that parents/caretakers can objectively evaluate.

Commercial programmes appear to substantially employ gestures and pictures to convey meaning, precluding native language use (e.g. Nixon and

Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b, 2017); visuals and actions "should provide pupils with sufficient information to be able to understand the overall concept" Frino, et al. 2014: Kid's Box Teacher's Book 2 page x (10)). Moreover, teaching and learning are built through artificial contexts generated from set language items linked to images in activity and pupil's books and dialogues on a CD (e.g. Chatterbox (Strange, 2009a, 2009b), I Love English (Wirth, 2008), and Kid's Box (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2014a, 2014b). These programmes may well be suitable in SLA contexts, or possibly EFL contexts where several hours per week are devoted to foreign language learning, and students have target language access outside school curriculum (e.g. bilingual or English speaking parents/family; extracurricular lessons; holidays abroad). However, they appear insufficient in restricted EFL instruction time and limited target language contact contexts, as in the present study. This hypothesis was further investigated in year three study which permitted analysing results from a control group having a general commercial programme instruction compared to the intervention group having a 'story approach' instruction.

Tables 7.5 and 7.6 provide evidence in the post-lessons, that increased language ability permits student to auto-correct and support peers in language development by correcting them or proposing language responses, as in extract 2. This example also demonstrates how students had developed metacognitive skills and were able to consciously apply structural knowledge (research question two) in their language production (use of the article "a" for singular noun; use of final "s" for the plural). The use of the native language permits encouraging students, eliciting responses, and conveying meaning (research question three).

EXTRACT Two: Lesson 28. Time: 30-35 minutes into the lesson.

Students are carrying out a storytelling task using 3D magnetic pictures, which are movable on the whiteboard. They tell their phrase and place the corresponding picture to build a story.

1) Student PG: "She has a blue… two blue… "

2) EFL-T: "Two blue… *quoi*? (what?) Two blue… *Tu peux lui dire* B--- (BEPM)?" (can you say it BEPM?)

3) Student BEPM: "Two blue shoes"

PG corrects her own phrase (auto-correction), but is unable to complete it. The EFL-T encourages her: "Two blue… *quoi*? Two blue… *Tu peux lui dire* B--- (BEPM)?" (EFL-T invites student BEPM to reply) BEPM replies correctly (peer support). CT shows she is impressed. EFL-T asks PG to repeat the phrase and invites her to place the picture of the two blue shoes next to the little old lady.

In Extract two (line one), student PG consciously corrects herself as she adapts her phrase to her story picture. In line three, BEPM supports (scaffolds) PG's language skills. Both students had very weak EFL skills at the start of the year.

Extract three demonstrates how students developed metalinguistic skills; the EFL-T scaffolded their learning (lines seven - eight) to attain the next level of achievement (ZPD); students spontaneously repeat language when they feel the need (data reported in Table 7.6); Some students' phrases were not grammatically correct, but this did not hinder their communicative skills (comprehensibly correct language as in Table 7.8); e.g. line nine the plural final "s" ending is missing.

EXTRACT Three: Lesson 30. Time: 25-30 minutes into the lesson.

Same activity as extract two. EFL-T asks BN to repeat the phrase for the class (line one). SH describes the last picture (line two) and expands the phrase to 'a little red house' (line three). The EFL-T now removes the magnetic pictures one by one from the whiteboard while saying a descriptive phrase to suit each picture. The students spontaneously, as a group, repeat after her the phrases and invent their own, demonstrating creativeness: the EFL-T says, 'she has a basket' and SH calls out and expands this phrase to 'She has a BIG basket'

(line four). When the EFL-T says, 'She has a frog', SH expands this also (lines five-six). KD calls out 'glasses. EFL-T encourages KD to say the colour brown: 'She has brown…' and KD continues, 'brown glasses'.

1) Student BN: "She has flowers"

2) Student SH: "She has a red house"

3) Student SH: "A little red house"

4) Student SH: "She has a BIG basket"

5) Student SH: "A happy BIG frog"

6) Student SH: "A happy big green frog"

7) Student KD: "Glasses"

8) Student KD: "Brown glasses"

9) Student BT: "Two horse"

Table 7.6 indicates that students seem to correct peers (42 instances) more often than themselves (17 instances). Regarding the positive qualitative results in Table 7.8, of 240 comprehensibly correct phrases produced in, out-of-school context and the quantitative results for post-test phrases reflecting the same direction (Table 7.2.), this seems to highlight the effectiveness of students listening in class to peer interaction and the importance of metacognitive skills (learning to learn). Students can think about the language in relation to their own knowledge and by correcting their peers can reinforce their own skills. Metacognitive instruction in the 'story approach' puts substantial emphasis on listening skills (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008; Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank, 2011) and fostering concentration through executive functions (planning, monitoring, and thinking about learning).

Extracts four and five, demonstrate that students seemed to have more difficulty producing phrases in relation to a classic picture description task (extract 4) than for the storytelling activity using the 3D magnetic pictures

(extract 3), or activities using realia (extract 5). The storytelling activity and question/answer games using realia, seem to have allowed the students more flexibility and creativity (Ellis, 1999a; Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006); by physically picking up the magnetic pictures/realia (theoretical framework: "embodiment") which they felt comfortable to describe (could recall the language) they could build their own personal story (extract 3) and take "ownership" (theoretical framework), as the centre of the activity was themselves, particularly in extract five. Contrastingly, though still permitting language skills development, the classic picture description task limited students to elements locked into an already told story (extract four). In extract four, interestingly IEM spontaneously auto-corrects (line 2).

EXTRACT Four: Lesson 29. Time: 15-20 minutes into the lesson.

Picture description activity using pronoun "I"

1) Student NC: "I play with my friends"

2) Student IEM: "I like…eh … I eat my lunch"

3) Student SH: "I… "

4) Student SH: "… sing"

5) Student SH: "I like to sing"

6) Student IEM: "I eat my lunch"

EXTRACT Five: Lesson 27. Time: 0-10 minutes into the lesson.

The EFL-T asks the students "How are you today?" There are realia (3D magnetic pictures) on display to help students with recall.

1) Student BE: Sad (BE)

2) Student BC: And tired (BC)

3) Student CC: "Tired and got a cold" (CC)

4)Student BT: "Ready for work, and happy… and tired" (BT)

5) Student BN: "Very well and happy" (BN)

6) Student HN: "Angry" (HN)

Vision and direction for the application of a 'story approach' for the development of oral communicative skills in YLs, within classroom teaching environments, takes multiple forms. Different cultural considerations seem generally ignored in current course books, presenting a melting pot version of EFL teaching regardless of traditions. In extract four, several students had difficulty with the word eat, yet this would seem an easy word to learn in context (children generally like eating and eat several times per day). This was possibly due to the word "eat" referring to several meals, breakfast lunch and dinner; the confounding factor may not have been the word "eat" but rather which food is traditionally eaten at breakfast lunch and dinner. Culturally for French children, eating a sandwich corresponds to a tea-time meal (bread with a bar of chocolate inside) rather than to lunch; students pointed this out thinking the picture of a child eating a sandwich was "*goûter*" (tea-time). Though several students had evidently understood the meaning of the word eat, others produced a wide variety of phrases: "I eat my friends" (student DK: lesson 29); "I eat brother" (student BEPM: parent report homework 3); "I eat my television" (student BEPM lesson 30), once again indicating that gestures and pictures alone cannot convey all meaning; hence the use of native language for explanations.

Movement was an important feature of lesson-time in order to keep students focused on the learning, and structure their need for spending physical energy. As illustrated in extract six, it also permitted development of metacognitive and metalinguistic skills; language learned in the action games was used for a "real" purpose (e.g. "Be quiet", "Stand-up! Hands behind your back!"). In extract six, the EFL teacher prepares students for counting, starting with zero (therefore hands behind) and up to 20. Clapping while counting permitted keeping students in rhythm and focused on language.

EXTRACT Six: Lesson 29. Time: 40-45 minutes into the lesson.

New Activity: Counting.

1) EFL-T: "Stand-up".

Before beginning, EFL-T sends BQ back to his place but asks him to "be quiet".

2) EFL-T "Hands behind your back… Hands behind your back. Zero to twenty. O--- (OC), stand up. Hands behind your back. Hands behind your back. Everybody, everybody. Eh… B--- (BT), hands behind your back for zero."

Affective factors have an influence on learning and motivation is linked to emotion (Brown, 2000; Krashen, 2009; Zull, 2011). Consequently, learning needs to be enjoyable, particularly for YLs who are in a process of negotiating meaning and discovering the world (Fisher, 2005). The end of year questionnaires and CT notes provide evidence that students enjoyed the activities and materials. Tables 7.5 and 7.6 (hands raised) demonstrate that students participated well in the learning activities. Extract seven exemplifies how language learning was "fun" and students reached a level of meaning whereby they could affectionately laugh about each other's mistakes (lines 13-15) (research questions three, four and five). In line 11, PH phrase is grammatically correct but does not correspond to the picture he is describing. In line 10, he describes the picture correctly, and immediately after, in line 11, gets confused, yet in lines one, two and ten, PH could describe the same picture correctly. This seems to indicate that learning is not a linear process, but takes place in stages through understanding meaning and building skills over time.

EXTRACT Seven: Lesson 30. Time: 45-50 minutes into the lesson.

Picture description activity including using pronoun "I":

1) Student PH: "I… I put on my coat"

2) Student PH: "I put on… eh… my coat"

3) Student KDPT: "I paint a pancture (picture)"

4) Student KDPT: "I paint a picture"

5) Student CC: "Tell me the Mr. wolf story"

6) Student KDPT: "I put…" "

7) Student CC: "I… Tell me the Mr. Wolf story"

8) Student CC: "Tell me the Mr. Wolf story"

9) Student KDPT:" I put on… my… "

10) Student PH: "I paint a picture"

11) Student PH: "I paint… ehm… my coat"

EFL-T models the correct phrase, I paint a picture, and then elicits meaning from the students:

12) EFL-T: "I paint a picture. I paint my coat… *ça veut dire quoi?* "(What does that mean?)

Some students laugh.

13) Student SH: "*peinture*! (paint!)"

14) Student BN: "*Je peins mon manteau*" (gives meaning, "I paint my coat!")

15) Student BQ: "*Ah ! Il va être beau après… ton manteau ! Ooh là là!*" (Your coat will look beautiful after you've painted it! Ooh la la!")

16) EFL-T: "Paint a picture. *Tu ne peins pas ton manteau. Tu peins une image*. I paint a picture" (You don't paint your coat. You paint a picture).

PH repeats after the EFL-T.

17) Student PH: "I paint a picture".

EFL-T praises PH.

Extract seven illustrates how language-monitoring with all the students in the class seemed not to be an issue; a child could say a phrase or a word several times, yet a child who was questioned immediately after would not be able to reply correctly (lines one-two PH says "I put on my coat", yet in lines six and nine KDPT is incapable of saying the full phrase). This seems to demonstrate that if the knowledge has not been assimilated (Ausubel, 1960; Ausubel, 1980; Mitchell, 2009; Williams and Burden, 1997;) meaningfully, recall will be difficult. In Extract seven, KDPT makes a pronunciation error (line 3) and then auto-corrects (line four).

Lesson 27 provides examples of students using language creatively. A picture description task permitted learning the formulaic phrases "I make some cakes"," I brush my hair", "I eat my dinner"; students transformed these phrases for the same pictures, into "I eat my cakes" (IEM), "I wash my hair" (BQ), "I make my dinner" (KD). Students were now able to creatively combine phrases of their own invention e.g. "A hen and a little chick" (BT). Students spontaneously built on their own, or each other's language in response to realia e.g. as one student calls out "wolf", others join in with "Big bad wolf" (TE), "Little wolf" (BN), "Big wolf" (BN), "Werewolf" (BE). In the following sequence student KD builds on language with other students: "Big star" (KD), "Blue" (KD), "A little… star (BQ), "A big star" (KD), "A big blue star" (SH). Repetition is an important aspect of language learning (Gee, 1994; Mitchell, 2009) and students spontaneously repeated language when they felt the need (e.g. "wolf"; "star"); this contrasts with current programmes where students are required to carry out systematic repetition exercises. As in FLA (Gee, 1994) students tended to overuse certain newly learned language structures, but those who had integrated the knowledge were not influenced by their peers' mistakes e.g. "Blue monkeys" (SH), whereas there was only one, "Two eggs" (KDPT), correctly formulated.

Students practiced the question form over the year through real life activities (research question four) e.g. EFL-T: "Who would like to distribute the books?" Students were taught the response "Please can I distribute?" This example of language economy for instruction (one phrase serving several

purposes: a response and a question) appears necessary in limited target language contexts, where the choice of language items to be taught seems crucial. However, over the year only eight questions were asked by students outside using this phrase as a response rather than a question, and the language learning repetition exercises. The phrase "Please can I distribute?" was produced four times as a question in lesson 29, and twice in lesson 30. In lesson 28, two students spontaneously and independently asked the EFL teacher a question at the start of the lesson: "Did you sleep well?" (NC), "Ayne (and), did you sleep well?" (BT). All the questions were produced by the CSG students. According to Wells (1986), the question form is manifest in the later stages of language development; this could explain the limited number of questions produced in year two study, and why only the CSG were able to produce them, having benefited longer from 'story approach' instruction.

Conclusion

Concerning this study's aims and research question, the transcripts reveal the following important points for validating the theoretical framework, and for the development of communicative oral skills through a 'story approach': the development of metacognitive and metalinguistic skills; practicing pronunciation in real-life contexts; the importance of meaning; peer to peer support; communicative skills development through scaffolding and assessing the ZPD; developing comprehension and oral skills through action; music and movement as an instrument to encourage concentration, discipline and executive functions; student auto-correction and peer-correction (EFL-T correction: lesson 30); student engagement with the learning activities (attitudes, expressions, and hands raised to participate). The question form was practiced extensively, and some students were able to genuinely use this structure by the end of the year. Concerning the validation of the theoretical framework, in year two, results seem to indicate that "embodiment" and "ownership" appear to be achieved through 'story approach' EFL instruction, naturally leading to learning and oral communicative skills development.

Commercially available EFL programmes appear to not put language-monitoring (classroom testing) at the forefront of their teaching strategy. Reasons seem to include the difficulty in designing and administering classroom-tests and in evaluating responses, particularly quantitatively. One focus of this study was to develop effective and efficient language-monitoring strategies within this EFL learning context, for classroom practice. Individual oral language-monitoring particularly formative, seems to be a prerequisite for the development of oral communicative skills. Understanding the level of student competence (Bygate, 2009) permits focusing on the type of scaffolding (Maybin et al. 1992) the EFL teacher would need to implement and influences the ZPD (zone of proximal development) (Williams and Burden, 1997). The question-answer language-monitoring games designed for the 'story approach' intervention provided quantitative and qualitative data for the evaluation of student's EFL development.

The encouraging quantitative results for phrases (to be regarded with caution due to the small sample size) produced in the post-lessons compared to the pre-lessons, together with the positive qualitative results, appear to be favourable to the effectiveness of the theoretical framework and 'story approach' outlined in chapter three. This second year study appears to indicate that questioning is an important basis of oral communicative skills development (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Mackey, 1999; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Mackey and Silver, 2005). Native infants learn through questioning (Steinberg and Sciarini 2006; Wells 1986), and the same pattern seems to follow for EFL learning. Cultural differences seem to be an important element to consider in the design and development of EFL programmes. Students anywhere in the world could gain advantage from EFL skills; however, these skills could be developed more effectively and efficiently if taught in relation to the YLs personal environment, or 'story', carrying intrinsic meaning, and to which the YL can relate.

The 'story approach' activities and materials could be adapted to other EFL learning situations within a similar context (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) providing for time efficient development of oral communicative skills. The theoretical framework and 'story approach', could also possibly be applied to

other foreign language learning contexts (e.g. English students learning a foreign language). Further research in this area would be required for additional insight.

8. Third Year Primary Study 2015-2016 and Case Study Group

Chapter 8 comprises five sections and presents details of the end of year testing for the third year primary students in the intervention and a newly recruited control group. For this academic year 2015-2016, the control group had EFL instruction through the general approach taken by the school and the intervention class through the 'story approach' that forms the focus of this thesis.

The research aims and questions, presented in chapter one, were investigated through the data gathered, with particular focus on question four. Section one describes the participants, instruments, and test procedures. Sections two and three detail the quantitative and qualitative analysis and results, respectively. Section four presents the discussion, drawing together results from quantitative and qualitative analysis. Section five involves the case study group (CSG) and relates a three year journey from first to end of third year primary (2013-2016). In this third year primary study, as for first and second year, the CSG was imbedded in the intervention class.

8.1. Methodology

8.1.1. Participants, Instruments, and Procedures

The sample was composed of 22 students, 11 control group and 11 intervention group of which four were CSG students (further participant details: chapter four sections 4.2.1-4.2.2). Teacher and parent participants and characteristics have been detailed in chapters three (section 3.3.12), four

(section 4.2), six (section 6.4.4), and seven (section 7.3.2: parent reports); they carry importance in the way they impact outcomes through the support they can provide to students in the EFL learning process.

In view of validating the theoretical framework and trialling the 'story approach', data collection instruments included those used previously, and video/voice recordings and transcripts of the final outcome assessment. The intervention group students were accustomed to being recorded and seemed unaffected by the camera; the control group students were aware of being voice recorded, but as the device was discreetly placed, it appeared undisturbing. The 'story approach' intervention for EFL instruction cumulated in the end of year testing (outcome assessment). The video/voice recordings and transcripts of the outcome assessment for the 11 intervention and 11 control class students provided the data specific to this third year primary study. Chapter four sections 4.3 and 4.3.3 provide details for instruments, including the final outcome assessment instrument.

Procedures for year three intervention continued building on the two previous years of the 'story approach'. Primary year one intervention focus principally concerned vocabulary learning and combining words to form short phrases. This was developed in year two with the introduction of pronouns (I, She) and verbs, the conjunction 'and', the article 'a', combining adjectives to form longer phrases, and re-enforcing the use of the plural 's' ending. Students continued strengthening question form comprehension, and building on this by using it for language production. This process continued in year three and was reflected in the weekly lesson (teaching) plans (chapter four sections: 4.4; 4.4.3).

As in previous years, to cater for YLs limited concentration span (Brewster, Ellis, and Girard 2002), activities requiring focus were interspersed with physical activities (games with movement, or manual activity). Music (classic or children's themes) accompanied manual activities to maintain focus on language tasks and prevent students chatting in French.

Concerning procedure details for the final outcome assessment refer to chapter 4 (section 4.4.3). From the 22 test transcripts, the number of words,

phrases and questions uttered by students were aggregated to provide for quantitative data analysis. Transcripts included all student target language, the description of assessment content, and qualitative comments concerning students' reactions to the outcome assessment questions, providing for qualitative analysis. Analysis results enabled evaluating possible student engagement with the general approach in the control classes and the 'story approach' in the intervention class.

Qualitative inter-rater reliability of the 'story approach' was provided through the class teacher (CT) observation notes, and the tick-off charts for recording on-going formative and summative monitoring results. These provided an independent objective view on the 'story approach' and theoretical framework.

8.2. Quantitative Data Analysis and Results

The 22 test transcripts of the outcome assessment were coded according to specific criteria/categories and analysed through content analysis which encompasses both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the data (Saldana, 2013). These criteria/categories were developed, trialled, and refined before conducting the analysis. The quantitative analysis involved test items one to four (appendix 11); Items five to seven of the test, were picture-description and 'storytelling' exercises and required phrases rather than single word responses; these have been analysed qualitatively. In order to avoid tester bias, the researcher was cautious to allow ample response time to students who were hesitating, and in the absence of a response, repeated the question several times while encouraging the student. This has been demonstrated through transcript examples in the discussion in section four. Interestingly, the test was designed to last 15-20 minutes; the actual test length for the 22 students ranged between 9 minutes 30 seconds and 25 minutes 35 seconds, averaging 17 minutes 33 seconds.

8.2.1. Comparison of Raw Scores

For the outcome assessment, statistical analysis enabled calculating the means for the total number of correct intervention and control group responses, for test items one to four, as an indication of oral communicative speaking and comprehension skills. This analysis focused only on correct responses relating to the question. Points for the four test items described in Table 8.1 (appendices 11/11A for additional details), were attributed according to criteria developed on the basis of the requirements of the CEFR A1 speaking skills level and the FME, as minimum required knowledge.

Table 8.1
Criteria for attributing points for end of year test

	Criteria		POINTS
Item 1 18 questions	Questions 1-17 Even a one word answer related to the question: e.g. Q: "How old are you?" R: "Eight"	Question 18 Students should be able to identify at least two out of the four numbers, 5 11 17 20.	18
Item 2 Actions Comprehension	Students needed to perform at least three actions out of seven correctly.		1
Item 3 Actions Speaking	Students are required to say at least two actions, of their choice, for the examiner to perform.		1
Item 4 Questions Speaking	Students were required to ask the examiner at least one question.		1
Total number of points = 21			21

Measures of central tendency, were calculated for the results of test items 1-4 and are reported in Table 8.2 Analysis demonstrate a substantially higher

mean for the intervention group (M=14) than for the control group (M=3.09); the lowest value for the Intervention group being 5 compared to 2 for the control group, and the highest being 21 for the intervention group and 6 for the control group.

Table 8.2
Mean, Median and SD values for test results items one to four

Group	Mean	Median	SD
Intervention	14.00	13.00	4.35
Control	3.09	3.00	1.22

Table 8.3 reports the median value for correct responses to test items one to four for the two groups. The Mann-Whitney test demonstrates this difference as being statistically significant (Greasley, 2008). The effect size was calculated (r=-0.839); however, due to the small sample size (Cohen, et al. 2011 p. 616), these results are to be considered with great caution, their purpose being simply an indication of direction.

Table 8.3
Median and Mann-Whitney test results for outcome assessment test items one to four

Sample	Median	U	Sig. (2tailed) P value
Intervention Group n=11	13.00	1.00	.000
Control Group n=11	3.00		

8.2.2. Comprehensibility of Language

Not all the language produced in English was included in the quantitative analysis; the following criteria/categories were employed for distinguishing words, phrases, and questions in English, within the transcripts, for conducting inferential statistical analysis:

- Every comprehensible word spoken outside a phrase or a question.

- Every comprehensible phrase of two words or more whether grammatically correct or not. A phrase was defined as being two words or more which carry meaning and make sense within the context of the discourse, and as "a small group of words standing together as a conceptual unit" (Pearsall, 1999, p. 1077).

- Every question formulated in a comprehensible manner, and intended as a question (intonation), whether grammatically correct or not.

- Spontaneous (i.e. naturally, without being asked) repetition of teacher language.

The following language was excluded:

- Singing

- Counting in sequence

However, for excluded language, there were only examples of counting in sequence in the 22 transcripts. According to these criteria, the number of words, phrases and questions produced by each student were aggregated for the 11 control group and the 11 intervention group students for conducting inferential quantitative analysis using the Mann-Whitney U test; this permitted determining if the difference in language produced in words, phrases, and questions, was statistically significant for the intervention group compared to the control group. The Mann-Whitney U test for two independent samples was carried out for inferential analysis given that the data was not normally distributed, and the data was derived from two separate

groups, the intervention and the control group (Greasley, 2008; Cohen, Manion and Morison, 2011).

Table 8.4 reports results for the Mann-Whitney U test for the two groups citing the median number of words, phrases and questions produced; the control group, however, produced no questions. The Mann-Whitney two-tailed test found no statistically significant difference between groups for the number of words produced. However, the difference in phrases and questions produced was statistically significant. The effect size (words: r=-0.385; phrases: r=-0.848; questions: r=-0.714) was calculated (Cohen, et al. 2011 p. 616). However, as previously emphasised, inferential results are to be cautiously interpreted, and are merely intended to provide a sense of direction of the data, particularly in relation to the qualitative results.

Table 8.4
Median and Mann-Whitney test results, for words, phrases, and questions

Sample	Median		
	Words	Phrases	Questions
Total Sample n=22	33.00	9.00	.00
Intervention Group n=11	43.00	51.00	4.00
Control Group n=11	23.00	3.00	.00
U	33.00	.000	16.50
Sig (2tailed) P Value	.076	.000	.002

The substantial difference, in the production of phrases in particular, between the 11 intervention group students (instruction through a general approach of current commercial programmes) and the 11 control group students (instruction through the 'story approach'), seems to demonstrate that after a year of instruction with two different approaches, the intervention group, through the 'story approach', presents a greater capacity for oral interaction in English though phrases and therefore possibly more advanced communicative skills.

8.2.3. Inter-Rater Procedures, Results, and Analysis and Discussion

This section reports the inter-rater procedures, analysis, and results of the quantitative data. To ensure validity and reliability, transcripts of the video recorded data were independently coded by a rater; correlation analysis was conducted in SPSS 26, using the Kendall tau-b correlation test, to determine the degree of association between the researcher's results and that of the independent rater.

8.2.3.1. Procedures

As in years one and two, carefully reading the transcripts and double-checking results proved to be essential for the rater's and the researcher's results to tally as utterances could inadvertently be missed or counted twice.

It was agreed that names would be excluded in single word counts but would be included if part of a phrase e.g. 'good morning Ben'. The words 'socket', 'glot' and 'ze' presented a dilemma: students regularly referred to sock/socks as 'socket/sockets'; as this was comprehensible, though incorrect, it was agreed it should be counted; the word 'glot' for glove, however, was considered incomprehensible and was excluded; the word 'ze' for 'the' was counted as comprehensible and a pronunciation issue. One student (PH) regularly repeated the examiner's questions. Spontaneously repeating language was included in the criteria of acceptable language; these phrases however were counted as phrases and not as questions as it was agreed that the student was repeating the question but not asking it. In another case, a student asked the same question 12 times; after careful consideration this was finally counted as the question was one that could occur in this way in any authentic conversation and was in no way contrived: the student asked the question 'what colour is this?' for each of the different colours in the box. Another student (KN) asked a question commencing with 'Did you…? Unfortunately, the end of the question was incomprehensible; however, this was still counted as a question, as it was agreed that the listener would

naturally be prompted to ask for clarification by asking a question in return e.g. 'Did I … what?' which would extend the oral communicative exchange. The same student formulated questions which were not grammatically correct, but were asked with a questioning intonation and given the topic and context were intended as such by the student, it was agreed that these should be counted.

Inter-rater counting of language output proved different to years one and two as the transcripts were of a testing process with individual students rather than a class where interaction was more spontaneous and could involve several students at once. When counting language items, the researcher and inter-rater needed to be particularly vigilant as, especially students in the intervention group, were code-switching more frequently than in year one and two, implying that a word in English in the middle of a phrase in French could easily be missed.

8.2.3.2. Results

Correlation analysis was conducted using Kendall tau-b, due to the small sample size: results, are reported in this section.

For words and phrases produced in the tests, a strong positive correlation was demonstrated between the researcher and the rater's results as follows: for words rt=1.00, p=.00; and for phrases rt=1.00, p=.00, demonstrating 100% agreement between raters for words and phrases.

8.2.3.3. Analysis and Discussion

Results demonstrate a particularly strong correlation of over 0.85 between the researcher's and the rater's results which is unusual in educational studies (Cohen, et al. 2011). However, these results reflect the simplicity of analysing the test result data of words and phrases from the transcripts once the few discrepancies (section 8.2.3.1) had been harmonised. The remaining divergence spring from minor differences in interpretation of words and phrases as exemplified as follows (English foreign language teacher: EFL-T):

Transcript Intervention Class: student PH

-EFL-T: --- How old are you?

- Student PH: --- Eh… is, I am…

- EFL-T: Ehmm

- Student PH: Seven…?

In this example the researcher considered student PH constructed a phrase "I am … seven" and considered "is" as an isolated word, whereas the rater considered the phrase as being "I am" with "is" and "seven" being words.

Transcript Intervention Class: student TE

-EFL-T: Ok. Well done. Ok… super! Ok, that's very good. Ok… so let's try the next one. Ok… tell me T---, tell me… what do you see in this picture?

- Student TE: This is… eh… I see snowy

- EFL-T: Ehmm…

- Student TE: … and I see girl.

Here, the researcher considered that student TE constructed one phrase "I see snowy" and said two words, "This" and "is". The rater considered the utterance as two phrases "This is" and "I see snowy"; both researcher and rater agreed in considering "… and I see girl" as a phrase.

8.3. Qualitative Data Analysis and Results

In year three study, qualitative data analysis was conducted through content analysis. As previously, analysis took an inductive-deductive approach, through counting the frequency of phenomena (Saldana, 2013), while investigating developing patterns (Coolican, 2014). As previously, theory for the development of EFL oral communicative skills in French primary school

students encompasses predicting and controlling events; explaining the how and why of phenomenon; providing insight for their application (Saldana, 2013). In view of validating the theoretical framework, data has been gathered and analysed to support the hypothesis that personal 'story' is central to EFL learning.

8.3.1. Pre and Post Parent Questionnaires

The pre-intervention questionnaires confirmed the linguistic profile of the initial 31 intervention class students as being largely native French speaking. Five of the 31 students spoke other languages at home (Dutch and Arabic), other than English or French; two students were mainly English speaking, one of whom left the school after term one (reducing numbers to 30). All thirty one pre-intervention questionnaires were returned completed, compared to 19 out of 30 for post-intervention. Concerning opinions on EFL teaching in French primary school (Figure 8.1), nineteen parents out of thirty-one (61%) considered it insufficient; one considered it very good; six had no opinion; two particularly focused on the lack of oral skills development; one felt that English should only be taught in school after primary, but be more present in the media for implicit learning until twelve years old; one parent felt that teaching EFL before primary school confuses children, whereas another thought the opposite.
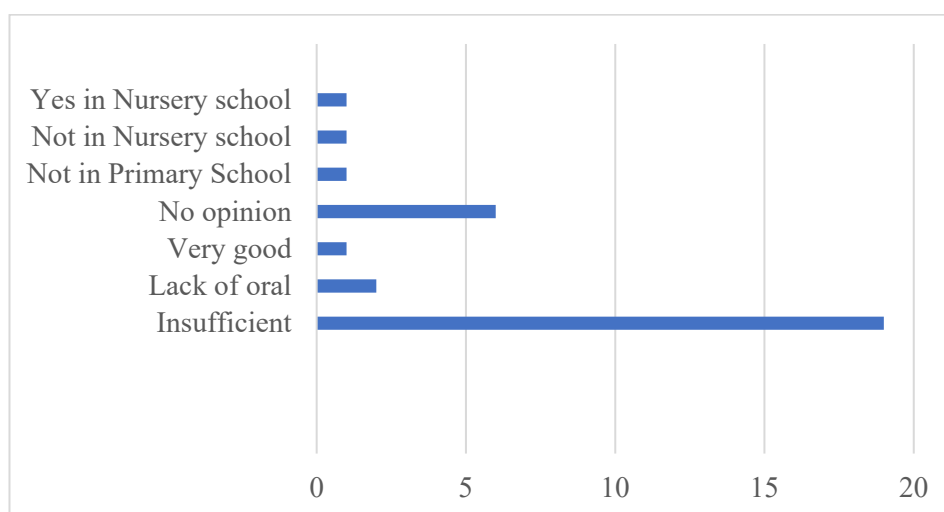
Figure 8.1. Pre-intervention questionnaire results concerning 31 parent's opinion on general EFL teaching in French primary school.

Twenty-six of the thirty-one intervention class students (84%), were declared as enjoying English at the start of the year, compared to fifteen of the nineteen students (79%) for the post-intervention questionnaires returned. In both questionnaires, parents were asked if their children seemed to spontaneously speak, sing, or count in English at home. Of the thirty-one pre-questionnaires, thirteen replied positively (42%), compared to sixteen out of nineteen (84%) for post-intervention (Figure 8.2).
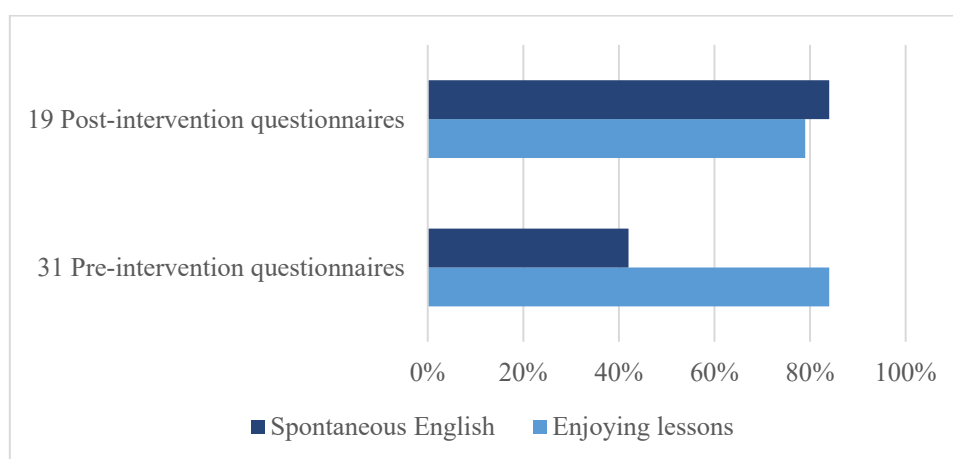
Figure 8.2. Pre-post-intervention questionnaire results concerning parent's opinion on student's spontaneous production and enjoyment of English.

Of the nineteen post-intervention responses, 13 parents had a positive view (68%) of the oral homework given during the year, four did not comment and two replied negatively. Overall, opinions on the EFL 'story approach' over the year were positive (Figure 8.3): twelve parents out of nineteen were very satisfied (63%); six were without opinion (31.57%) and one was negative.
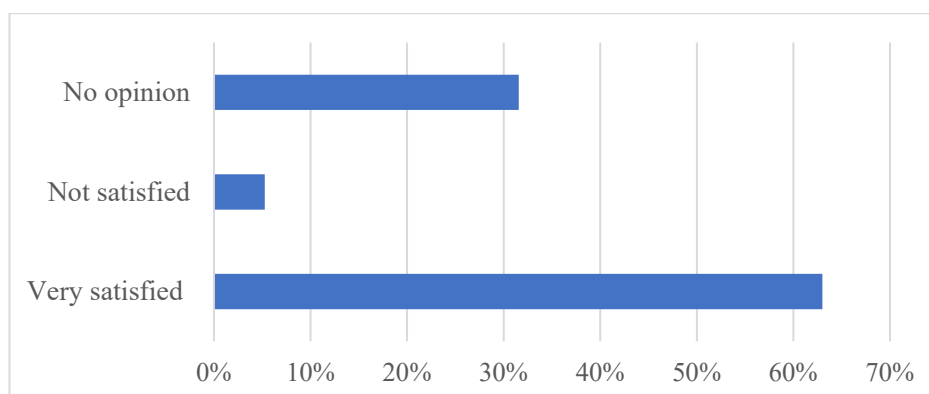
Figure 8.3. Post-intervention questionnaire results concerning 19 parent's satisfaction with the 'story approach'.

8.3.2. Field Notes, Journal Notes, and Lesson Plans

The field and journal notes fed into the lesson (teaching) plans which incorporated the theoretical framework and 'story approach'. These notes included practical difficulties which arose in teaching, e.g. discipline issues lesson 6. Efficient activities were developed e.g. lesson 10: students composed oral phrases using magnetic pictures and words they could read; the following week, the activity difficulty was increased by providing pictures only, obliging students to rely solely on recall for oral phrase construction. Journal notes also reflected outside classroom incidents e.g. (before lesson 20) the following spontaneous conversation with CSG student TE in the school playground:

EFL-T: "Hello T! How are you today?"

Student TE: "Happy and tired"

EFL-T: "Do you still have a cold?"

Student TE: "No"

EFL-T: "How is Z?" (her baby sister).

Student TE: "Happy".

EFL-T: "T, what is the weather like today?"

Student TE: "Sunny and cloudy".

8.3.3. Class Teacher Observation Notes

These provided an objective view on the 'story approach', through triangulation of data collection and analysis, permitting qualitative inter-rater reliability (Coolican, 2014; Teddllie and Tashakkori, 2009 pp.213).

Term 1: Overall, activities were noted positively (interesting and varied); however, though oral exercises with individual students were beneficial, other students got bored. Materials were noted as cheerful, fun, and creative while

remaining concrete and providing for structured learning (Long, 2009); the same nine students, always seemed to reply in EFL class, of which five were very good (included three CSG students), and four others less good; certain students were not performing well in school work generally, including EFL.

Term 2: The CT continued noting materials and activities positively: concrete items, realia, magnetic pictures and words; more active group and individual participation (e.g. lesson 14: NH, KD) than in term one, and the whole class participating actively (Mitchell, 2009) (e.g. lessons 14, 15, 18, 19 "*tous participent activement*", "all participate actively"); EFL-T writing numbers and words/phrases on the whiteboard; oral question-answer games, and constructing phrases; conversation practice using images (particularly good participation from the whole class); action games (good group participation); grammar practice using images (Ellis, 1999a) (e.g. lesson 15: pronouns he, she and the verb "to have"); interactive activities with students writing words on the whiteboard or manipulating images and realia. However certain individual oral activities still seemed too long as some students were getting agitated (e.g. lessons 17, 18) and tended to lose concentration (lesson 20). For out-loud story-reading students appeared very attentive (lesson 19), and simultaneously giving the meaning (Ellis, 2005; Mitchell, 2009) in French was positive. Positive comments included an activity involving individual conversations with students (lesson 20) demonstrating their progress ("*des vrais progrès par la construction des phrases*", "true progress in phrase construction"), formulating questions, e.g. "what colour is this?" (TE) and, through games, becoming familiar with the negative "I like… I don't like" (lesson 22).

Term 3: Despite the well designed activities, students' oral skills progress, and good participation, certain students rapidly lost focus (lessons 25-26) during individual oral practice; pronunciation activities were particularly beneficial (e.g. "u", "th", "h", "hungry… angry"), as were homework activities, which were well explained, provided good revision (lessons 28-29), and demonstrated efficiency of the 'story approach' materials. Positive comments included progress in storytelling (lesson 30), and asking and answering questions (Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Mackey, 1999; Mackey and

Philp, 1998) : e.g. "what is the weather like today?" "How many…?" what is your name?" Music and colouring activities enhanced student concentration e.g. (lesson 30) during individual oral testing (outcome assessment), students not being tested, carried out written descriptive/colouring exercises, and positive comments included variety and content of materials: "*fiches intéressantes et variées*".

8.3.4. Outcome Assessment: comprehension skills

Students presented varying degrees of comprehension skills (Graham and Macaro, 2008) during the final outcome assessment, ranging from very poor to excellent. The following three assessment transcript extracts exemplify this. The extracts also demonstrate the examiner's attempts at facilitating comprehension (Lightbown and Spada, 2006) to avoid tester bias. These points will be discussed in section 4.

Extract (1) Control Group Student IEC

1-EFL-T: Ok. Alright. We're ready. Alright, so, tell me, what is your name?

2-Student IEC: Eh… Je sais pas. (I don't know)

3-EFL-T: Yes… what is your name? --- no? --- Ok then. Ok. --- How-old-are-you?

4-Student IEC: Je ne comprends pas du tout votre langue (I don't understand your language at all).

Extract (2) Control Group Student MB

1-EFL-T: Ok… so tell me… what is your name?

2-Student MB: Eh… my name is M--- (MB).

3-EFL-T: Super… How old are you?

4-Student MB: --- Ehm… J'ai oublié (I can't remember)

5-EFL-T: Doesn't matter. Ok… don't worry. --- Ok… what… tell me… eh... What colour is this?

Student MB: Yellow.

6-EFL-T: Ok… good, bravo! Ok… tell me… ehm, how many pens? --- How many? --- How many pens?

7-Student MB: Eh, yellow… red… green… green… yellow… orange… orange, pink, blue… ça c'est du noir? (this one's black?).

8- EFL-T: Yes.

9- Student MB: Black… Ehm… ehm… je sais plus. (I can 't remember).

10- EFL-T: Don't worry.

11- Student MB: --- Et, eh… c'est bleu? (this is blue?)

12- EFL-T: -Um hm.

13- Student MB: Blue.

14- EFL-T: Ok… alright. --- Ok… super. Alright… What is the weather like today? --- The weather?

15- Student MB: ---Eh… Je /// (Je sais pas). (I don't know)

Extract (3) Control Group Student BK

1-EFL-T: What is your name?

2-Student BK: Eh… My name is B--- (BK).

3-EFL-T: Ok… well done. --- Ok… tell me, B--- (BK)… how old are you? --- How-old-are-you?

4-Student BK: --- Eh… C'est les yeux ? (Ah… it's about eyes?)

5-EFL-T: Ehm… How-old-are-you? (Repeats question slowly)

6-Student BK: --- De quelle couleur sont tes yeux ? (What colour are your eyes?)

7-EFL-T: Ehm… not quite.

8-Student BK: …

9-EFL-T: --- Ok… Let's continue. Ok… tell me B--- (BK). Tell me… what colour is this?

10-Student BK: Red… hello (yellow)…

11-EFL-T: Well done! Ok… very good! Ok… eh… tell me B--- (BK), how many pens? --- How many pens? --- How many pens?

12-Student BK: …

13-EFL-T: --- How many pens? --- Ok.

14-Student BK: …

15-EFL-T: --- How many pens?

16-Student BK: --- Umm…

17-EFL-T: --- No?

18-Student BK: --- No.

19- EFL-T: --- Ok… alright… ok. --- Tell me… tell me B--- (BK) what is the weather like today? The weather? --- What is the weather like today?

20- Student BK: … (no response)

Extract (4) Intervention Group Student TE (CSG student)

1-EFL-T: Ok… come in T---, Alright… sit down. Oops! Ok… alright. --- Let's put this here like this. Ok… tell me T---, what is your name?

2-Student TE: Eh… my name is T---.

3-EFL-T: Ok, T---. --- Tell me T---, how old are you?

4-Student TE: I am eight!

5-EFL-T: Ok, tell me T---, what colour is this?

6-Student TE: This is yellow.

7-EFL-T: Ok. --- Ok, T--- Tell me… let's put this on one side… tell me…
how many pens? --- How many? How…

8-Student TE: Twelve.

9-EFL-T: Ok.

10-Student TE: This is twelve.

11-EFL-T: Ok… this is 12 pens… well done. --- Ok T---, what is the
weather like today?

12-Student TE: Sunny…

The researcher endeavoured to give ample time for comprehension e.g. for
test item four (appendix 11) over a half a minute attempt was made to
encourage control group student BK, but without success.

8.3.5. Outcome Assessment: recall and recurring patterns

A number of patterns resulted from the qualitative analysis of the final
outcome assessment transcripts. It seems that lack of confidence (self-
efficacy: Fisher, 2005; Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008; Lucas,
2011a) could be a hindering factor to recall and was noticeable when students
replied with a questioning intonation as in extracts 5 and 6: control group
student QD had difficulty with test question one, however, with the EFL-T
encouragement, was able to answer hesitantly; control group student BK
hesitated on vocabulary, but was edged on by the EFL-T's reassuring "ok".

Extract (5) Control Group Student QD

1-EFL-T: What is your name?

2-Student QD: --- Ehm… Je ne sais pas (I don't know).

3-EFL-T : --- Think… what is your name?

4-Student QD: …

5-EFL-T: What is your name?

6-Student QD: --- Q--- (QD)?

Extract (6) Control Group Student BK

1- EFL-T: --- Ok… Ok, that's fine. Now… can you tell me a story? --- Come here… Come here. --- Can you tell me a story here? --- Anything you like from here… You tell me a story. --- Tell me a story.

2- Student BK: --- Eh… Sh… Shorts.

3- EFL-T: Ok… put it here. --- ummm.

4- Student BK: --- Ehm… S… eh… Socks?

5- EFL-T: Ok.

6- Student BK: --- Socks?

7- EFL-T: Ok.

8- Student BK: ---Ehm… jacket?

9- EFL-T: Uhmmm… not jacket.

9- Student BK: --- Eh… Socks.

10- EFL-T: Ok.

11- Student BK: --- Eh… T-shirt.

12- EFL-T: Ok. --- Good!

Students appeared ill at ease when unable to recall; student NE's facial expressions and body language appeared to demonstrate this in extract 7. In extract 8, the words "My monster's name is…" and "Colour the clothes. Colour the face" were printed on the colouring sheet (appendix 12: Frino, et al. 2014a, p.T123) student BE was describing, which means he could have been reading these words.

Test extract (7) Intervention Group Student NE

1-EFL-T: What is your name?

2-Student NE: My name is N---

3-EFL-T: How old are you?

4-Student NE: Eh… je ne me souviens plus (I can 't remember)

5-EFL-T: What colour is this?

6-Student NE: Jaune (yellow)

7-EFL-T: In English.

8-Student NE: Ah… ehm…

9-EFL-T: … No? --- Ok… tell me N---, how many pens? --- how many pens?

10-Student NE: … (NE lips are moving; he's counting under his breath).

11-EFL-T: … How many? --- How many pens?

12-Student NE: … (NE shakes his head to indicate he can't reply)

13-EFL-T: … No?

14-Student NE: … (NE shakes his head)

15-EFL-T: Ok… Alright. Ok… tell me N---, what is the weather like today? (EFL-T looks out of the window several times).

16-Student NE: Je ne me souviens plus comment le dire (I can't remember how to say it).

Extract (8) Control Group Student BE

1- EFL-T: Ok… ehm… B--- (BE), can you tell me about your picture? Ok… what is his name?

2- Student BE: --- eh… Monez monster.

3- EFL-T: Ok… ok…Ok! Good! Alright… can you tell me something else about this? Tell me… tell me… what is this? What is this? Tell me.

4- Student BE: A monster?

5- EFL-T: Ok. Something else? --- This… this…

6- Student BE: Aaah…

7- EFL-T: Tell me… tell me… what is this?

8- Student BE: ehm… trousers…

9- EFL-T: Ok.

10- Student BE: T-shirt…

11- EFL-T: Yes.

12- Student BE: --- Nose…

13- EFL-T: uummm… (acknowledgement)

14- Student BE: --- Hear… (ear) (BE points at the ear)

15- EFL-T: uummm… (acknowledgement)

16- Student BE: /// (A? The?) fes? (BE points at the face)

17- EFL-T: um?

18- Student BE: Face?

19- EFL-T: Ok. --- What else?

20- Student BE: Aaah… Je sais pas… (Aaah… I don't know)

21- EFL-T: Ok.

22- Student BE: Aaah… Je sais plus… No... Je sais plus.(Aaah… I don't remember … no… I don't remember).(BE puts his hand to his forehead and is thinking hard).

In extract 9, student MB searched in her pencil case, removing items one by one until she found a particular item, but was unable to recall it in English. The EFL-T gave a final attempt to the question "what do you have in your pencil case" by pointing at items MB could know, but recall (Ellis, 2005) remained impossible (line 10).

Extract (9) Control Group Student MB

1- EFL-T: Ok… tell me… What do you have in your pencil-case? What do you have in your pencil-case?

2- Student MB: …

3- EFL-T: What do you have in your pencil-case?

4- Student MB: --- /// (speaks in French).

5- EFL-T: Ehm… Ok.

6- Student MB: --- Attends… c'est quoi déjà… ah… je sais plus comment le dire. (Wait… what's this… ah… I can't remember how to say it)

7- EFL-T: Ok… don't worry. Don't worry… Ok… put it all back. What's this? What-is-this? --- No?

8- Student MB: --- Ehm…

9- EFL-T: Ok… don't worry. Put everything back. --- What is this? --- No?

10- Student MB: --- Eh… Je l'avais appris… mais, je ne me souviens plus. (Eh… I have learnt it… but I can't remember).

In extract 10 student HD described the monster picture, recalling some vocabulary; surprisingly in line 10 , HD remembered the word "eyes" but could not recall it in line 22.

Extract (10) Control Group student HD

1- EFL-T: No, but what is his name?

2- Student HD: --- Ah… ce monstre? (---Ah… this monster?)

3- EFL-T: Yes.

4- Student HD: Ah, eh… Mistigri.

5- EFL-T: Ok good! Ok… tell me about the picture… what can you tell me? --- What is this? What is this? What is this? ---what is this… this…this?

6- Student HD: Ah!

7- EFL-T: Can you tell me?

8- Student HD: Les cheveux c'est air (hair)… (*cheveux* means hair…)

9- EFL-T : Ok.

10- Student HD: les yeux c'est eye ; le nez c'est nose… (*les yeux* means eyes ; *le nez* is nose…)

11- EFL-T: Hem…

12- Student HD: Ehm… et… /// je crois… ah, non ///

13- EFL-T: Hem?

14- Student HD: Trouser et /// (shoes).

15- EFL-T: Ok.

16- Student HD: Ah…

17- EFL-T: Ok. Anything else?

18- Student HD: --- Les oreilles.

19- EFL-T: Ok.

20- Student HD: --- Les oreilles sont ears. (--- *oreilles* means ears)

21- EFL-T: Ok.

22- Student HD: Eh… les yeux… Ah… je sais plus. (Eh… *les yeux*… ah…
I can't remember).

In extract 11, student BT could not identify numbers 17 and 20 when the EFL-T wrote them down, yet was able to say 17 and 20, when counting.

Extract (11) Intervention Group student BT (CSG student)

65- EFL-T: --- Ok… A---tell me. --- Tell me… What number is this?

66- Student BT: --- Five.

67- EFL-T: Ok. Well done. ---What number is this?

68- Student BT: --- Eleven.

69- EFL-T: Ok. --- Ok… what number is this? (EFL-T writes number 17)

70- Student BT: --- Je ne sais plus. (--- I can 't remember)

71- EFL-T: No, don't worry. --- And what number is this? (EFL-T writes number 20)

72- Student BT: --- No. --- Agh…

73- EFL-T: No, don't worry. --- Count…. Count.

74- Student BT: --- 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20.

75- EFL-T: Yes… So what number is this?

76- Student BT: …

77- EFL-T: --- No?

78- Student BT: No.

In extract 12, student BT was not able to formulate a question, though was able to in class during the year, for example, BT regularly asked the EFL-T "Did you sleep well?" However, in line 4, student BT does apply a questionning intonation.

Extract (12) Intervention Group Student BT (CSG student)

1- EFL-T: Ok! Alright! Ok… well done! --- Ok and now you ask me some questions. --Questions… you'll ask me questions.

2- Student BT: --- Ehm… /// morning.

3- EFL-T: --- Oh… what did I do in the morning? --- Morning eh… I go to school!

4- Student BT: --- Ehm… Weekend?

5- EFL-T: -- At the weekend? Ehm… at the weekend I play with my friends.

6- Student BT: Ehm… Je sais plus. (I don't remember any more)

7- EFL-T: --- What about my name?

8- Student BT: Ah… Je sais plus. (I don't remember any more)

9- EFL-T: No?

10- Student BT: Je me souviens plus ! (I can 't remember).

8.3.6. Outcome Assessment: metacognitive and metalinguistic skills

The test transcripts present multiple examples of MCS and MLS development. A number of students were able to formulate phrases using an adjective, cardinal number, or adverb, and also using a verb. Students manifested metacognitive skills through auto-correction, and overuse of certain grammatical forms. Students were code-switching substantially more than in previous years (interlanguage skills).

Table 8.5 reports the total number of different phrases said in the tests, using a verb (i.e. the same phrase may have been said several times, by the same student, but is only listed once), for the 'story approach' intervention group (including the CSG) (1) and the 'general approach' control group (2); The phrases listed in Table 8.5 are comprehensible, despite certain pronunciation errors. Table 8.5 also reports the total number of code-switching incidents for each student in both the groups.

Table 8.5
Phrases using a verb, and number of code switching incidents

Student Groups 1 and 2	Phrases using a verb	Number of phrases	Code-switching incidents
Group 1			
KD (CSG)	My name is K---; I brush my hair; stand-up; sit-down; be quiet; turn around; what's your name? how are you? Got two ducks.	9	5

PH (CSG)	My name is P---; I am seven; is sunny; how are you today? Do you like to eat? Go to sleep; you tell me; stand-up; turn around; sit-down; wis colour is this colour? Wis colour is this?	12	22
TE (CSG)	My name is T---; I am eight; this is yellow; this is twelve; I brush my hair; I make some cakes; I'm home again; I play with my friends; stand-up; be quiet; sit-down; did you sleep well? What is the weather like today? What colour is this? How old are you? Do you speak English? I see rainy and windy; I see girl; Boy, ehm… he has… ehm… shirt… and glasses and trousers; he has three little trees, and… ehm green, two green… two green, big trees, and one butterfly, and little red house; I see snowy; I see girl; she has a… hat… and shoes and ehm… basket… and two sheep; she has… ehm… jacket… ? … and buttons… eh and red ah… buttons… and red, eh… red pockets… and flowers… and cow… and ehm… and horse; this is Stella; she has… table… a table; she has… shoes… two blue shoes… and ehm… one little tree… and five eh… fish; she has ehm… a chair… and a… little red house.	29	3
BT (CSG)	My name is B---; I am eight; I go to school; I make some cakes; I watch the television; stand-up; turn around; brush your hair; make some cakes; sit-down.	10	9
BEC	My name is B---; I'm happy; I'm fine; I like television; what is the weather like today? What's your name? What colour is this? How are you today? Did you sleep well? You speak English? Do you speak English? My monster is Sam; Sam is (has) one butterfly; she has a cow and horse… and basket; Max has horse… has duck and t-shirt… and one cat, and one camel… ehm… one bag… one glue… one rubber and eh one pencil… pencil and pencil sharpener… case; Max has ruler; Max has pencil sharpener; Max has dog… dog; Max has map.	19	3
HC	I am eight; I am fine; I like… I like eh… vegetables… and… and eh juice; I like, I like burger… and … and pasta; I don't like milk and… and eh and ehm… and orange; I don't like… I don't like ehm… banana and apple; I like teacher; I like… vegetables; I like… eh… I like… I like… chocolate; I like… I like… fish! I like ehm… I like ehm… I like… I like… eh… I like cow; turn around; stand-up; sit-down.	14	0
NE	My name is N---; My name is --- (*says the examiner's name*); sit-down; My name is Bob (*the monster's name in the picture*).	4	4
BM	My name is B---; I am… happy and… angry; I don't drink; I like milk… and juice; to eat, I… um burger… and eh… um… burger and cake; what's your name? How old are you?	7	2
KN	How old are you? How old are you today? Stand-up; what's your name; sit-down; I eat lunchtime; I like to eat; My name is monst… Hubert.	8	5
BO	My name is B---; I am nine; Haime (I am) happy; what do you like to eat? I like… I like a burger… and pasta; I like water… and jwice (juice); I don't like… gingerbread and… cake; I	13	3

	don't like… water; I brush my hair; I like to sing; I watch television; be quiet; she has… she has… Sara.		
BS	My name is B---; I am ten; did you sleep well? How are you today? What is the weather like today? How old are you?	6	0

Group 2			
MB	My name is M---; stand-up; sit-down; what's your name?	4	6
HD	My name is H---.	1	7
HEB	My name is H---.	1	0
IEH	My name is I---. My monster's name is Bob.	2	0
BK	My name is B---.	1	1
BS	My name is B---.	1	1
BEBEC	My name is B---.	1	0
QD	Write your name.	1	0
IEC		0	1
EG		0	1
QQ	My name is Q---; My monster's name is Simon.	2	1

8.3.7. Outcome Assessment: oral communicative competence, conversation skills and creative language

Oral communicative competence appears to imply good comprehension skills (Long, 1996; Graham and Macaro, 2008) and sufficient vocabulary and syntax to be able to communicate (produce creative language) and respond to spoken language (Ellis, 2005). The end of year outcome assessment enabled evaluating this competence through students replying to questions, and descriptive, and storytelling activities. Extracts 1-4 demonstrate the type of language four CSG students produced.

Extract: 1 Student PH Intervention Class (CSG)

1- EFL-T: Ok. Don't worry. Ok P---, what about this picture? --- What can you tell me about this picture? --- What can you tell me about this picture?

2- Student PH: --- Two sheep…

3- EFL-T: Ehmm

4- Student PH: … and basket…

5- EFL-T: Ehmm

6- Student PH: … and shoes…

7- EFL-T: Ehmm

8- Student PH: … and free (three) bleu… blue… birds.

Extract: 2 Student KD Intervention Class (CSG)

1- EFL-T: Ok. Don't worry. That's good. --- Ok, K--- can you tell me anything about this picture?

2- Student KD: Her shoes… her two sheep white. Her horse, her cow, her snowy (picture with snow). --- Her basket. Her three bird… eh… voila.

Extract: 3 Student TE Intervention Class (CSG)

1- EFL-T: … Ok, good. Now, can you ask me a question? --- Ask me a question.

2- Student TE: Ehm… Did you sleep well?

3- EFL-T: Ehm… yes… I had a nightmare, a little. (Laughter).

4- Student TE: Ehm… What is the weather like today?

5- EFL-T: Weather?... Weather? … It is sunny… and little cloudy and little windy.

6- Student TE: Ehm… What colour is this?

7- EFL-T: Oh… this is red and white.

8- Student TE: Ehm… How many?

9- EFL-T: How many? Ok… one two three! Three pens!

10- Student TE: Ehm… What colour is this?

11- EFL-T: …

12- Student TE: What colour is this?

13- EFL-T: What colour is this? This is orange? Orange hair.

14- Student TE: Ehm… How old are you?

15- EFL-T: Oh… I am… very old! --- ! Wow!

16- Student TE: Ehm… ehm… Do you speak English?

17- EFL-T: Ehm… Yes! Very well!

Extract: 4 Student BT Intervention Class (CSG)

1- EFL-T: Well done! Yeah! Twelve… twelve pens. Good! --- Ok… tell me B---, what is the weather like today? --- The weather?

2- Student BT: Eh… sunny?

3- EFL-T: Ehmm… a little. Ehmm… sunny…

4- Student BT: --- And… Cloudy?

5- EFL-T: Yes! Cloudy! --- Sunny and cloudy. Good. Ok… ehm… tell me B… did you sleep well?

6- Student BT: Yes! I no nightmare!

7- EFL-T: Oh good! Very nice! --- Ehm… tell me… how are you today?

8- Student BT: Happy and… ready for work.

9- EFL-T: Good! Ok… well done. Ok… tell me B---, what do you like to eat?

10- Student BT: --- Je sais pas (I don't know)

11- EFL-T: Yeah! What do you like to eat?

12- Student BT: …

13- EFL-T: No?... Ok. --- What do you like to drink?

14- Student BT: Ah… ehm… ah… milk.

15- EFL-T: Yeah! --- What do you like to eat?

16- Student BT: Eh… cake.

17- EFL-T: Yes! Good! Ok. --- Cake and…

18- Student BT: … and … burger.

19- EFL-T: Ok, good! Ok… good. --- You like to eat cake and burger and you like to drink milk.

20- Student BT: Milk and juice.

21- EFL-T: Ok…. Ok… juice, good! --- Tell me B---, what don't you like to eat?

22- Student BT: Ehm… a cake… and eggs.

8.4. Discussion

This section encompasses qualitative and quantitative results for discussion. Assessment items one to seven were designed to evaluate oral communicative competence through conversational skills aligned with requirements for the CEFR AI level, and the French Ministry of Education. The test elicited language incorporating a variety of grammatical structures, including the following: one word answers; phrases of two words or more employing cardinal numbers, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, personal pronouns, the plural with "s" ending, the negative, the imperative, and the question form. The test provided for comprehension skills testing and oral production through replying questions; items five, six and seven particularly elicited language for descriptive tasks, of which seven was "storytelling".

Making the distinction in target language output between phrases produced and correct responses is noteworthy (Figure 8.4). For example, quantitative results indicate that whereas intervention group students KD, PH, TE, BT, and BM produced, 51, 57, 58, 76, and 66 phrases respectively, results for correct responses on test items 1-4 (out of 21 points) were, 11, 13, 21, 20 and 12, respectively. This appears to demonstrate that quantity of output is not necessarily an indication of oral communicative skills e.g. despite producing less language than BM, student TE performed substantially better. Though both were intervention group, being a CSG student, TE had benefitted from the 'story approach' instruction for more time than BM (only one year), possibly indicating the importance of length of instruction (Ellis, 1999; Ellis, 2005).
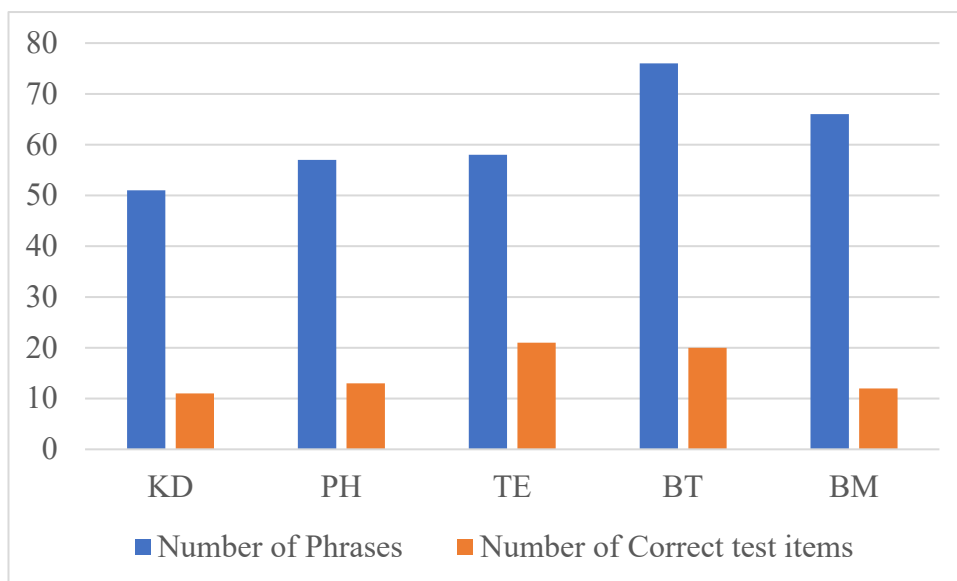
Figure 8.4. Results of test items 1-4 and number of phrases for five intervention group students.

8.4.1. Quantitative Results Reflected in the Qualitative Data

Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis present important findings for the 'story approach' concerning YL EFL oral communicative skills development. These demonstrated the intervention group as having substantially better results for the test items one to four than the control group,

though test items reflected language introduced to both groups. All the students tested came from monolingual French native speaking backgrounds, with no target language contact outside school; results possibly demonstrate the efficiency of the 'story approach' compared to the general approach. Students benefited from ample encouragement and thinking time as evidenced through the transcript extracts in section 8.3.5: in extract five, the examiner perseveres with, "what is your name?" despite the student's reply, "I don't know", ultimately getting a correct response; in extract nine, line seven, the examiner continues attempting language elicitation, despite the student's difficulty with recall. The examiner provided thinking time, through pausing, repeating questions, prompting through intonation and interjections, providing "space" to integrate meaning e.g. section 8.3.4 extract 2 line 14: "EFL-T: Ok… alright. --- Ok… super. Alright… What is the weather like

today? --- The weather?" Sections 8.3.4 and 8.3.5 equally appear to evidence the importance of teacher characteristics (chapter three section 3.3.12) in YL, EFL skills development (Enever, 2011; Lucas, 2011a; Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Villegas and Lucas, 2002). Indeed, such characteristics form an integral part of the 'story approach' (e.g. encouraging learner self-efficacy).

Weak comprehension skills appear a barrier to production (Graham and Macaro, 2008; Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2002); the former precedes the latter in language development (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006) and can therefore hinder oral communicative competence as demonstrated in section 8.3.4: extract one, line four, the student clearly indicates lack of comprehension; extract two, the student gives the names of colours instead of quantity; extract three, the student is convinced the examiner is asking the colour of her eyes, whereas she's asking his age; however, in extract four the student understands perfectly and is able to fully reply.

Another barrier appears to be affective factors (Krashen, 2009); this is seems demonstrated by the lack of confidence (2005; Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008; Lucas, 2011a) students exhibited and can be perceived in their attitude and tone of voice. For example, section 8.3.5 as in extract 6, several students replied with questioning intonation, looking at the examiner for approval before continuing; other students manifested considerable distress at being unable to reply to questions despite understanding, possibly further hindering recall (section 8.3.5 extracts 7, lines 4 and 8; extract 8 line 22); in these cases, the examiner reassured students with gentle language, tone of voice, and facial expression (section 8.3.5 extract 9, line 9). This again demonstrates the importance of teacher characteristics in YL, EFL skills development (Enever, 2011; Lucas, 2011a; Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Villegas and Lucas, 2002).

Speech learned as separate entities as a string of vocabulary possibly implies that students are unable to form phrases due to lack of grammar/syntax (Long, 2009); e.g. section 8.3.5 extract 10, for describing the picture, control group student HD produces a list of body-parts vocabulary (hair, eyes, nose, ears).

Similarly, control group student BS understands, but cannot recall how to reply question 7 (test item 1: appendix 11), "How are you today?"

Many control group students only produced single words in descriptive and question-response tasks; occasionally some produced short phrases using an article, e.g. section 8.3.5 extract 8: "a monster". This extract also presents examples of pronunciation difficulty: lines 14-16, "ear", "face"; the initial "h" sound, and combining syllables with "h", like "th", often pronounced "ze"; and "wh"and "ch" presenting difficulty for French native speakers e.g. Table 8.5 student PH: "wis" ("which"). These errors, however, appear not to hamper comprehensibility and oral interaction when spoken in a phrase, whereas single words would require additional support (e.g. pointing to a picture) for comprehensibility.

8.4.2. From Formulaic Speech to Descriptive Tasks and "Storytelling"

Test items five, six and seven involved: description of a personalised monster picture which students named and coloured in class prior to the test; two magnetic boards with magnetic pictures; and a large set of interrelated magnetic pictures, allowing for a wider spread of vocabulary than the two magnetic boards; these pictures only represented vocabulary all the students would have encountered during the year. These three test items (5-7) gave students greater freedom of expression and creativity in their responses than items one to four; the language produced was analysed qualitatively. Analysis revealed that, though both groups had encountered the same vocabulary, the intervention group presented more advanced oral communicative skills concerning lexis, syntax and creativity e.g. comparing groups (1) and (2) Table 8.5, and section 8.3.7 extracts 1-4.

Table 8.5 presents all the language students in the intervention (1) and control (2) groups produced using a verb. The following extracts present those students who produced the most language in each group. Student TE (1) demonstrates more advanced skills employing, cardinal numbers, adjectives, nouns, article "a", verbs and auto-correction within description/story-telling:

student TE (1): "this is Stella; she has… table… a table; she has… shoes… two blue shoes… and ehm… one little tree… and five eh… fish; she has ehm… a chair… and a… little red house".

Student MB (2): "My name is M---; stand-up; sit-down; what's your name?"

Section 8.3.7 extracts 1-4 seem to confirm the more advanced oral skills of the intervention group, and particularly the CSG, compared to the control group. Each of the four CSG students are able to hold a conversation with the examiner; extracts one and two present descriptive communicative skills, whereby the student's responses gave opening to continue the communicative exchange. In extract three, student TE is sufficiently competent to ask the examiner questions; in extract four, student BT replies the examiner's questions, despite needing extra thinking time between lines 10 and 13.

Certain questions from test item one solicited a one word answer, e.g. "what is your name?", "What do you have in your pencil case?" (e.g. response: Jim; pen); whereas other questions rather required a phrase: "what do you do in the morning?" The control group students appeared less able to perform on this task than the intervention group (Table 8.5) as the majority of their responses were one word answers. Indeed, learning sufficient syntax is an issue in limited EFL instruction and target language contact contexts, and appears to imply that students require very fine tuned input to develop oral communicative skills. In contrast to the control class general approach, the intervention class 'story approach' teaching strategies and materials included learning formulaic speech, as a means to developing creative language (Gee, 1994) spontaneously, through focus on meaning and providing language development space e.g. students transformed a story formulaic phrase "I like my teacher"; this also became a trampoline to learning the negative form (Table 8.5), e.g.:

Intervention student HC: "I like… I like eh… vegetables… and… and eh juice; I like, I like burger… and … and pasta; I don't like milk and… and eh and ehm… and orange; I don't like… I don't like ehm… banana and apple; I like teacher…"

Intervention group student KN, creatively transformed "I like my teacher" into: "I like to eat", and "I eat lunchtime".

Creativity equally took place through students learning formulaic phrases through story and, through having integrated meaning (Ellis, 2005, principle 2), transferring them textually to other contexts e.g. student TE (Table 8.5) employs this strategy in replying to questions:

EFL-T: "What do you do in the morning/afternoon/evening/ and at the weekend?"

TE reply: "I brush my hair; I make some cakes; I'm home again; I play with my friends"

In test item 3 (appendix 11), where students are asked to give the teacher actions to perform, intervention student BT transforms this story language into the imperative (Table 8.5): "Brush your hair!"; "Make some cakes!".

Recall involves attaching language to meaning (Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Mackey and Silver, 2005) and the examples of the general approach students' speaking skills, appear to confirm that repetition alone is inefficient (Ausubel, 1960; Ausubel, 1980); for EFL learning, language requires being imbedded in real life experiences (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Mackey, 1999) for meaning to become personalised and learners to take "ownership" and make that language theirs. In first language acquisition, infants communicate through single words (Steinberg and Sciarini, 2006), but these words carry meaning by being attached to the child's environment. The control group appear to have learned language in a vacuum where words remain labels for items, rather than a means of creative oral expression (Ellis, 2005, principle 2). This is demonstrated in the following two examples:

Section 8.3.5 extract 10: student HD enumerates the words he knows in English with their translation:

8- Student HD: Les cheveux c'est air (hair)… (cheveux means hair…)

9- EFL-T : Ok.

10- Student HD: les yeux c'est eye ; le nez c'est nose… (les yeux means eyes ; le nez is nose…)

11- EFL-T: Hem…

12- Student HD: Ehm… et… /// je crois… ah, non ///

13- EFL-T: Hem?

14- Student HD: Trouser et /// (shoes).

Another example is control student BS, who is able to understand question 7 (test item 1: appendix 11), "How are you today?" but lacks sufficient EFL skills to reply:

'Ah je sais plus la réponse… Je sais c'est comment vas-tu ? --- Je ne me souviens plus' (Ah I know the reply… I know it's how are you- ? --- I can 't remember).

The following is an example of skills transfer in EFL learning: in lesson-time, all the students (control and intervention group) coloured the monster picture (appendix 12: Frino, et al. 2014a), and named it, in preparation for the test. However, in the storytelling test activity, item 7, only the intervention group students transferred this 'storytelling' strategy by spontaneously naming the character in their magnetic picture story. The intervention class teaching strategies encouraged student's language creativity, through enabling them to take "ownership" of their oral communicative skills (chapter three: 'story approach' ELLP), whereas for the general approach control class this language remained locked in the monster picture task.

8.4.3. Building Metacognitive-Metalinguistic Competence for Speaking Skills Development

A number of students in the intervention group demonstrated metacognitive skills through auto-correction (Mitchell, 2009). For example:

Student BEC: You speak English? Do you speak English?

However, auto-correction was not systematic; students were still building skills. In the following extract, intervention group student BEC describes the pencil case contents in answer to item 1, question 17, omitting the plural ending "s" in line 1, but remembers in lines 2, 3, and 5. Students employ a variety of strategies (Graham and Macaro, 2008) to maintain the conversational flow. In line 4, BEC suddenly remembering, interjects an answer to item 1 question 16 ("what do you do at the weekend?"); in lines five and six, BEC code-switches, using this technique to communicate and maintain the conversation:

1: --- Pen. --- Three pen.

2: One glue.

3: One… eh, three erasers.

4: I like television.

5: Il y a une autre… ça fait five /// pencils. (There's one more… that makes five pencils)

6: Pencil… et ça c'est… moi j'ai pas de pencil sharpener. (Pencil… and this is… I don't have a pencil sharpener).

7: Finished.

In year three primary intervention class, a number of students used code-switching/interlanguage strategies to maintain conversation and as a means of bridging the gap in communication when the target language word was not known, not recalled, or syntax was not mastered (interlanguage skills: Selinker and Naiditch, 2017). The outcome assessment test demonstrates 56 code-switching incidents for the intervention class and 18 for the control class. This is a major increase compared to first and second year, where there are practically no incidents of code switching. This could be explained by an increase in EFL metacognitive and metalinguistic skills, but also by extended cognitive development (Fisher, 1990; Lightbown and Spada, 2006) and more

proficient mother tongue skills (Mitchell, 2009) which students are transferring to EFL learning.

Several intervention class students presented examples of delayed recall (e.g. above: student BEC line 4). This may reflect a need for increased thinking time, resulting from development in cognitive and EFL skills, as the student's mind continues searching for the correct word/words while focusing on additional language in an on-going conversation (students noticing the gap between the target language and their own production: Mackey, 1999). For example, in test item one, question eight, "What do you like to eat?" student BO repeats the question aloud, and appears to be thinking about the meaning. As no response comes, the examiner moves on to question nine, "What do you like to drink?" Student BO indicates having now understood question eight, which the examiner repeats, and student BO replies confidently and correctly to the questions:

1-EFL-T: "What do you like to eat?"

2-Student BO: …

3-EFL-T: "What do you like to drink?"

4-Student BO: … Aah… (BO indicates remembering what "eat" means)

5-EFL-T: "What do you like to eat?"

6-Student BO: I like… I like a burger… and pasta.

8-EFL-T: "What do you like to drink?"

9-Student BO: I like water… and jwice (juice).

10-EFL-T: "What don't you like to eat?"

11-Student BO: I don't like… gingerbread and… cake.

12-EFL: "What don't you like to drink?"

13-Student BO: I don't like… water.

Student BO appears to be using the formulaic phrases "I like/I don't like as a base for constructing phrases which she personalises and completes with the names of the food and drink. It also seems that when BO heard the word "drink", she recalled the meaning of "eat". Similarly, Student KN recalls the meaning of "eat" when he hears the word drink (line 4), but again confuses the meaning (lines 5-6):

1-EFL-T: What do you like to eat?

2-Student KN: …

3-EFL-T: What do you like to drink?"

4-Student KN: Ah… drink! Je confound avec eat (I'm confusing with eat). Ehm… Pasta… and eh… chocolate. Water… and eh… milk.

5-EFL-T: What don't you like to eat?

6-Student KN: Eh… jwice (juice) and … milk.

This seems to underline the importance of associated language and quality above quantity; one word can open up the meaning and recall of many others, i.e. useful words for communicative purpose. Course books seem to categorise vocabulary, and teach formulaic speech, but the teaching strategies, activities and materials appear not to cater for creativity and efficient recall given the results of the control group. For example, both groups learned actions yet only one of the control group students was able to say "sit-down", "stand-up", the most common of classroom actions, despite having heard these action-words over three years of primary. The above example demonstrates that intervention class student BO was able to maintain and extend the communicative exchange, after only one year of the 'story approach' instruction.

The following example demonstrates metalinguistic skills and highlights the importance of meaning (Ellis, 2005; Selinker and Naiditch, 2017): intervention student TE maintains communication by compensating lack of recall for the word "coat" with the related word, "jacket", permitting

comprehension and continuing the description: "She has… ehm… jacket… ? Student TE names her character and auto-corrects, by adding the article "a" in the following example: "this is Stella; she has… table… a table".

Some students overused the grammatical form, similarly to first language learning. For example, in the extract below, student KD correctly uses and overuses the article "a" (line 10), mis-uses the pronoun "her" (line 12), tries to search for the correct place of the adjectives (lines 16-20). However, despite this interlanguage (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000), student KD demonstrates communicative skills and can extend the conversation.

1- EFL-T: Well done! Bravo!

2- Student KD: A dog.

3- EFL-T: Ehm.

4- Student KD: Her shirt… non.

5- EFL-T: Ehm.

6- Student KD: Eh… oui… her shirt.

7- EFL-T: Her shirt… and…

8- Student KD: --- and mouse.

9- EFL-T: Ehm.

10- Student KD: A sunny.

11- EFL-T: …

12- Student KD: Ehm…her happy.

13- EFL-T: Well done!

14- Student KD: Ehm…her cat.

15- EFL-T: Ok.

16- Student KD: Her sock… eh… two socks white… eh… white two socks.

17- EFL-T: Ehm.

18- Student KD: Socks. --- Her two socks… and blue and orange.

19- EFL-T: …

20- Student KD: And blue and orange two socks.

Similarly, metalinguistic skills were demonstrated through student's conscious effort in correct pronunciation, their acknowledgement of their own pronunciation errors and overuse of particular pronunciation rules, as in first language acquisition (Delahaie, 2009). During the year, students had extensively practiced the initial "h" sound through class activities like book distribution: question: "Where are you?" Students' reply: "Here I am".

The two following are examples of overuse of the initial "h" sound by intervention group student BO:

Test item one: question 7

1-EFL-T: "How are you today?"

2-Student BO: Haime (I am) happy.

Test item five: monster picture description:

1-Student BO: --- Yellow sunny.

2-Student BO: Heys (eyes)… heys (eyes) blue.

3-Student BO: Flawes (flowers) blue… eh no… Blue and pink flawes (flowers).

In line 3 above, student BO extends the response to add colour adjectives and auto-corrects the grammar mistake. It seems that once EFL learners have integrated basic rules of language, they can use these tools to build language creatively by themselves (Ellis, 1999a ; Ellis, 2005, principle 7).

Several students in the intervention class appear to have memorised vocabulary in themes; they confuse the meaning of words within these themes, yet do master syntax. For example, student HC confused the meaning of eat and drink in test item one questions eight-eleven, but was able to reply using the correct syntax:

1-EFL-T: What do you like to eat?

2-Student HC: --- I like… I like eh… vegetables… and … and… eh juice.

3-EFL-T: What do you like to drink?

4-Student HC: --- I like… I like burger… and… and pasta.

5-EFL-T: What don't you like to eat?

6-Student HC: I don't like milk and… and eh… and… ehm… and orange.

7-EFL-T: What don't you like to drink?

8-Student HC: I don't like… I don't like ehm… bananas and apple.

This demonstrates the student's capacity to continue a conversation despite vocabulary errors. The dialogue is comprehensible, and in a real life situation, would be easily adjustable through scaffolding (Maybin, Mercer, and Stierer, 1992) and ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), allowing the student to move to the next stage of development (Long, 2009). The extract demonstrates understanding of the topic and recall of sufficient related vocabulary to maintain the conversational flow; the interjections (eh… and ehm…) seem to indicate the thinking time required for recall, which is sufficiently short to permit maintaining the flow in the conversation.

8.4.4. Triangulation on the 'story approach' through the Class Teacher's (CT) Notes and Parent Post-Intervention Questionnaires

The CT observation notes, reflected information in the journal notes, field notes and lesson plans, and included the following observations: keen participation from the students; the pace needed to be fast to keep student's

attention; when activities permitted, music assisted in keeping students focused; concrete items like magnetic pictures and realia, were fun and creative, while responding to their developmental needs; interspersing action games with individual oral testing to maintain focus was effective in that the student's progressed; structured learning (Ellis, 2005, principle 3) permitted developing oral communicative skills. Writing words and phrases on the whiteboard enabled harnessing students' developing native language (Mitchell, 2009) literacy skills for EFL learning (e.g. students could visualise the number of words in a phrase; the letters/sounds in a word). Consequently, students appeared to simultaneously develop oral and literacy skills in English through these activities, though the development of oral skills was the principle aim.

Elements making concentration difficult included: the noise level in the playground outside the classroom; certain oral activities were lengthy, particularly when students practiced individually in front of the class, some students lost interest; discipline issues were a further cause of disturbance, causing students to lose focus.

Noise and discipline underline the importance of the environment for EFL learning. The lesson (teaching) plans were adjusted accordingly, e.g. oral activities planned outside noisy-recreation time. However, as most activities involved oral participation from the students and recreation continued over half the lesson time, adjusting proved difficult; consequently, some students lost focus. The CT was lax on discipline during class-time, tolerating student's chatting; this affected EFL lessons. Listening skills (Graham, 2007; Graham and Macaro, 2008) during EFL instruction seem necessary for the development of executive functions, learning to learn, and thinking about responses, planning, learning vocabulary, and revising grammar rules. However, despite this, the CT positive comments on the student's progress with constructing phrases, storytelling and asking questions were reflected in the quantitative and qualitative results.

Parent's questionnaire comments generally reflected the progress made and student's appreciation of the lessons, which was confirmed by the CT notes.

However, certain comments were contradictory to results, e.g. concerning student BEC who performed well on the outcome assessment, with fourteen points out of twenty-one on test items one to four, scoring better than student BM (twelve points), and student NE (five points). Whereas student BM's parents were thrilled commenting that BM had enjoyed English extensively, that they would like extra homework and more vocabulary teaching, student BEC and NE's parents were less pleased. Student NE's parents felt their child had struggled with English all year; rather than teach verbs and phrases, it would be better to focus on vocabulary, and include materials better adapted to developmental needs. However, according to the CT, student NE needed attention generally, beyond EFL instruction. BEC's parents seemed unaware of the EFL progress made; they commented that BEC expressed enjoyment of EFL class when questioned, but generally spoke little about school; they felt more homework would allow them to observe better. Surprisingly though, for the question does your child say English phrases at home, BEC's parents circled "often".

8.5. CASE STUDY GROUP

This section traces the journey of the CSG over the three years since the start of first year primary (Cohen et al. 2011).

In year one study, the CSG was composed of seven students (chapter four: section 4.2.1), and remained together for two years. At the end of second year primary, the CSG reduced to four students, due to changes of residence. These four students KD, TE, PH and BT (equal gender) remained until the end of third year primary. Over first and second year primary, it became apparent that two of these four had learning difficulties (Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2002, advocates the importance of longitudinal studies with YL mixed ability groups); one was affected by an unstable home life and eyesight issues; the other had established health issues leading in year three to reduced performance generally in class, possibly due to medication. Both considerably lacked self-confidence, and were rated poor learners by their

class teachers. The other two students came from stable backgrounds; the parents took regular interest in schoolwork. One was the youngest child out of three, and the other, the middle child out of five siblings; neither had difficulty with general schoolwork over the three year study.

8.5.1. Progress in EFL Learning over the Three Years

All four students progressed in EFL oral communicative skills over the three years.

8.5.1.1. Year One

By the end of year one, all four students were replying to questions (Mackey and Philp, 1998; Boyd and Markarian, 2011; Boyd and Rubin, 2006) and expressing themselves, directly in response to class activities, and also spontaneously. This language was mostly single words, formulaic speech (Myles, et al. 1999), or phrases composed of colour adjectives and cardinal numbers combined with nouns. The CSG students manipulated language appropriately through understanding meaning (Selinker and Naiditch, 2017), which enabled creativity. Their language skills developed considerable over the year, particularly in comprehension (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Long, 1996; Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000); they were now very familiar with question-answer sequences. At the end of the academic year, BT had sufficient skills to spontaneously use the question form (extract 6). In extract one, student PH is able to name items on a picture; in extract two, replies a question; in extract three, student BT combines colour noun and adjective to form a phrase; in extract four, student KD spontaneously uses a formulaic phrase in response to the realia the teacher is holding; In extract five, student TE replies the question; In extract six, student BT demonstrates the capacity to reply to a question and ask a question, and correctly pronounces the "h" sound in "here", though mispronounces "and".

Examples from chapter six year one study:

EXTRACT (1) Student PH

EFL-T: Alright. Who else would like to come…Come P--- (PH)? --- P--- (PH)… Come and show us. --- What have you got here?

CALM

EFL-T: Ok. What's P--- (PH) got here?

Student PH: Cake… Presents…

EXTRACT (2) student PH

EFL-T: Sweets… How many?

CALM

Student PH: … Four…

EXTRACT (3) student BT

EFL-T: Chick. Ok. Eh… N--- (NC)… What's this?

Student NC: …

EFL-T: Can't remember? Ok. Ce n'est pas grave (Ok. It doesn't matter)… Eh… B--- (BT)? (EFL-T passes the question to BT)… Eh… B---? (BT)

Student BT: White chick.

EXTRACT (4) student KD

EFL-T: Ok. Let's clap!

Clapping.

EFL-T: Ok. I've got something for you here. (EFL-T shows realia).

+Student KD: Happy birthday to you… (speaks at the same time as the EFL-T).

EXTRACT (5) student TE

EFL-T: Nobody's tired. Good! And you T--- (TE)?

Student TE: Tired.

EXTRACT (6) student BT

Context: at the start of the weekly lesson, directly after greeting students:

EFL-T: Ok. Ehm… Where's B--- (BT)? B--- (BT)… Where are you?

Student BT: Here-I-am (BT)

EFL-T: You asked me a question. Tu m'as posé une question ce matin. Tu peux me le redire? (You asked me a question this morning. Can you say it again?).

Student BT: Ayne (and) did you sleep well? (BT).

EFL-T: Tu recommence. (Say it again).

Student BT: Ayne (and) did you sleep well? (BT).

8.5.1.2. Year Two

By the end of year two, the CSG were manifesting additional progress in EFL skills. Comprehension skills had been reinforced and students had benefited from ample practice with question-answer sequences and picture description. At the end of the academic year each student was tested (Bygate, 2009: underlines the fundamental relationship and inter-connectedness of

pedagogy, curriculum, and testing for the development and assessment of speaking skills), informally on picture description, using the verb "to have" in the third person singular with the pronoun "she", in front of the class, and produced the following language:

Student TE Lesson 31: Tuesday 9th June 2015:

She has   2 butterflies. / She has   a black cat. / She has   3 birds. / She has donkey and cat and 2 ducks. / She has   little red house. / She has   blue shirt. / She has   white mouse. / She has   3 birds. / She has   3 sheep. / She has   2 horse.

Student KD: Lesson 33: Thursday 18th June 2015:

She has   a camel. / She has   a cow. / She has a 2 horse. / She has a sheep. /

She has   a donkey. / She has   a duck. / She has   a mouse. / She has   a 2 shoes. / She has   a cat. /

Student BT Lesson 33: Thursday 18th June 2015:

She has   a 2 big shoes blue. / She has   a big black happy cat. / She has a 3 sheep. /

She has a cow. / She has   a house. / She has   a glasses. / She has a dog. /

She has   a camel. / She has   a 2 birds. / She has a 2 duck.

Student PH Lesson 34: Tuesday 23rd June 2015:

She has   a dog. / She has   horse. / She has   a shoes. / She has   a horse. /

She has   a shee (pronunciation problem - sheep). / She has   a shee. / She has a shee. /

She has   a mouse. / She has   a cat. / She has   a camel. / She has   a donkey. / She has   a 2 horse.

The extracts demonstrate developing interlanguage (Selinker and Naiditch, 2017) and structure and overuse or omission of certain grammar rules such as article "a" (e.g. student PH: "she has a shoes"; student TE: "she has blue shirt"). Students TE and BT produce increasingly complex phrases (e.g. student BT: "she has a big, black, happy, cat"). Certain rules were practically systematically employed by TE and BT such as the final "s" ending for the plural e.g. Student TE: "she has two butterflies"; "she has 3 birds"; even for irregular cases e.g. student TE: "she has 3 sheep"; student BT: "she has glasses".

Students now had more ease in placing the adjective correctly in the phrase. The extracts, however, demonstrate that students TE and BT had more advanced skills than KD and PH, who produce fewer complex phrases and had greater difficulty with pronunciation (e.g. Student PH: "Shee", instead of sheep), yet all have benefitted from the 'story approach' for the same amount of time. Students KD and BT were tested in the same lesson, yet produced different language, BT demonstrating greater skills than KD. This possibly demonstrates that monitoring student oral competence in front of the class, can provide a reliable account of progress to be used in EFL instruction.

8.5.1.3. Year Three

In year three, as in the two previous years, the CSG students continued progressing in EFL skills, as reported in this chapter (quantitative and qualitative results and discussion sections: 2-4; Table 8.5) . Over the three years the CSG students were embedded in a class of students never having had the 'story approach' intervention:

Disadvantages: at the end of year two study, two of the CSG students indicated feeling bored due to repetition of language items; however, this was necessary for the new intervention class students to get to a similar level as the CSG.

Advantages: the CSG had additional time to integrate language skills in the form of revision (Ellis, 2005) while the other students were in a learning

process, particularly in term one of each year. This was especially beneficial for the two CSG students who had learning difficulties. The CSG were able to focus on syntax and pronunciation and consequently in terms two and three demonstrated substantially more advanced skills than the other students. The rest of the class benefited from the CSG students input; they had a more advanced EFL level and frequently modelled language and provided correct responses (peer support: Oliver, 1998).

8.5.1.4. Reliability and Validity

The uniqueness of case study research entails difficulty in assuring validity (Coolican, 2014). CT observation notes together with the post-intervention parent questionnaires provided a degree of reliability. This could have been supplemented by verbal protocols, "the recorded product of asking participants to talk or think aloud during and activity" (Coolican, 2014 p.164). However, this proved difficult due to limited instruction time, and restricted access to the CSG outside lessons.

CT notes concerning the four remaining CSG students included the following:

 In year one KD and PH needed fingers for counting in English (still developing abstract thinking); PH regularly lost focus. Both tended to look to peers for support in activities/games. In a mid-year report, the CT identified them as having weak comprehension skills; PH due to lack of confidence. However, despite difficulty with general schoolwork, KD participated surprisingly well in EFL class. The CT indicated that BT and TE possessed better comprehension skills and a richer, more creative vocabulary compared to the general class (e.g. TE: "hen", "tie", "happy teacher"; BT: "glasses", "shoes", "butterfly" "Christmas dad" instead of "Father Christmas"). Both regularly participated well, however, TE was particularly focused. In term two, despite not mastering structure, BT was able to ask the question "please I can distribute?" using intonation. Examples of code-switching (e.g. KD: "Je n'ai pas de yellow"; I don't have yellow) were identified. In term three, KD was able to notice mistakes, though not auto-correct, and interpret story images in English e.g. "sad" referring to a character. Term three notes

highlight the link between pronunciation and listening skills e.g. KD confuses goat/boat, wolf becomes boof. KD's concentration had increased unlike PH. The CT remarked that all the CSG had progressed in vocabulary, and some in phrase construction; all enjoyed EFL class.

Year two, term one, the CT remarked that KD still required looking at peers in activities/games for confirmation, was keenly following, but with difficulty. Despite this KD made progress, and like BT, TE and PH had competence to ask and reply questions e.g. KD: "Did you sleep well?"; replies from CSG students: BT: "Got a cold"; TE: "ready for work"; PH "very well". PH's confidence boosted due to regularly engaging in participation, and produced phrases like "I see a green mouse". Towards Christmas, BT and KD used their skills to calm the class with "Be quiet" (EFL language in situational use). Term two CT notes confirmed the CSG were building descriptive skills using magnetic pictures and words; KD made particular efforts for pronunciation and progressing in EFL, taking pride in this; BT has difficulty pronouncing certain words (e.g. "write"). Notes indicate that TE, BT and KD were particularly attentive at story-time (EFL-T reading). In term three the CT indicated the CSG's keen participation in the phrase miming activities used for homework, and the question-answer games.

Year three CT notes, confirmed the CSG progress through participation and the number of correct responses, often placing TE and BT ahead of KD and PH. CT comments on TE, BT and KD, in a conversation/dialogue activity, indicated that they demonstrated real progress in communicating in sentences.

Year two post-intervention questionnaires indicated: KD would appreciate more EFL instruction hours; BT enjoyed EFL, but sometimes got bored (possibly due to repetition of language items, as the intervention group had less skills than the CSG); however, BT's questionnaire also indicated appreciation of the 'story approach' intervention, while reiterating a general lack of suitable EFL instruction for French native speakers; questionnaire responses indicated that TE spoke English spontaneously, after each lesson, at home, that PH liked EFL class, and that the CSG appreciated the 'story approach' instruction.

Year three post-intervention parent questionnaires indicated: KD enjoyed the intervention classes and demonstrated progress; TE appreciated the classes and taught communicative skills to siblings; BT enjoyed lessons and spoke spontaneously in English; PH was pleased to have attended the intervention classes.

8.5.2. Level of Competence in Speaking Skills Compared to the CEFR A1 level and French Ministry of Education Requirements

Analysis of the end of year three outcome assessment transcripts demonstrate that the four CSG students attained the results reported in Table 8.6. The points attained for test items one to four concern points attributed for correct answers on a total of 21 points. The words, phrases and questions produced, concern the entire test, items one to seven, and were counted separately (i.e. individual words, individual phrases and individual questions produced).

Table 8.6
Results of outcome assessment for test items one to four, and the number of single words, phrases, questions produced in the entire test, for the four CSG students.

Four CSG Students	Number of Points for Test Items 1-4 out of 21 points	Number of Words	Number of Phrases	Number of Questions
TE	21	43	58	9
BT	20	67	76	0
KD	11	51	51	2
PH	13	70	57	12

These quantitative results, however, require further analysis. TE produced the highest test score on items 1 to 4 (points 21/21) despite producing less words than the other three students. Her phrases score was well below BT and practically on a par with KD and PH. Despite the small number of words and

phrases compared to the other three CSG students, TE produced the greatest number of phrases using a verb; Table 8.5 indicates that TE produced 29 phrases using a verb compared to BT who produced 10, KD who produced 9 and PH who produced 12. This seems to indicate that quantity is not quality; student TE scored highest on the test and on the qualitative analysis of more complex language containing a verb. Though PH produced the most questions (12), they were all the same question, compared to TE who asked eight different questions out of the nine she produced; KD asked two different ones and BT produced none. This was surprising of BT who, since the end of first year primary, regularly asked questions in class; this could be due to affective factors e.g. anxiety of wanting to perform well.

Students KD and PH also performed well on the test compared to the rest of the class particularly considering both had learning difficulties; their test results put them on a par with the other intervention group students, except for student NE (5/21) whose score fell far below the others. According to the class teacher, NE had difficulty with school subjects generally and from this perspective was in the same learning difficulty situation as KD and PH. However, NE had only benefited from the 'story approach' for one academic year compared to KD and PH, who had followed it for three years (four including the pilot study). This seems to indicate the efficiency of the 'story approach' for EFL learning for YL students in difficulty. Indeed, the long term effects (Ellis, 2005; Long, 2009) of oral language interventions involving vocabulary, structure, and narrative in FLA, for early YLs with language difficulties, have been demonstrated (Bowyer-Crane et al. 2008). Early vocabulary and structural instruction in FLA for school age YLs experiencing language skills issues, is "potentially of great educational importance" (Fricke et al. 2017, p.1141) and could equally apply to EFL.

When comparing the intervention class outcome assessment results to the CEFR A1 level and the FME requirements, it appears, according to Tables 8.1 and 8.5 and the quantitative and qualitative results, that eight students out of eleven (except BT, HC, NE) have met both. Student NE had difficulty replying, formulated no questions, and fell below the required 11/20 for points on the test (5/21). Though students BT and HC performed well overall

(20/21 and 16/21 respectively), neither were able to ask questions in the outcome assessment, though had asked questions during the year, (evidenced through the transcripts), and there are ample examples of BT (CSG) asking questions in previous years.

Points attained on the outcome assessment for the ten intervention students (excluding student NE) situated between 11/21 and 21/21. Concerning the CEFR A1 level, CSG student TE (21/21) appears to have surpassed both the CEFR A1 level and the FME requirements, through the richness of language skills, mastery of syntax and range of vocabulary. TE demonstrated substantially more advanced skills compared to the other intervention group students.

Table 8.5 reports phrases constructed using a verb (qualitative analysis). However, students also produced phrases without a verb (e.g. student KD: "her two white sheep") and these were all considered in the quantitative analysis (number of phrases produced for the intervention and control groups). These results demonstrate statistical significance for the number of phrases produced by the intervention group compared to the control group.

In order for a student to be considered as achieving the CEFR A1 qualitative aspects of spoken skills level (Council of Europe, 2019), and the FME requirements for third year primary students, a minimum of 11/21 points need to be achieved (appendix 11A) on the question-comprehension sections of the outcome assessment (test items one-four). However, despite this benchmark, three students failed to ask questions (BT, HC, and NE), which is part of the CEFR and FME requirements (Table 8.7). Nonetheless, HC and BT both demonstrated this skill during the intervention year, and could be considered as having achieved the required level. This emphasises the need for on-going class assessment (Bygate, 2009) to truly understand levels of achievement, and that in the outcome assessment, students would have to obtain points (validate) in each category for items one-four. Table 8.7 reports Achievement of the A1 qualitative aspects of spoken language level and FME requirements (Service publique.fr. 2019) in relation to the outcome assessment. Achievement was attained by ten of the eleven intervention group students,

of which four CSG students. Two CSG achieved the highest results overall (TE, 21/21; BT, 20/21); the other two performed well given their learning difficulties (KD, 11/21; PH, 13/21). None of the control group students achieved the required level, the highest result being student BS with 6/21 (the others achieved 4/21 or less). The outcome assessment test items five-seven, were analysed qualitatively; results in Table 8.5 (phrases produced using a verb) particularly endorse the quantitative results (section 8.2). Qualitative validation of the required CEFR and FME competence, reported in Table 8.7 e.g. repair (auto-correction) and linking words (and; then) is evidenced through the transcripts.

Table 8.7
Results of final year three outcome assessment

CEFR A1 level Qualitative aspects of spoken language	French Ministry of Education EFL requirements for end of 3rd year primary students	CEFR A1 level and FME 3rd year end of primary level achieved through test items 1-7 of 'story approach'
Achieved through: 'Story approach' test items: 1– 7	Achieved through: 'Story approach' test items: 1– 7	Final Outcome Assessment
RANGE Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations. ACCURACY Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire. FLUENCY Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances,	SPOKEN AND READING COMPREHENSION SKILLS -Understand common words expressions, and simple phrases concerning the immediate surroundings in relation to oneself, the family, the environment. -Understand short simple instructions. -Understand a short simple story. (reading comprehension skills informally tested qualitatively in class, as the principle aim was oral skills) SPOKEN AND	1) eighteen questions requiring an oral response, therefore testing the student's ability to comprehend and respond using a word or a phrase; 2) seven instructions requiring an action to be performed, therefore testing comprehension skills only; 3) an oral invitation to the student to ask the test examiner to perform actions, therefore testing the student's capacity to use the imperative (give instructions); 4) an oral invitation to

363

with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.

INTERACTION

Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.

COHERENCE

Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".

PRODUCTION SKILLS

- use simple phrases and expressions in familiar situations (continuous speech);
- ask simple questions.
- reply to simple questions on familiar subjects;
-engage in simple conversation on familiar subjects.

ASSESSMENT COMPREHENSION AND SPOKEN PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

Should be linked to the usual environment or familiar situations e.g. class routine, instructions linked to games /activities, introducing oneself, inquiring about others, expressing needs or preferences, describing/talking about the surroundings.

ASSESSMENT MATERIALS

Illustrated text, pictures, images, posters.

ACHIEVED through:
'Story approach'
 test item (1) Q: 3,4,17 (realia),
 test items Q: 18 (identify written number);
 test items (5) (6) (7) (pictures; images)

the student to ask the test examiner questions, therefore testing the student's capacity to formulate questions;

 5) a picture description test using a monster picture (Kid's Box Teacher's book 1:Frino, et al. 2014a: appendix 12) which all the students had coloured in class themselves prior to the test, therefore testing the capacity to formulate words/phrases in relation to the vocabulary in the pictures;

6) a picture description test involving two magnetic boards displaying pictures of items the students had studied in class over the year, therefore testing their capacity to formulate words/phrases in relation to the vocabulary in the pictures;

7) a 'story-time' activity where students could pick out magnetic pictures of their choice, displayed on a large whiteboard to relate a 'story' of their own invention, enabling greater freedom of expression and creativity than 5) and 6), through a large variety of pictures relating to vocabulary the students had studied over the year.

Conclusion

The test transcripts appear to demonstrate multiple examples of metacognitive and metalinguistic skills development (research questions one and two). Students were code-switching substantially more than in previous years. A number of students were able to formulate grammatically correct phrases, and others manifested metacognitive skills through auto-correction, and overuse of certain grammatical forms. Students manifested greater awareness of pronunciation (MLS). Emerging skills within the 'story approach', involved oral skills being transferred to EFL literacy (Enever, 2011). Some students were writing phonetically within activities of creative learning where the child is at the centre; each child chose and cut out the pictures they wanted to write about. This would require further research, being beyond the scope of the present study.

These results seem to demonstrate creative language, conversational skills, and the capacity to describe and 'story' tell, and ask and answer questions. Within the objective of fulfilling the CEFR A1 level and the FME requirements, the intervention class students were able to achieve oral communicative competence (research question four). This was facilitated through the 'story approach', teaching strategies, activities, and materials, guided by the theoretical framework. The two CSG students who presented learning difficulties were also able to achieve this standard, due to extensive instruction through the 'story approach'. CSG student TE appears to have surpassed the A1 level and FME requirements in EFL speaking skills.

9. Conclusions

This study's aim was to investigate optimising EFL instruction for French primary school students, in limited target language contact, and restricted classroom instruction, contexts (approximately an hour/week). Hence, the design of a 'story approach' for EFL instruction, based upon a theoretical framework, provided the basis for this intervention.

This study built upon previous research in the field by investigating the efficiency in developing EFL oral communicative skills in these YL through the careful application of theories relating to YLs' developmental processes and learning needs, FLA theories, and theories of EFL/ESL pedagogy research. It added to previous research in three principle ways: first, through the unusual research design of a three year longitudinal study simultaneously involving a two year cross-sectional study and a case study project carried over the three years; secondly, the study culminated in a comparison of the intervention and CSG achievement levels, in oral communicative skills development through a 'story approach', with that of a parallel control group instructed through a general approach to EFL learning involving current commercial programmes; thirdly, the study involved development of a theoretical framework for the design and development of an EFL 'story approach' instructional programme (ELLP), with integrated materials and assessment instruments for use in real teaching contexts. Indeed, Ellis underlines the lack of task-based longitudinal studies (Ellis, 1999); Oliver stresses the paucity and importance of YL studies within negotiated interaction (Oliver, 2002), and preferably longitudinal, involving pre-tests and post-tests, with different YL age groups (Oliver, 1998), in mixed-proficiency groups (Oliver, 2002). According to Butler and Le, (2018), Butler, Sayer and Huang, (2018), Cabrera and Martinez, (2001), and Murphy, (2018) there is need for research in YL, EFL instruction, and particularly in view of English as a lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2005).

This chapter comprises four sections involving, a review of this study's 1) research aims, methods, and results, in relation to the research questions and aims; 2) limitations; 3) implications for real-classroom context teaching; 4) further research.

9.1. Review of Research Aims, Methods and Results

Within YL EFL instruction, research has demonstrated the appropriateness of implicit and explicit teaching of lexis and structure (Ellis, 2005; Long, 2009) (including questions: Mackey and Silver, 2005; Boyd and Markarian, 2011) and the influence of native language on FL learning (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Mitchell, 2009); the significance and accessibility of 'story' and 'narrative' for YLs and the implications of quality versus quantity of language (Paradis and Kirova, 2014); the implications in providing real-life objects for the development of creative language (Enever, 2011;Tomasello and Olguin, 1993); and the influence of length of exposure, language aptitude, and the YL stage of cognitive development (Ellis, 1999; Paradis, 2011) on EFL learning.

These elements led to the development of this study's research aims, involving:

- the qualitative validation of the theoretical framework, and trialling of the 'story approach' English Language Learning Programme (ELLP) together with instruments for on-going progress and assessment for French primary school children;

- to quantitatively and qualitatively assess the impact of the 'story approach' ELLP in developing oral communicative skills in these YLs;

- comparison of results from an intervention and CSG, EFL oral communicative skills development using the 'story approach' instruction, with results from the general approach to EFL instruction

employed in primary school within the context of this three year project.

This mixed methods cross-sectional and longitudinal research involved a CSG of initially seven students which reduced to four students at the start of year three. The year one cross-sectional sample involved twenty-one students, and year two, twenty-three students for qualitative and fourteen for quantitative, all including the CSG. For year three, the eleven students forming the intervention group sample were drawn from the intervention class and included the four CSG students, and the eleven control group students were drawn from two parallel third year primary classes. All samples were selected according to specific (purposive sampling) criteria. For each of the three years, the whole class received the 'story approach' intervention; however, for analysis, only data from the samples was considered. The year three control group received a general approach instruction (commercial course book programme), and thus provided a basis for comparison with the intervention group ('story approach') through end of year testing.

The pilot study permitted the trialling of data collection instruments, including pre-intervention oral skills assessment, conducted at the start of each year. Throughout the study, data was gathered through video recordings and coded transcripts (quantitative and qualitative data) of the intervention classes. The researcher conducted the intervention in the presence of the class teachers (CT). This contributed to triangulation of data collection and the validity and reliability of the theoretical framework and 'story approach' through CT observation notes (qualitative data) concerning the 'story approach' intervention teaching strategies and materials, and student's engagement and progress. Guided by the theoretical framework, on-going assessment, field, and journal notes informed the 'story approach' lesson (teaching) plans and materials design and provided for triangulation of data collection. In year two, parent reports concerning oral communicative skills production in the home environment (out of classroom context) provided an objective view on student progress (qualitative data). The end of year three specifically designed out-come assessment enabled assessing student oral

communicative skills development in the control and intervention groups (quantitative and qualitative data).

Each year, a pre-intervention parent questionnaire enabled determining the student's language background for composing the sample groups. These also provided for data triangulation through parent's opinion on the general EFL teaching in the school, and together with the post-intervention questionnaires, parents' opinions on the 'story approach'.

9.1.1. Summary of Results for Research Aims and Questions

These findings contributed to answering the research aims and questions. Concerning the five research questions:

To what extent can the following be developed in French primary school EFL students through the theoretical framework and a 'story approach' to EFL instruction, and to what extent do they contribute to the development of speaking and oral communicative skills:

1: The understanding of metalinguistic skills, including the use of lexis, phrases, formulaic speech, pronunciation, and pragmatics (language use in context).

Quantitative and qualitative results of the three intervention years appear to demonstrate that, through their improved EFL oral communicative language, students had, to a large extent, acquired, an understanding of metalinguistic skills within the extent of their target language development. MLS includes the awareness of grammar (language components/labels e.g. article 'a').

In the year one cross-sectional study, the coded transcripts provided quantitative and qualitative data concerning the different types of English language individual and groups of students produced. This included: individual student responses to questions asked in English (REI); student individual spontaneous creative language (STEI-S);- group and individual student one word responses (WR-I; WR-G); group and individual students producing formulaic speech (FS-I; FS-G); group and individual students

producing phrases of two words or more (CGS-I; CGS-G);- group and individual students code switching between English and French (SCS-I; SCS-G); instances where the researcher elicits or explains meaning (Meaning-T); instances where individual students elicit or explain meaning (Meaning-student-I); instances where groups of students elicit or explain meaning (Meaning-student-G).

Pre and post-tests (Wilcoxon signed rank tests) were conducted on the number of instances of each code in the transcripts. Though inferential analysis results are to be regarded with caution, due to the small sample size, they can provide a general sense of direction, and in relation to qualitative results. Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis demonstrated the following: Concerning group responses, one word group responses (WR-G) were very rare in pre-tests and reduced further in post-tests; formulaic speech (FS-G) demonstrated even fewer results in pre-tests compared to one word answers and reduced considerably further in post-tests; phrases of two words or more (CGS-G) presented no results in the pre-test and only minor improvement in post-tests.

Concerning individual responses, formulaic speech (FS-I) was hardly present in pre-tests with only a very slight increment in post-tests; one word answers (WR-I), were relatively present in the pre-tests, increasing slightly in post-tests; individual student responses to questions asked in English (REI) presented similar results to one word answers, though were overall less present; the greatest gains were in spontaneous language (STEI-S) and phrases of two words or more (CGS-I) which were practically absent in pre-tests and increased substantially in post-tests. Results for codes STEI-S, CGS-I, Meaning-Teacher and Meaning-Student-I, demonstrated a statistically significant increase between pre and post-tests before the Bonferroni correction. However, the code STEI-S, only, remained statistically significant, according to the new alfa level, once the Bonferroni correction conducted (0.05 divided by the eight codes analysed simultaneously) (chapter 6 section 6.2.3.1). These results, however, seems to indicate a definite trend in the data, and it is likely that a larger sample would lead to stronger results.

These cross-sectional results seem to demonstrate that, the 'story approach' had very limited impact on group responses generally, minor impact on increase in individual student one word responses and formulaic speech, but significant impact on spontaneous production (STEI-S), as well as impact on structured language (CGS-I). Concerning individual student production, results appear to indicate that one word answers (WR-I), "lexis", relatively present in pre-tests, did not increase notably in post-tests; "formulaic speech" (FS-I), was overall, less present, and remarkably less present in post-tests than code WR-I. This is possibly due to both WR-I and FS-I being integrated into creative spontaneous language (STEI-S) and "phrases" (CGS-I). Results seem to confirm the teaching strategy of employing "Formulaic speech" as a trampoline to creative structured language and oral communicative competence, through linking formulaic speech to meaning (Boyd and Rubin, 2006; Selinker and Naiditch, 2017). This strategy appears to provide the EFL learner with a "tool" (meaning), to transform set phrases into creative language, and seems to be illustrated through quantitative and qualitative results. Indeed, unanalysed formulaic speech (chunks) produced by individual students (code FS-I), between pre to post-tests, neither demonstrated a statistically significant increase nor demonstrated a significant correlation with M-T; in the post-tests, FS-I seems to have been integrated into creative spontaneous language (STEI-S) or creative phrases of two words or more (CGS-I). Conversely, despite the Bonferroni correction, post-test correlation results remained significant for the code for meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher (M-T) and the codes for individual students' production of one word answers (WR-I), individual responses by students (REI), individual spontaneous language, (STEI-S), and phrases of two words or more, (CGS-I) produced by individual students (chapter 6, section 6.2.3.2). Though the quantitative results are to be considered with great caution, due to the small sample, they do seem to endorse qualitative results, indicating the importance of meaning in the development of creative language skills.

Students presented few examples of "pronunciation" errors (transcripts), but isolated examples were present (e.g. chapter seven, extract one); results seems to correspond to YL enhanced capacity for integrating sounds of language (Delahaie, 2009). Similarly, some students mastered "pragmatics" better than

others (e.g. chapter seven, extracts five and seven), depending on their interlanguage stage (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000; Selinker and Naiditch, 2017).

2: The understanding of metacognitive skills, including learning certain principle rules of language, and language development through negotiation of meaning and auto-correction.

Year two, quantitative analysis involved descriptive and inferential statistical analysis of words and phrases produced at the start compared to the end of the year. Pre-post-test results (Wilcoxon signed rank tests) for phrases, once again to be interpreted with substantial caution due to the small sample size, demonstrated statistical significance in contrast to the production of single words which demonstrated none. This appears to give weight to year one cross-sectional results where production of output increased for spontaneous language and phrases of two words or more (codes STEI-S and CGS-I) between pre and post-tests.

In year two, as in year one, qualitative data analysis involved a simultaneous deductive-inductive approach, and transcript data was analysed to endeavour to validate the theoretical framework. Results seem to demonstrate evidence of student engagement with personal 'story' and its centrality within EFL learning. Transcripts confirmed that teaching strategies (including corrective and negative feedback: Nassaji, 2016a; Oliver and Mackey, 2003) focused on the development of metacognitive skills (MCS), including executive functions, learning to learn, and using grammatical knowledge appropriately, involving the capacity of being consciously aware of applying knowledge, demonstrated through auto-correction/uptake (students spontaneously self-correcting) and peer-correction (Mitchell, 2009; Oliver, 1998).

The transcript data was analysed qualitatively through content analysis for MCS and MLS development and evidence of student engagement. This involved the aggregation of the number of instances linked to the teaching and learning of these skills (including explanations of meaning e.g. grammar rules) together with the four following associated categories in four pre-post-lessons: students naturally repeating language; auto-correction; peer to peer

correction; the extent of participation from students (number of hands raised). The number of instances were aggregated (chapter seven, Tables 7.5-7.6) according to the activity which generated the instance. Results indicated 40 instances of metacognitive instruction in the pre-lessons, and 119 instances in the post lessons. This increase in metacognitive instruction seems to tally with the increase in skills reflected in the quantitative results; and appears to indicate that the greater the competence, the more it is possible to focus on the metacognitive instruction. The number of instances of metalinguistic instruction increased substantially between pre-lessons (63 instances) and post lessons (155 instances), as did the student's competence (quantitative results). This qualitative data might suggest that as students produce more language, more opportunities arise for building on skills, with language developing as a snowball effect.

Indeed, it appears that MCS and MLS are linked; years one and two results for research question one and two, seem further endorsed through positive 'story approach' results compared to the general approach results for year three final testing. Students' capacity to consciously manipulate language structure is exemplified qualitatively through the transcripts with examples of auto-correction, peer-correction, and students having developed skills for integrating EFL structure in output. Qualitative transcript results following year three final testing (chapter 8, section 8.3.6), seem to endorse oral communicative skills progress through metacognitive and metalinguistic understanding. Indeed, oral skills results for the intervention group in the outcome assessment (year three) appear to demonstrate student's capacity to "negotiate meaning" in a communicative context.

3: the understanding of meaning for creative EFL oral communicative competence including the use of native language (French) as a vehicle for conveying meaning within EFL instruction through a 'story approach' compared to precluding its use within a generalised approach to EFL instruction.

Measures of association were conducted through correlation analysis (Kendall tau-b) on codes Meaning-Teacher and REI, STEI-S, WR-I, FS-I, and CGS-I. None of the pre-test measures were significantly correlated.

However, the importance of meaning in the development of oral communicative skills appears to be demonstrated through the statistically significant post-test correlation results (interpret with caution due to small sample size) between Meaning-Teacher and WR-I, REI, STEI-S, and CGS-I. Particularly concerning codes STEI-S and CGS-I, positive correlation results appear to testify to the relevance of meaning in the production of creative spontaneous language and phrases for communicative competence. These results were endorsed through results of the outcome assessment (year three) for the intervention/CSG group compared to the control group, where meaning, displayed through comprehension, impacted performance. The importance of meaning communicated through native language is evidenced through multiple transcript examples (e.g. chapter seven, extract one). These results could indicate that, meaning and development of target language output are closely linked (Ellis, 2005: principle two; Mackey and Silver, 2005); as meaning is integrated, students develop oral productive skills; the integration of meaning appears to lead to the development of creative spontaneous (STEI-S) and structured (CGS) language. Code-switching was quasi absent (SCS-G and SCS-I) in year one pre-post-tests; together with the results demonstrating statistical significance for codes correlated with meaning, this could be one indication that using the native language to convey meaning, does not seem to interfere with student's EFL skills development. Within the 'story approach', mother tongue is regularly employed, contrary to general approach programmes which preclude its use.

4: oral communicative skills production, comprehension, and questioning (asking-answering) through a 'story approach' compared to a generalised approach to EFL teaching and learning, and how does each compare to the CEFR A1 level (Service-Publique.fr. 2019).

Year three quantitative and qualitative analysis involved the end of year outcome measure. The test instrument was designed by the researcher to include language elements learned by the control and intervention groups. Statistical analysis concerned the number of correct responses obtained by each student in the two groups, and demonstrated substantially more correct responses produced by the intervention group. Inferential analysis (Mann-

Whitney U test) focused on the number of words, phrases and questions produced; the difference between the number of phrases and questions produced by the intervention group compared to the control group was statistically significant , though to be interpreted with caution due to small sample size.

The test transcripts were analysed qualitatively for comprehension skills, issues with recall, metacognitive and metalinguistic skills, oral communicative competence, conversation skills and creative language. This analysis appeared to confirm the quantitative results of the outcome assessment, which seem to endorse the 'story approach' as having developed notably greater oral communicative skills in the intervention group than the general approach in the control group.

Research question four, appears to be achieved through quantitative and qualitative results, and particularly the year three final outcome measure (chapter 8, Table 8.7), which seem to largely confirm the intervention group's alignment with the CEFR A1 speaking skills level (Council of Europe, 2019: appendix 2):

Range: Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.

Accuracy: Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.

Fluency: Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.

Interaction: Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.

Coherence: Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".

Year three results, combined with those of the two preceding years, possibly highlight the difference in teaching strategies between the 'story approach' and the general approach of current commercial programmes: the former seems to emphasise individual responses and oral creative language and "asking and answering" skills, whereas the latter appears to emphasise group responses, one word, and formulaic speech output.

5: engagement with the 'story approach' activities and materials as seen through participation and EFL oral communicative skills progress, and what would be the feasibility of the 'story approach' within real teaching contexts.

Quantitative analysis over the three years of research seem to demonstrate student oral communicative skills progress; the CT observation notes over the three intervention years and responses from post-intervention parent questionnaires demonstrate satisfaction with the 'story approach'. These combined positive results seem to evidence student engagement with the learning materials and activities.

Parent reports conducted in year two, provided an independent view on student engagement with the 'story approach' materials and activities, and progress in recalling language outside the instructional context. Parents were asked to write down the exact wording their child produced in relation to the oral homework provided; this data was analysed qualitatively, and involved five sets of homework (chapter seven), each requiring three pictures to be described using a phrase. Interestingly, results indicated that students could produce phrases which were comprehensibly correct even if they did not contain a verb, and that phrases produced containing a verb, were not necessarily comprehensible in relation to the picture description. Results (Table 7.7) also demonstrated that only one student (homework 1 column E) produced a verb alone i.e. not in a phrase ("go"), only one needed prompting, and a maximum of 4/23 students (in homework 2, Table 7.8) per homework session were not able to perform, possibly indicating that students had progressed beyond one word responses, and had developed confidence in production (Graham, 2007; Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Mackey and Philp, 1998). These results seem to indicate that despite emerging skills, and developing interlanguage, the 'story approach' "empowered" (theoretical

framework) students to display communicative competence and creativity in language production. Overall, students produced 240 comprehensibly correct phrases (Table 7.8) for the homework sessions. This data is in addition to phrases produced during class, and seems to also demonstrate parent engagement with the 'story approach'. Indeed, parents' attitudes, perceptions, and motivation towards FL teaching and learning can greatly impact YLs EFL skills development, as does their socio-economic status (Enever, 2011). These characteristics concern the type of support and encouragement parents can provide their child in the EFL learning process, and more widely for learning in general. However, through 'personal' story by placing the student at the centre of the learning process, the 'story approach' attempts to surpass these considerations through encouraging student intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic. In the 'story approach' the teacher's own attitude provides support for the learning environment, as exemplified through the transcripts (Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Valdés and Castellón, 2011; Villegas and Lucas, 2002). These positive results provided added confidence in student EFL progress in this second year intervention through the 'story approach', seeming to endorse the quantitative results.

In year one, content analysis of the intervention activities in the pre and post-tests, in relation to the frequency of occurrence of codes REI, STEI-S, and CGS-I during the interventions, permitted determining overall student engagement with the 'story approach' and which activities generated these codes. Results indicated that post-lessons demonstrated substantially more interaction than pre-lessons (e.g. lesson 8: 123 exchanges; lesson 31: 313 exchanges) and appeared to be linked to the type of activities; pre-lessons involved more singing and action, whereas post-lessons focused on questioning and description.

Further year one analysis revealed which activities generated the most English language production: singing, significant in commercial course books (general approach) were mainly present in the 'story approach' pre-lessons, contributing largely to group output. Movement, more present in pre than post-lessons, generated very little English production. The student's own personalised work generated substantial output in pre-lessons and post-

lessons, and realia and question/description tasks in post-lessons. These results possibly indicate that the personal nature of these activities ('story') provides for engagement with EFL learning in line with the theoretical framework described in chapter three, and therefore generate increased output. Related to meaning, comprehension checks contributed substantially to English production particularly in post-lessons, as did native language use (though to a lesser extent); this possibly endorses the post-test correlation results of meaning with codes WR-I, REI, STEI-S, and CGS-I, and the significance of personal engagement with meaning, in the learning process, for development of oral communicative skills in YLs. These phenomena appear to confirm the notions of "story", "embodiment", "ownership" and "empowerment", leading to oral communicative skills, in the theoretical framework proposed in chapter three.

The end of year one informal self-evaluation student questionnaire demonstrated positive results concerning new levels of competence; more than two thirds of the class felt they could now sing, ask, and reply to questions, and had increased vocabulary in English. Favourite activities for most of the students were tasks and games; these correspond to the students' developmental age, and the EFL oral skills competence they felt that they had acquired was endorsed through quantitative and qualitative results. These results possibly demonstrate the feasibility of integrating the 'story approach' into real-teaching contexts.

9.1.1.1. Aims

Results appear to demonstrate that the three research aims have been achieved over this three year study. Firstly, the theoretical framework appears to have been qualitatively validated, together with the trialling of the 'story approach' (ELLP) and monitoring instruments, in three principle ways, through:

- CT observation notes over three years seem to evidence how 'story approach' materials and teaching strategies provide for "embodiment" and "ownership";

- parent reports in year two, where positive results appear to demonstrate that students take "ownership" by producing language out of context;

- transcripts of the intervention classes in years one and two studies and year three end of year final testing, appear to provide evidence of "ownership" leading to "empowerment" through the use of structure and creativity in language production, leading to "oral communicative skills" involving "speaking, asking and answering."

Secondly, the impact of the 'story approach' in developing oral communicative skills in these YLs appears to have been demonstrated through the positive quantitative and qualitative results, testifying student capacity in communicating through speaking, asking, and answering skills. These results seem to affirm the trialling of the 'story approach' ELLP, including on-going progress-assessment instruments, and demonstrate its positive impact on YL oral communicative skills development.

Thirdly, year three final testing permitted comparing 'story approach' results from the intervention and CSG with general approach results from the control group, and assessing the impact of each approach on target language productive skills. Results appear favourable to the 'story approach'.

As a concluding statement for this thesis, the qualitative nature of the research implies that the theoretical framework and 'story approach' have been analysed from varied perspectives, inductive and deductive (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Theory is a way of suggesting greater efficiency within a given area, subject or field of endeavour (Saldana, 2013), and therefore, this research has endeavoured to examine phenomenon from multiple viewpoints. In this research study, the codes employed for quantitative and qualitative analysis were developed through the transcripts according to content analysis and the cannons of Grounded Theory (Charmaz, 2006; Cohen, et al. 2011; Coolican, 2014; Corbin and Strauss, 1990; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Mackey and Gass, 2005; 2009; Saldana, 2013; Teddlie and Tashakkori). Content analysis involves the "search of qualitative materials (especially text) to find 'coding units' (usually words, phrases or themes); analysis often

concentrates on quantitative treatment of frequencies but can be a purely qualitative approach" (Coolican 2014, p.330). Grounded Theory (GT) involves "analysis of qualitative data in which patterns emerge from the data and are not imposed on them before they are gathered" (Coolican, 2014, p.274); GT permits "developing categories that summarise central features of the data and also an analysis that presents, at the end of the research, a theory or a model of what is going on in the data" (Coolican, 2014, p. 260). However, an on-going combining of content analysis with Grounded Theory appeared to render the design unnecessarily complex. Therefore, throughout this thesis analysis and discussion are solely referred to, and aligned with, content analysis. The coding of student language resulting from the 'story approach' ELLP, permitted qualitative analysis of emerging student EFL language through grounded theory (inductive). Analysis of this coded data according to established criteria (Corbin and Strauss, 1990) permitted: determining the type of language YLs produced (oral communicative skills: "empowerment"); attempting to understand from which instructional strategies, activities, and materials this language has been generated; and establishing if these display qualities of "embodiment" and "ownership" and do these qualities emanate from (personal) story. According to Coolican, within grounded theory, the "final explanation can be represented as a model and is often supported by a diagram" (Coolican, 2014, p. 316); as such, this inductive analysis appears to converge with the phenomenon suggested in the theoretical framework in chapter 3 (figure 3.1). Through this analysis, the theoretical framework has been further refined. Consequently, in view of this, a revised theoretical framework is therefore proposed in figure 9.1. Through inductive analysis, the revised theoretical framework confirms that learning appears to take place within the space provided between "story" "embodiment" and "ownership"; the upward arrows demonstrate the inductive nature of this analysis through grounded theory.
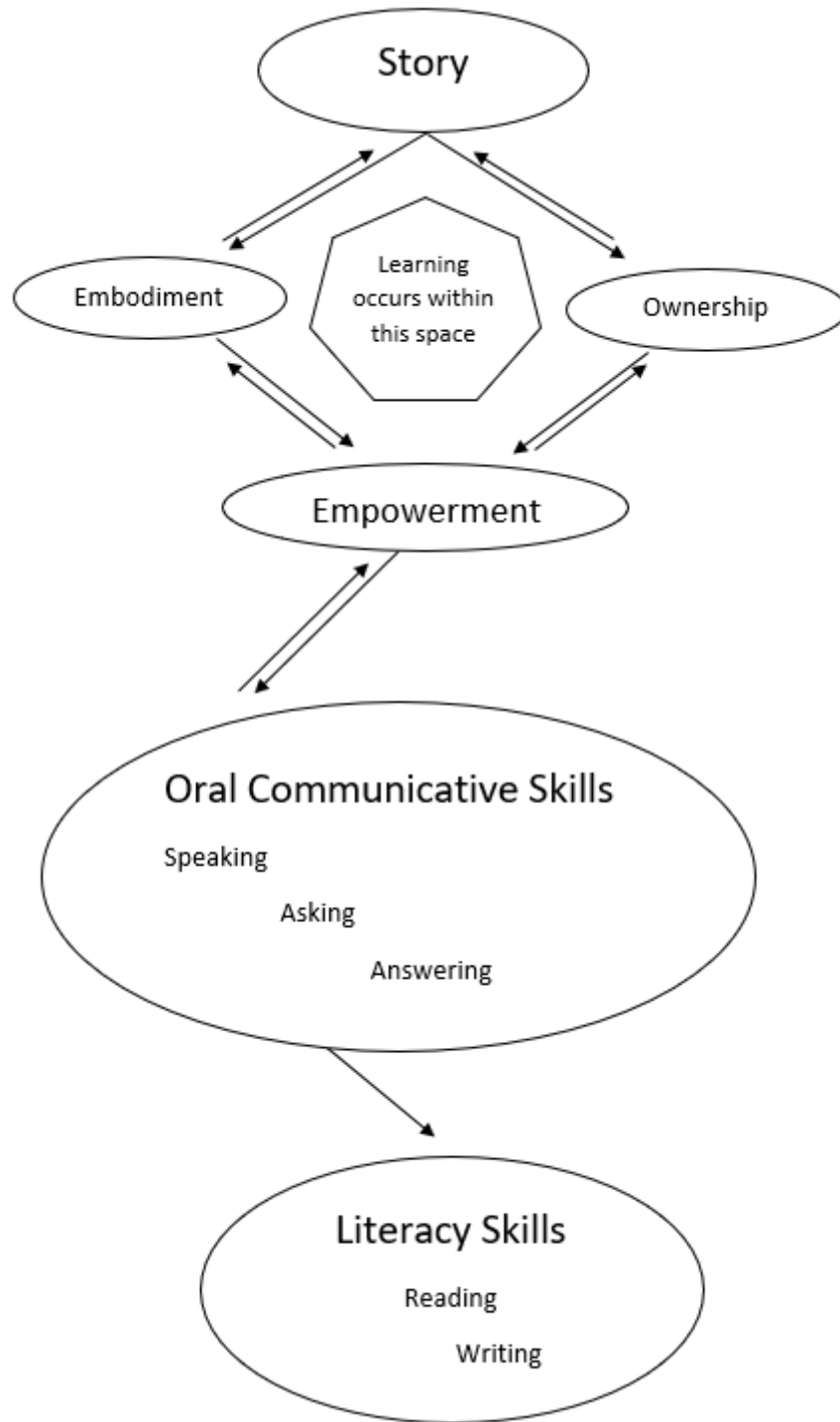
Figure 9.1. A Revised theoretical framework for the design and development of FL/EFL programmes for primary school students through a 'story approach'.

This attempt at building theory, may demonstrate to a certain extent, how the prediction and control of events, and the explanation of how and why phenomenon occur, can lead to the understanding of these for application within a real-life EFL teaching context (Saldana, 2013).

From a deductive perspective, indicated by the downward arrows, the theoretical framework guided the design and development of the 'story approach' ELLP. Qualitative analysis of the transcript data, resulting from the 'story approach' teaching strategies and materials, was conducted in view of validating the theoretical framework, as seen through the extent of student progress. This qualitative analysis concerning student progress, was complemented, and supported, through quantitative analysis of the 'story approach'.

9.2. Limitations

The small sample size, absence of randomisation, and absence of a control group in years one and two, are limitations of this study. The absence of an independent evaluator could be interpreted as presenting bias within this study. However, the researcher sought to control for this in each year of the intervention and for the CSG progress, through the CT independent observation notes and the participation of independent raters for the quantitative analysis.

The decision to select the sample according to specific criteria permitted focusing the research on a population which lends itself to multiple cultural and educational contexts. Indeed, a common issue in EFL teaching is the lack of contact with the target language and restricted instruction time. The sample therefore excluded any students in contact with an additional language, or continuing English outside school; its representativeness therefore possibly permits extending inferences from results of data analysis to larger groups (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) in similar contexts.

The length of the intervention presented a drawback with regard to attrition within the CSG, with only four of the initial seven students remaining in year three. However, though the CSG enjoyed higher gains overall, the intervention class samples achieved a reasonable level of EFL oral competence given the positive results, thus providing evidence in favour of the theoretical framework and 'story approach'.

Given the real classroom teaching context, a variety of confounding factors hindered the research. One principle issue was the lack of individual student testing in years one and two. However, this reflects a real world issue in that it is a common difficulty in primary school EFL contexts to determine individual student progress in oral skills due to lack of time and suitable instruments. As such, part of the 'story approach' involved the trialling of oral monitoring methods, strategies, and instruments to assess students' oral skills effectively during instruction time, while remaining formative (Bygate, 2009; Long, 2009). 'Story approach' monitoring was designed to cater for time and practical constraints, by all the students being monitored together in the classroom. This could possibly constitute a major disadvantage; confounding factors may have included students being influenced by peers, or improved performance due to prompting through all the students being present. However, transcript results appear to demonstrate that students were not necessarily influenced by peer testing and the year three final outcome assessment appears to endorse this as intervention/GSG students performed well on individual testing.

An additional 'story approach' limitation could include the use of native language for conveying meaning within instruction, implying the necessity for bi-lingual EFL teachers; this is addressed in section 9.4 concerning further research.

Not being a standardised test, the year three outcome assessment could be considered to present limitation. However, given the context of the research, it seemed appropriate to tailor the test to the control and intervention group samples. To maximise validity and reliability, the test design included language features both groups would have encountered through the generalised approach (current course book programmes) and the 'story

approach', and remained conform to the standard stipulated in the CEFR A1 speaking level and the directives of the FME for this age group. Concerning assessment, the parent reports in year two could present limitations in that, though this enabled analysing to what extent students could recall language outside the learning context, the exactness of recounts could be questioned. However, parents were only asked to note the exact language students produced, not analyse it. More accurate results may have been obtained if parents/caregivers were able to voice-record student language; however, the logistics of this appears impractical.

Qualitative data was gathered concerning reading and writing skills. However, due to practical and time considerations it has not been possible to trial the literacy skills (reading and writing) aspect of the theoretical framework and conduct qualitative and quantitative analysis.

Cross-sectional studies could be considered a limitation within research, as they present a view on phenomena at a particular point in time (Cohen, 2011). These studies can be considered "ineffective for studying change" (Cohen, 2011, p. 267); a true cross-sectional study generally compares samples drawn from different "distinguishable sub-groups within a population" (Coolican, 2014, p.231), with a major disadvantage being issues of group equivalence (Cohen, 2014). However, concerning this study, group equivalence was overcome due to all the students being similar in age and linguistic background. This study equally involved a three year longitudinal CSG, endorsing results over a period of time. The final year three assessment permitted a view on progress over the three years through the CSG. CT observation notes permitted continuity over the entirety of the research. This was particularly significant as the nature of this YL study implied that the students were evolving cognitively, physically, and emotionally over the extent of the project.

Parent and teacher characteristics play an important role in EFL skills development (Enever, 2011; Kuchah, 2018; Murphy, 2018), similarly to general learning. This research study involved parents from a relatively stable SES backgrounds (chapter four, section 4.2); the EFL teacher/researcher

emulated the teaching ethos of the 'story approach' (Chapter three, section 3.3.12). Thus, outcomes were possibly favourably influenced.

Indeed, a further limitation, is that, to achieve its maximum potential, the 'story approach' may require specific teacher training, to emulate the ethos and apply teaching materials and activities. It seems, therefore, that specially designed training sessions and workshops could be required.

Parent and teacher characteristics appear to be fundamental to skills development in any YL instructional programme. (Enever, 2011). The 'story approach', however, attempts to transcend exterior factors through 'personal' story providing for the central role of the student, and therefore encouraging intrinsic motivation. Nonetheless, teacher attitudes remains fundamental for skills development (Lucas and Villegas, 2011; Valdés and Castellón, 2011; Villegas and Lucas, 2002).

9.3. Implications for Real-Classroom Context Teaching

This study demonstrates the feasibility of integrating the 'story approach' in real teaching contexts, in several ways:

- The theoretical framework and 'story approach' are designed to be accessible to a variety of cultural and socio-economic contexts, enabling the integration of EFL instruction for primary school students through a flexible English Language Learning Programme (ELLP).

- The low-cost materials are adaptable to teaching needs and can be made by the teacher, therefore privileging their integration.

- The class teacher (CT) observation notes remarks were overall positive; the CTs had first-hand view on the teaching strategies and materials; though year two CT felt the pace of the intervention was

too fast, other CTs, the students, and the parents made no comment on this.

- The three CTs commented positively on the design of materials and activities; year two CT adopted certain designs for general classwork, implicitly implying appreciation.

- Ease of assessing student's on-going EFL oral level through the specifically designed instruments permits monitoring progress and adapting lessons for greater efficiency in YL EFL instruction.

- The 'story approach' use of native language implies possible scope for training EFL teachers locally. An added advantage being that locally-based teachers will be acquainted with local culture and traditions, which will be integrated into EFL instruction, through the 'story approach'.

9.4. Further Research

This project provides scope within basic and applied research. The aims of this study were: the trialling and qualitative validation of the theoretical framework and 'story approach' English Language Learning Programme (ELLP) and instruments for on-going assessment; their effectiveness for YL EFL oral communicative skills progress as seen through quantitative and qualitative data analysis; comparison of the intervention ('story approach') and control group (generalised approach) oral communicative skills development, through test results. These appear to have been achieved through the results of the study.

However, further research would be required to: quantitatively validate the effectiveness of the theoretical framework; further investigate both qualitatively and quantitatively the theoretical framework and 'story approach' within larger samples in similar contexts; further trialling of the year three final outcome assessment, with larger samples; trialling the literacy

skills aspect of the theoretical framework and 'story approach', through building on the materials and activities introduced in this study for the development of speaking skills. The classroom monitoring strategy and instruments could be further trilled through applied research.

Additionally, the theoretical framework and 'story approach' appear to lend themselves to designing EFL programmes for speakers of languages apart from French. Indeed, based on the theoretical framework, the 'story approach' could provide for the design of programmes for teaching EFL to a variety of different native language speakers; or, as a FL 'story approach', to teaching a variety of languages to native speakers of English. Research to make this available for schools and YL educational contexts seems to imply the following:

- research by curriculum designers to develop 'story approach' language programmes specifically for a variety of language cultures.

- research into the local culture, customs, and traditions for developing materials, realia, and activities, while providing target language lexis and structure. The theoretical framework and 'story approach' are based upon personal story, and personal engagement with the learning process, therefore necessitating any English language learning programme (ELLP) or foreign language learning programme (FLLP) to align intimately with the students' background.

- research into 'story approach' teacher training, particularly given that the 'story approach' requires use of the native language to convey meaning; this entails that language teachers require being bi-lingual, or at least possess working knowledge in the learner's native language.

Finally, applied research would involve trialling the new 'story approach' language learning programmes in the country of instruction, and with young learners from different SES backgrounds, to confirm suitability and the feasibility of this concept.

A1/A2 descriptor level

The grid below is a summary of the A1 descriptor level for the original 2001 illustrative descriptors, including qualitative aspects of spoken language use. Where no descriptor level is given for the A1 level or where the A2 level is relevant, the A2 level is also indicated.

These descriptor levels have been taken from the following document:

Council of Europe. (2018g). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment structured overview of all CEFR scales. Retrieved October 8, 2018 from https://rm.coe.int/CoERMPublicCommonSearchServices/DisplayDCTMContent?documentId=090000168045b15e   (original 2001 illustrative descriptors pages 1-34)

1 Common Reference Levels

1.1 Global scale

A1

Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

1.2 Self-assessment grid

A1

Reception (listening):

I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning   myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly

Interaction (spoken interaction):
I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat
     or
rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics

Production (spoken production) :
I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.

1.3 Qualitative aspects of spoken language use

A1

RANGE
Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.

ACCURACY
Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in
a memorised repertoire.

FLUENCY
Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.

INTERACTION

Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but
communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.

COHERENCE

Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".

2 Illustrative scales

2.1 Communicative Activities

<u>Reception Spoken</u>

OVERALL LISTENING COMPREHENSION

A1

Can follow speech that is very slow and carefully articulated, with long pauses for him/her to assimilate meaning.

UNDERSTANDING INTERACTION BETWEEN NATIVE SPEAKERS

A1

No descriptor available

A2

Can generally identify the topic of discussion around her that is conducted slowly and clearly.

LISTENING TO ANNOUNCEMENTS & INSTRUCTIONS

A1

Can understand instructions addressed carefully and slowly to him/her and follow short, simple directions.

LISTENING TO RADIO AUDIO & RECORDINGS

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can understand and extract the essential information from short recorded passages dealing with predictable everyday matters that are delivered slowly and clearly.

Reception Audio/Visual

WATCHING TV AND FILM

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can identify the main point of TV news items reporting events, accidents etc. where the visual supports the commentary.
Can follow changes of topic of factual TV news items, and form an idea of the main content.

Interaction Spoken

OVERALL SPOKEN INTERACTION

A1

Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition at a slower rate of speech, rephrasing and repair. Can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.

UNDERSTANDING A NATIVE SPEAKER INTERLOCUTOR

A1

Can understand everyday expressions aimed at the satisfaction of simple needs of a concrete type, delivered directly to him/her in clear, slow and repeated speech by a sympathetic speaker.
Can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to him/her and follow short, simple directions.

CONVERSATION

A1

Can make an introduction and use basic greeting and leave-taking expressions.
Can ask how people are and react to news. Can understand everyday expressions aimed at the satisfaction of simple needs of a concrete type, delivered directly to him/her in clear, slow and repeated speech by a sympathetic speaker.

INFORMAL DISCUSSION (WITH FRIENDS)

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can generally identify the topic of discussion around her which is conducted slowly and clearly.
Can discuss what to do in the evening, at the weekend.

Can make and respond to suggestions.

Can agree and disagree with others.

Can discuss everyday practical issues in a simple way when addressed clearly, slowly and directly.

Can discuss what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet.

FORMAL DISCUSSION (MEETINGS)

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can generally follow changes of topic in formal discussion related to his/her field

which is conducted slowly and clearly. Can exchange relevant information and give his/her opinion on practical problems when asked directly, provided he/she receives some help with formulation and can ask for repetition of key points if necessary.

GOAL-ORIENTED CO-OPERATION (e.g. Repairing a car, discussing a document, organising an event)

A1

Can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to him/her and follow short, simple directions. Can ask people for things, and give people things.

TRANSACTIONS TO OBTAIN GOODS & SERVICES

A1

Can ask people for things and give people things.

Can handle numbers, quantities, cost and time.

INFORMATION EXCHANGE

A1

Can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to him/her and follow short, simple directions.

Can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.

Can ask and answer questions about themselves and other people, where they live, people they know, things they have.

Can indicate time by such phrases as next week, last Friday, in November, three o'clock.

INTERVIEWING AND BEING INTERVIEWED

A1

Can reply in an interview to simple direct questions spoken very slowly and clearly in direct non-idiomatic speech about personal details.

Production Spoken

OVERALL SPOKEN PRODUCTION

A1

Can produce simple mainly isolated phrases about people and places.

A2

Can give a simple description or presentation of people, living or working conditions, daily routines. likes/dislikes etc. as a short series of simple phrases and sentences linked into a list

SUSTAINED MONOLOGUE: Describing Experience

A1

Can describe him/herself, what he/she does and where he/she lives

A2

Can tell a story or describe something in a simple list of points.

Can describe everyday aspects of his environment e.g. people, places, a job or study experience.

Can give short, basic descriptions of events and activities.

Can describe plans and arrangements, habits and routines, past activities and personal experiences.

Can use simple descriptive language to make brief statements about and compare objects and possessions.

Can explain what he/she likes or dislikes about something.

Can describe his/her family, living conditions, educational background, present or most recent job.

Can describe people, places and possessions in simple terms.

PUBLIC ANNOUNCEMENTS

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can deliver very short, rehearsed announcements of predictable, learnt content which are intelligible to listeners who are prepared to concentrate.

ADDRESSING AUDIENCES

A1

Can read a very short, rehearsed statement -e.g. to introduce a speaker, propose a toast.

A2

Can give a short, rehearsed presentation on a topic pertinent to his everyday life, briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans and actions. Can cope with a limited number of straightforward follow up questions.

Can give a short, rehearsed, basic presentation on a familiar subject.
Can answer straightforward follow up questions if he/she can as for
repetition and if some help with the formulation of his reply is possible.

2.2 Communication Strategies

<u>Interaction</u>

TAKING THE FLOOR (TURNTAKING)

A1
No descriptor available.

A2
Can use simple techniques to start, maintain, or end a short conversation.
Can initiate, maintain and close simple, face-to-face conversation
Can ask for attention.

COOPERATING

A1
No descriptor available.

A2
Can indicate when he/she is following.

ASKING FOR CLARIFICATION

A1
No descriptor available.

A2

Can ask very simply for repetition when he/she does not understand. Can ask for clarification about key words or phrases not understood using stock phrases.

Can say he/she didn't follow.

PLANNING

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can recall and rehearse an appropriate set of phrases from his repertoire.

COMPENSATING

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can use an inadequate word from his repertoire and use gesture to clarify what he/she wants to say.

Can identify what he/she means by pointing to it (e.g. "I'd like this, please).

2.3 Working with Text (not applicable to this research study).

2.4 Communicative Language Competence Linguistic

Range

GENERAL LINGUISTIC RANGE

A1

Has a very basic range of simple expressions about personal details and needs of a concrete type.

VOCABULARY RANGE

A1

Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations.

Control

GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY

A1

Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learnt repertoire.

A2

Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes
-for example tends to mix up tenses and forget to mark agreement; nevertheless, it is usually clear what he/she is trying to say.

VOCABULARY CONTROL

A1
No descriptor available.

A2

Can control a narrow repertoire dealing with concrete everyday needs.

PHONOLOGICAL CONTROL

A1

Pronunciation of a very limited repertoire of learnt words and phrases can be understood with some effort by native speakers used to dealing with speakers of his/her language group.

A2

Pronunciation is generally clear enough to be understood despite a noticeable foreign accent, but conversational partners will need to ask for repetition from time to time.

Sociolinguistic

SOCIOLINGUISTIC APPROPRIATENESS

A1

Can establish basic social contact by using the simplest everyday polite forms of: greetings and farewells; introductions; saying please, thank you, sorry etc.

Pragmatic

FLEXIBILITY

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can adapt well-rehearsed memorised simple phrases to particular circumstances through limited lexical substitution.
Can expand learned phrases through simple recombinations of their elements.

TAKING THE FLOOR (TURNTAKING)

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can use simple techniques to start, maintain, or end a short conversation.

Can initiate, maintain and close simple, face-to-face conversation.

Can ask for attention.

THEMATIC DEVELOPMENT

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can tell a story or describe something in a simple list of points.

COHERENCE

A1

Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like 'and' or 'then'.

A2

Can use the most frequently occurring connectors to link simple sentences in order to tell a story or describe something as a simple list of points.

PROPOSITIONAL PRECISION

A1

No descriptor available.

A2

Can communicate what he/she wants to say in a simple and direct exchange of limited

Information on familiar and routine matters, but in other situations he/she generally has to compromise the message.

SPOKEN FLUENCY

A1

Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.

A2

Can make him/herself understood in short contributions, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.

Can construct phrases on familiar topics with sufficient ease to handle short exchanges, despite very noticeable hesitation and false starts.

Council of Europe. (2019) Qualitative aspects of spoken language use – Table 3. Retrieved Septmber 4, 2019 from https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/table-3-cefr-3.3-common-reference-levels-qualitative-aspects-of-spoken-language-use

Qualitative aspects of spoken language use - Table 3 (CEFR 3.3): Common Reference levels

The chart in this table was designed to assess spoken performances. It focuses on different qualitative aspects of language use.

	RANGE	ACCURACY	FLUENCY	INTERACTION	COHERENCE
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms to convey finer shades of meaning precisely, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Also has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can express him/herself spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.	Can interact with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal and intonational cues apparently effortlessly. Can interweave his/her contribution into the joint discourse with fully natural turntaking, referencing, allusion making etc.	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.
C1	Has a good command of a broad range of language allowing	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse	Can produce clear, smoothly-flowing, well-structured speech, showing

	him/her to select a formulation to express him/ herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of general, academic, professional or leisure topics without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.	functions to preface his remarks in order to get or to keep the floor and to relate his/her own contributions skilfully to those of other speakers.	controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he or she searches for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses.	Can initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he / she needs to, though he /she may not always do this elegantly. Can help the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some "jumpiness" in a long contribution.
B1	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation and circum-locutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel,	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used "routines" and patterns associated with more predictable situations.	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. Can repeat back part of what someone has said to confirm mutual understanding.	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.

	and current events.				
A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorised phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations.	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.	Can answer questions and respond to simple statements. Can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord.	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like "and, "but" and "because".
A1	Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.	Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".

Parental Autorisation for video recording lessons and conducting questionnaires/interviews in the intervention classes

2012-2015 (last page for translation)

PILOT STUDY

2 octobre 2012

Chers parents,

Dans le cadre d'un projet de recherche sur les méthodes d'apprentissage de l'anglais pour les enfants de la 3ème année de maternelle, Madame Virjee enseignera dans la classe de **Madame…** durant l'année scolaire 2012 -2013. Dans un but strictement pédagogique, les cours seront éventuellement enregistrés (son et image) et les enfants seront éventuellement amenés à remplir des petits questionnaires sur l'anglais (leurs réponses sous forme de petites images à colorier) concernant leurs préférences dans l'apprentissage de cette langue.

A rendre pour le lundi 8 Octobre au plus tard.

Merci d'entourer votre réponse

Mon enfant peut participer aux questionnaires :   OUI   NON

Mon enfant peut figurer sur les enregistrements : OUI   NON

Nom   et   prénom   de   l'enfant :
_____

Signature   des   parents :
_____

En vous remerciant d'avance.

FIRST YEAR PRIMARY STUDY

3 Septembre 2013

Chers parents,

Dans le cadre d'un projet de recherche sur les méthodes d'apprentissage de l'anglais pour les enfants de CP, Madame Virjee enseignera dans la classe de **Madame…** durant l'année scolaire 2013 -2014. Dans un but strictement pédagogique, les cours seront éventuellement enregistrés (son et image) et les enfants seront éventuellement amenés à remplir des petits questionnaires sur l'anglais (leurs réponses sous forme de petites images à colorier) concernant leurs préférences dans l'apprentissage de cette langue.

A rendre pour le lundi 9 Septembre au plus tard.

Merci d'entourer votre réponse

Mon enfant peut participer aux questionnaires :   OUI   NON

Mon enfant peut figurer sur les enregistrements : OUI   NON

Nom   et   prénom   de   l'enfant :
_____

Signature   des   parents :
_____

En vous remerciant d'avance.

SECOND YEAR PRIMARY STUDY

1er Septembre 2014

Chers parents,

Dans le cadre d'un projet de recherche sur les méthodes d'apprentissage de l'anglais pour les enfants de CE1, Madame Virjee enseignera dans la classe de **Madame...** durant l'année scolaire 2014 -2015. Dans un but strictement pédagogique, les cours seront éventuellement enregistrés (son et image) et les enfants seront éventuellement amenés à remplir des petits questionnaires sur l'anglais concernant leurs préférences dans l'apprentissage de cette langue.

A rendre pour le lundi 8 Septembre au plus tard.

Merci d'entourer votre réponse

Mon enfant peut participer aux questionnaires :   OUI   NON

Mon enfant peut figurer sur les enregistrements : OUI   NON

Nom   et   prénom   de   l'enfant :
_____

Signature   des   parents :
_____

En vous remerciant d'avance.

THIRD YEAR PRIMARY STUDY

31 août 2015

Chers parents,

Dans le cadre d'un projet de recherche sur les méthodes d'apprentissage de l'anglais pour les enfants de CE2, Madame Virjee enseignera dans la classe de **Madame…et Madame…** durant l'année scolaire 2015 -2016. Dans un but strictement pédagogique, les cours seront éventuellement enregistrés (son et image) et les enfants seront éventuellement amenés à remplir des petits questionnaires sur l'anglais concernant leurs préférences dans l'apprentissage de cette langue.

A rendre pour le jeudi 3 Septembre au plus tard.

Merci d'entourer votre réponse

Mon enfant peut participer aux questionnaires :   OUI   NON

Mon enfant peut figurer sur les enregistrements : OUI   NON

Nom   et   prénom   de   l'enfant :

_____

Signature   des   parents :

_____

En vous remerciant d'avance.

TRANSLATION

Parental Autorisation for video recording lessons and conducting questionnaires/interviews in the intervention classes

2012-2015

Dear Parents,

In the context of research concerning English language learning, Mrs Virjee will be teaching in the classes of … during the school year .... Within a strictly educational perspective, the lessons will probably be recorded (sound and image) and the children will probably be asked to complete short questionnaires about their preferences in English language learning.

To be returned at the latest by….

Please circle your response

My child can participate in the questionnaire: YES   NO

My child can be recorded: YES   NO

Surname and first name of child: _____

Parents' Signature: _____

Thanking you in advance.

PRE-INTERVENTION PARENT QUESTIONNAIRES
1st 2nd 3rd year primary 2013, 2014, 2015
French and English (with translation).

Questionnaire Classe CPa Anglais 2013-2014

Nom de famille_____   Prénom de votre enfant_____

Chers parents,

En raison des recherches sur l'apprentissage de la langue anglaise que je mène dans la classe de vos enfants, vos réponses aux questions suivantes seront les bienvenues. Merci de compléter le questionnaire pour au plus tard le jeudi 10 Octobre 2013. Je vous remercie d'avance pour votre collaboration.

Cordialement, Geneffa Virjee

Les réponses resteront entièrement anonymes. Merci d'entourer votre réponse :

1) Etes-vous une famille anglophone ?   Oui   Non

2) Parlez-vous d'autres langues à la maison d'une manière quotidienne et régulière à part le Français ?   Oui   Non

   Si oui,   lesquelles ?_____

3) Est-ce que votre enfant parle d'autres langues à part le français ?
Oui   Non

   Si oui, lesquelles ?_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant a fait un séjour dans un pays anglophone ?
Oui   Non

    Si oui, quel(s) pays ?_____

    Combien de temps ?_____ De quel âge à quel âge ? _____

5) Est-ce que votre enfant a été scolarisé dans une école anglophone ou bilingue en France   ou à l'étranger ?   Oui   Non

Si oui, combien de temps ?_____ De quel âge à quel âge ?_____

6) Est-ce que votre enfant participe à des cours d'anglais en dehors de l'école ou a un contact régulier avec l'anglais ?   Oui   Non

Si oui, quel jour et combien d'heures par semaine ?_____ _____

7) Est-ce que vous (ou d'autres personnes qui ont la garde de votre enfant) lisez/racontez des histoires avec ou sans images à votre enfant ?

OUI : avec images   sans images   NON

8) Si oui :

a) Dans quelle langue (s)_____

b) Qui fait la lecture/raconte les histoires ?_____ _____

c) Depuis quel âge de l'enfant? _____

d) Quel est la fréquence et le temps passé à chaque séance ? _____
_____

9) Est-ce que votre enfant a facilement accès tout seul à des livres pour enfant ?   Oui   Non

Si oui, se sert-il souvent ?   Oui   Non

10) Est-ce que votre enfant regarde la télé ou des films ?   Oui   Non

Si oui, quel est la fréquence et le temps passé à chaque séance ?_____

11) Est-ce que votre enfant utilise la technologie (téléphone, ordinateur, autre) pour faire des jeux interactifs ?   Oui   Non

Si oui, quel est la fréquence et le temps passé à chaque séance ?_____
_____

Concernant les cours d'anglais dans la classe de CPa :

Votre enfant a bénéficié de 4 cours de 60 minutes d'anglais depuis la rentrée.

1) Est-ce que votre enfant vous parle de ces cours ?   Oui   Non

2) Est-ce que votre enfant semble apprécier ces cours ?   Oui   Non

3) Comment savez vous ?_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant manifeste une envie spontanée de parler, chanter, compter en anglais ?   Oui   Non

5) Si oui, quels sont les mots qu'il prononce ?_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Questionnaire Class CPa English   1st Year Primary 2013-2014

Surname_____ Child's first name _____

Dear Parents,

With regard to the research I am conducting in your child's class concerning learning English, your responses to the following questions will be very welcome. Please complete the following questionnaire latest by 10th October 2013. Thanking you in advance for your participation.

Yours sincerely, Geneffa Virjee

Your responses will remain entirely anonymous. Please circle your response:

1) Are you an English speaking family?   Yes   No

2) Do you speak any other languages at home, on a daily basis, apart from French?

     Yes   No

If yes, which ones? _____

3) Does your child speak any other language apart from French?   Yes   No

     If yes, which ones? _____

4) Has your child ever lived in an English speaking country?   Yes   No

   If yes, in which country? _____

   For how long? _____From which age and until which age? _____

5) Has your child ever attended an English or bi-lingual school in France or abroad?

   Yes   No

   If yes, for how long? _____ From which age and until which age?_____

6) Does your child attended English classes outside school or have regular contact with English?   Yes   No

   If yes, which day and for how many hours per week? _____

7) Do you, (or any caregiver of your child) read to or tell stories to your child?

   YES: stories with pictures   stories without pictures   NO

8) If yes:

a) In which language(s)? _____

b) Who reads/tells stories to the child? _____

c) Since the child was which age? _____

d) How frequently and for how long each session? _____

_____

9) Does your child have easy access to children's books on his own? Yes No

   If Yes, does he often help himself?   Yes   No

10) Does your child watch the TV or films?   Yes   No

    If yes, how frequently does he watch and for how long each time? ____

_____

11) Does your child use technology (telephone, computer, other)

    to play interactive games?   Yes   No

    If yes, how frequently does he play and for how long each time?

_____

Concerning the English classes in CPa:

Since the start of the school year your child has had 4 lessons of 60 minutes.

1) Does your child talk about these lessons?   Yes   No

2) Does your child appear to enjoy these lessons?   Yes   No

3) How do you know?

_____

_____

4) Does your child spontaneously attempt to speak, sing, or count in English?

   Yes   No

5) If yes, which words/phrases does your child say?

_____

_____

Questionnaire Classe CE1c Anglais 2014-2015

Nom de famille_____ Prénom de votre enfant_____

Chers parents,

En raison des recherches sur l'apprentissage de la langue anglaise que je mène dans la classe de vos enfants, vos réponses aux questions suivantes seront les bienvenues. Merci de compléter le questionnaire pour au plus tard le vendredi 10 Octobre 2014. Je vous remercie d'avance pour votre collaboration.

Cordialement, Geneffa Virjee

Les réponses resteront entièrement anonymes. Merci d'entourer votre réponse :

1) Etes-vous une famille anglophone ?   Oui   Non

2) Parlez-vous d'autres langues à la maison d'une manière quotidienne et régulière à part le Français ?   Oui   Non

   Si oui, lesquelles ?_____

3) Est-ce que votre enfant parle d'autres langues à part le français ?
Oui   Non

   Si oui,
lesquelles ?_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant a fait un séjour dans un pays anglophone ?
Oui   Non

   Si oui, quel(s) pays ?_____

   Combien de temps ?_____ De quel âge à quel âge ? _____

5) Est-ce que votre enfant a été scolarisé dans une école anglophone ou bilingue en France   ou à l'étranger ?   Oui   Non

   Si oui, combien de temps ?_____ De quel âge à quel âge ?_____

 6) Est-ce que votre enfant participe à des cours d'anglais en dehors de l'école ou a un contact régulier avec l'anglais ?   Oui   Non

    Si oui, quel jour et combien d'heures par semaine ?_____

Concernant les cours d'anglais dans la classe de CE1c :

Votre enfant a bénéficié de 4 cours de 50 minutes d'anglais depuis la rentrée.

1) Est-ce que votre enfant vous parle de ces cours ?   Oui   Non

2) Est-ce que votre enfant semble apprécier ces cours ?   Oui   Non

3) Comment savez-vous ?_____

_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant manifeste une envie spontanée de parler, chanter, compter en anglais ?   Oui   Non

5) Si oui, quels sont les mots et/ou phrases qu'il prononce ?

_____

_____

Que pensez-vous en général de l'enseignement de l'anglais actuellement dispensé en France dans :

Les écoles maternelles_____

_____

Les écoles primaires_____

_____

Les collèges_____

_____

Autres commentaires :

_____

_____

_____

Questionnaire Class CE1c English   2nd Year Primary 2014-2015

Surname_____   Child's first name _____

Dear Parents,

With regard to the research I am conducting in your child's class concerning learning English, your responses to the following questions will be very welcome. Please complete the following questionnaire latest by Friday 10th October 2014. Thanking you in advance for your participation.

Yours sincerely, Geneffa Virjee

Your responses will remain entirely anonymous. Please circle your response:

1) Are you an English speaking family?   Yes   No

2) Do you speak any other languages at home, on a daily basis, apart from French?

   Yes   No

If yes, which ones?

_____

3) Does your child speak any other language apart from French?   Yes   No

   If yes, which ones?

_____

4) Has your child ever lived in an English speaking country?   Yes   No

   If yes, in which country?

_____

   For how long? _____ From which age and until which age? _____

5) Has your child ever attended an English or bi-lingual school in France or abroad?

   Yes   No

   If yes, for how long? _____ From which age and until which age?_____

6) Does your child attended English classes outside school or have regular contact with English?   Yes   No   If yes, which day and for how many hours per week? _____

Concerning the English classes in CE1c:

Since the start of the school year your child has had 4 lessons of 50 minutes.

1) Does your child talk about these lessons?   Yes   No

2) Does your child appear to enjoy these lessons?   Yes   No

3) How do you know?

_____
_____

4) Does your child spontaneously attempt to speak, sing, or count in English?

   Yes   No

5) If yes, which words and/or phrases does your child say?

_____
_____
_____

What is your opinion of English teaching and learning in general in France today?

In nursery school?

_____

_____

In primary school?

_____

_____

In secondary school?

_____

_____

Other comments:

_____

_____

Questionnaire Classe CE2b Anglais 2015-2016

Nom de famille_____ Prénom de votre enfant_____

Chers parents,

En raison des recherches sur l'apprentissage de la langue anglaise que je mène dans la classe de vos enfants, vos réponses aux questions suivantes seront les bienvenues. Merci de compléter le questionnaire pour au plus tard le vendredi 2 Octobre 2015. Je vous remercie d'avance pour votre collaboration.

Cordialement, Geneffa Virjee

Les réponses resteront entièrement anonymes. Merci d'entourer votre réponse :

1) Etes vous une famille anglophone ?   OUI   NON

2) Parlez-vous d'autres langues à la maison d'une manière quotidienne et régulière à part le Français ?   OUI   NON

   Si oui,   lesquelles ?_____ _____

3) Est-ce que votre enfant parle d'autres langues à part le français ?   OUI   NON

   Si oui, lesquelles ?_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant a fait un séjour dans un pays anglophone ?   OUI   NON

Quel(s) pays ?_____ Combien de temps ?_____ De quel âge à quel âge ? _____

5) Est-ce que votre enfant a été scolarisé dans une école anglophone ou bilingue en France   ou à l'étranger ?   OUI   NON   combien de temps ?_____ De quel âge à quel âge ?_____

6) Est-ce que votre enfant participe à des cours d'anglais en dehors de l'école, a un contact régulier avec l'anglais, ou joue avec des apps ou jeu d'ordinateur en anglais ?

Cours d'anglais :   OUI   NON   Quel jour et combien d'heures par semaine ?_____

Contact régulier: OUI   NON   Quel jour et combien d'heures par semaine ?_____

Apps/ jeux :   OUI   NON   Quel jour et combien d'heures par semaine ? _____

Concernant les cours d'anglais dans la classe de CE2b :

Votre enfant a bénéficié de 4 cours de 60 minutes d'anglais depuis la rentrée.

1) Est-ce que votre enfant vous parle de ces cours ?   OUI   NON

2) Est-ce que votre enfant semble apprécier ces cours ?   OUI   NON

3) Comment savez-vous ?_____ _____

_____
_____
_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant manifeste une envie spontanée de parler, chanter, compter en anglais ?

   OUI   NON

5) Si oui, quels sont les mots et/ou phrases qu'il prononce ?

_____
_____
_____

Que pensez-vous en général de l'enseignement de l'anglais actuellement dispensé en France dans :

Les écoles maternelles_____

_____

Les écoles primaires_____

_____

Les collèges_____

_____

Autres commentaires :_____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Questionnaire Class CE2b English   3rd Year Primary 2015-2016

Surname_____   Child's first name _____

Dear Parents,

With regard to the research I am conducting in your child's class concerning learning English, your responses to the following questions will be very welcome. Please complete the following questionnaire latest by Friday 2nd October 2015. Thanking you in advance for your participation.

Yours sincerely, Geneffa Virjee

Your responses will remain entirely anonymous. Please circle your response:

1) Are you an English speaking family?   YES   NO

2) Do you speak any other languages at home, on a daily basis, apart from French?

   YES   NO

If yes, which ones? _____

3) Does your child speak any other language apart from French?   YES   NO

   If yes, which ones? _____

4) Has your child ever lived in an English speaking country?   YES   NO

    If yes, in which country? _____

    For how long? _____From which age and until which age? _____

5) Has your child ever attended an English or bi-lingual school in France or abroad?

    YES   NO   For how long? _____ From which age and until which age? ____

6) Does your child attended English classes outside school, have regular contact with English, or use apps/computer games in English?

English classes: YES   NO   Which day and for how many hours per week? _____   Regular contact: YES   NO   Which day and for how many hours per week? _____   Apps/ games: YES   NO
Which day and for how many hours per week? _____

Concerning the English classes in CE2b:

 Since the start of the school year your child has had 4 lessons of 50 minutes.

1) Does your child talk about these lessons?   YES   NO

2) Does your child appear to enjoy these lessons?   YES   NO

3) How do you know?

_____
_____

4) Does your child spontaneously attempt to speak, sing, or count in English?

    YES   NO

5) If yes, which words and/or phrases does your child say?

_____
_____

What is your opinion of English teaching and learning in general in France today?

In nursery school?

_____

_____

In primary school?

_____

_____

In secondary school?

_____

_____

Other
comments:_____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2nd Year Primary Post-Intervention Parent Questionnaire 9 Juin 2015

Merci de rendre le questionnaire pour le lundi 15 juin au plus tard.

Chers parents,

J'aimerais connaitre votre avis concernant l'apprentissage de l'anglais durant cette année scolaire 2014-2015 et votre évaluation d'un éventuel progrès que vos enfants auraient fait à cet effet. Je vous remercie pour votre précieuse collaboration tout au long de l'année.

Sur une échelle de 1-5 merci d'évaluer le suivant (1 = peu 5= beaucoup)

1) Pensez-vous que votre enfant a progressé dans les domaines suivants au niveau :

De la compréhension de l'anglais par rapport à son niveau en début d'année :

Vocabulaire…..   Phrase…..   Intonation…..   Accent/Prononciation…..

De l'expression orale de l'anglais par rapport à son niveau en début d'année :

Vocabulaire…..   Phrase…..   Intonation…..   Accent/Prononciation…..

2) Est-ce que votre enfant manifeste une envie spontanée de parler, chanter, compter en anglais ?
PARLER : Oui Non   CHANTER : Oui   Non   COMPTER : Oui   Non

3) Si oui, quels sont les mots et/ou phrases qu'il prononce ?

Les sentiments ex. Happy, sad, ready for work…_____

Les couleurs ex. Red, blue, yellow…_____

Les chiffres ex. 1, 2 …13, 14…_____

Les noms des animaux ex. Sheep, camel, dog…_____

Les actions ex. Sit down, clap…_____

Phrases ex. I eat my dinner, I brush my hair…_____

_____

_____

4) **Entourez la réponse qui convient**

Est-ce que votre enfant chante en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Est-ce qu'il dit les couleurs en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Est-ce qu'il compte en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Est-ce qu'il dit les noms des animaux en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Est-ce que votre enfant dit des phrases en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Si votre enfant dit des phrases en anglais merci de préciser si les phrases semblent justes :

Toujours   Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

5) Concernant les cours d'anglais dans la classe de CE1c :

Votre enfant a bénéficié de 33 cours de 50 minutes d'anglais depuis la rentrée.

1) Est-ce que votre enfant vous parle de ces cours ?   Oui   Non

2) Est-ce que votre enfant semble apprécier ces cours ?   Oui   Non

3) Comment savez-vous ?_____

_____

_____

Questionnaire: 9th June 2015

Please return the questionnaire by Monday 15th June

Dear Parents,

I would like to have your opinion on the English language learning which took place over this academic year 2014-2015 and your evaluation concerning the amount of progress your child has possibly made as a result. Many thanks for your kind help during this academic year.

On a scale of 1-5 please evaluate the following (1= very little 5= a lot)

1) During this year, do you think that your child has made progress in the following areas?

English language <u>comprehension</u> skills compared to his competence at the start of the year:

Vocabulary…   Phrases…   Intonation…   Accent/Pronunciation…

English language <u>speaking skills</u> compared to his competence at the start of the year:

Vocabulary…   Phrases…   Intonation…   Accent/Pronunciation…

2) Does your child spontaneously attempt to speak, sing, or count in English?

   SPEAK: Yes   No   SING: Yes   No   COUNT: Yes   No

3) If yes, which words and/or phrases does your child say?

Feelings e.g. Happy, sad, ready for work…_____

Colours e.g. Red, blue, yellow…_____

Numbers e.g. 1, 2 …13, 14…_____

Animal names e.g. Sheep, camel, dog…_____

Actions e.g. Sit down, clap…_____

Phrases   e.g.   I   eat   my   dinner,   I   brush   my hair…_____

_____
_____

4) **Circle your response:**

Does your child sing in English?

Often   Sometimes   Never

Does your child say the colours in English?

Often   Sometimes   Never

Does your child count in English?

Often   Sometimes   Never

Does he say words in English relating to animal names?

Often   Sometimes   Never

Does your child say phrases in English?

Often   Sometimes   Never

If your child does say phrases in English please specify if they seem grammatically correct:

Always   Often   Sometimes   Never

5) Concerning the English classes in CE1c:

Since the start of the school year your child has had 33 lessons of 50 minutes.

1) Does your child talk about these lessons?   Yes   No

2) Does your child appear to enjoy these lessons?   Yes   No

3) How do you know?

_____

_____

_____

<u>3rd Year Primary Post-Intervention Questionnaire : 9 Juin 2016</u>

Merci de rendre le questionnaire pour le lundi 13 juin au plus tard.

Chers parents,

J'aimerais connaitre votre avis concernant l'apprentissage de l'anglais durant cette année scolaire 2015-2016 et votre évaluation d'un éventuel progrès que vos enfants auraient fait à cet effet. Je vous remercie pour votre précieuse collaboration tout au long de l'année.

Sur une échelle de 1-5 merci d'évaluer le suivant (1 = peu 5= beaucoup)

1) Pensez-vous que votre enfant a progressé dans les domaines suivants au niveau :

De la <u>compréhension</u> de l'anglais par rapport à son niveau en début d'année :

Vocabulaire…..   Phrase…..   Intonation…..   Accent/Prononciation…..

De l'<u>expression orale</u> de l'anglais par rapport à son niveau en début d'année :

Vocabulaire…..   Phrase…..   Intonation…..   Accent/Prononciation…..

2) Est-ce que votre enfant manifeste une envie spontanée de parler, chanter, compter en anglais ?
PARLER : Oui   Non   CHANTER : Oui   Non   COMPTER : Oui   Non

3) Si oui, quels sont les mots et/ou phrases qu'il prononce ?

Les sentiments ex. Happy, sad, ready for work…_____

Les couleurs ex. Red, blue, yellow…_____

Les chiffres ex. 1, 2 …14… 20…_____

Les noms des animaux, aliments, boissons ex. Horse, fishfinger, milk…_____

_____

Les actions ex. Sit down, clap…_____

Phrases ex. I like my teacher, I go to school…_____
_____

Merci de retournez la feuille

4) **Entourez la réponse qui convient**

Est-ce que votre enfant chante en anglais ?   Est-ce qu'il dit les couleurs en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais   Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Est-ce qu'il compte en anglais ?   Est-ce qu'il dit les noms des animaux en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais   Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Est-ce que votre enfant dit des phrases en anglais ?

Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

Si votre enfant dit des phrases en anglais merci de préciser si les phrases semblent justes :

Toujours   Souvent   Parfois   Jamais

5) **Concernant les cours d'anglais dans la classe de CE2B :**

Votre enfant a bénéficié de 32 cours de 50 minutes d'anglais depuis Septembre 2015 :

1) Est-ce que votre enfant vous parle de ces cours ?   Oui   Non

2) Est-ce que votre enfant semble apprécier ces cours ?   Oui   Non

3) Comment savez vous ?_____

_____

6) **Merci de me faire part de vos impressions personnelles concernant :**

Les cours ?_____ _____

_____

Les devoirs ? _____

_____

Les comptes rendus ?_____

_____

Autres impressions :

_____

Questionnaire: 9th June 2016

Please return the questionnaire by Monday 13th June

Dear Parents,

I would like to have your opinion on the English language learning which took place over this academic year 2014-2015 and your evaluation concerning the amount of progress your child has possibly made as a result. Many thanks for your kind help during this academic year.

On a scale of 1-5 please evaluate the following (1= very little 5= a lot)

1) During this year, do you think that your child has made progress in the following areas?

English language <u>comprehension</u> skills compared to his competence at the start of the year:

Vocabulary…   Phrases…   Intonation…   Accent/Pronunciation…

English language <u>speaking skills</u> compared to his competence at the start of the year:

Vocabulary…   Phrases…   Intonation…   Accent/Pronunciation…

2) Does your child spontaneously attempt to speak, sing, or count in English?

  SPEAK: Yes   No   SING: Yes   No   COUNT: Yes   No

3) If yes, which words and/or phrases does your child say?

Feelings e.g. happy, sad, ready for work…_____

Colours e.g. red, blue, yellow…_____

Numbers e.g. 1, 2 …14… 20_____

Names of animals, food, drink, e.g. horse, fish fingers, milk_____
_____

Actions e.g. sit down, clap…_____

Phrases e.g. I like my teacher, I go to school…_____
_____

4) **Circle your response:**

Does your child sing in English?   Does your child say the colours in English?

Often   Sometimes   Never   Often   Sometimes   Never

Does your child count in English?   Does he say animal names in English?

Often   Sometimes   Never   Often   Sometimes   Never

Does your child say phrases in English?
Often   Sometimes   Never

If your child does say phrases in English please specify if they seem grammatically correct:

Always   Often   Sometimes   Never

5) **Concerning the English classes in CE1c:**

 Since the start of the school year your child has had 33 lessons of 50 minutes.

1) Does your child talk about these lessons?   Yes   No

2) Does your child appear to enjoy these lessons?   Yes   No

3) How do you know? _____
_____

6) **What are your personal impressions concerning:**

The lessons? _____
_____

The homework? _____

_____

The half-term reports? _____

_____

Other comments _____

NOTE:

This questionnaire is slightly modified compared to second year study 2014-2015 : added question 6; in question 3, the examples of the words and phrases have been changed to cater for CSG progress.

Appendix 6

Pre-intervention Class Interview

Students Name	Numbers 0 - 10	Colours	Name Farm Animals	Other words or phrases

This chart indicates what the children think of their own knowledge i.e. what they think they know:

✓ YES   ✗ NO   ? Not sure

Actions Oral Comprehension TEST

FRENCH for Class Teacher

First Year Primary: CPA 2013 – 2014

16th January 2014

Group **1**	Name :	Name :	Name :	Name :
Sit down **Assieds-toi**				
Stand up **Leve-toi**				
Hands behind your back **Mains derrière le dos**				
Be quiet **Tais-toi**				
Clap **Tape les mains**				
Turn around **Tourne-toi**				
Run **Cours**				
Write your name **Ecris ton nom**				
Walk **Marche**				
Go to sleep **Endors-toi**				
Climb **Grimpe**				
Hide **Cache-toi**				
See **Vois**				

Hear **Entends**				

1st Year Primary   Class Teacher Questionnaire   February 2014

1) Comment décririez-vous l'approche et la méthode d'apprentissage de l'anglais de l'an dernier (année scolaire 2012-2013)? *How would you describe the English language teaching and learning approach and methods used last year (2012-2013)?*

_____
_____
_____
_____

2) Comment décririez-vous l'approche et la méthode d'apprentissage de l'anglais de cette année scolaire (2013-2014) ? *How would you describe the English language teaching and learning approach and methods used so far this year (2013-2014)?*

_____
_____
_____
_____

3) A quel point pensez-vous que les élèves ont progressé en compétence de **compréhension** et **expression orale** en anglais cette année par rapport à cette même période l'année dernière? *To what extent do you feel that the children as a class have progressed in their English language **comprehension** and **oral** ability compared to the same moment in time last year?*

Indiquez votre réponse sur une échelle de 0-5 (0 étant moins que l'an dernier, 1 étant égale à l'an dernier et 2 à 5 plus que l'an dernier) *: Circle your response on a scale of 0–5, with 0 being less than last year, 1 being the same as last year and 2 to 5 being more than last year:*

Compréhension: 0   1   2   3   4   5

Oral: 0   1   2   3   4   5

4) A votre avis, sur les 22 enfants dans la classe, combien semblent avoir une bonne compréhension du vocabulaire utilisé pendant le cours d'anglais (comprennent presque tout) ? Merci de donner un chiffre et un commentaire: *In your opinion how many children seem to have developed good comprehension of the vocabulary used during the English lessons (understand almost everything)? Please give a figure and comment:*

Chiffre *(figure)* _____

Commentaire   *(comment)*

_____

_____

5) A votre avis sur les 22 enfants dans la classe combien semblent avoir une faible compréhension du vocabulaire utilisé pendant le cours d'anglais (ne comprennent pas beaucoup)? Merci de donner un chiffre et un commentaire: *In your opinion how many children seem to have not developed good comprehension of the vocabulary used during the English lessons (understand little)? Please give a figure and comment:*

Chiffre *(figure)* _____

Commentaire   *(comment)*

_____

_____

6) Selon votre expérience professionnelle pensez-vous qu'il y ait une corrélation entre la réussite scolaire en général et la réussite dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais? Entourez votre réponse: *In your professional opinion do you think that there is a correlation between those children who do well in general in school work and those who seem to do well in English? Circle your response:*

OUI   NON   PEUT-ETRE   *YES   NO   PERHAPS*

7) En regardant le livre d'anglais que les élèves sont en train de préparer cette année, à ce stade, combien de mots en moyenne pensez-vous que les élèves **ont appris à dire** (peuvent s'en souvenir et dire spontanément). Merci d'évaluer par page. Pensez à compter chaque mot une seule fois: *Looking through the "English Book" the students have been preparing in class this year, at this stage, approximately how many words of vocabulary do you think the students have **learned to say** on average? (Can remember spontaneously and say). Make an evaluation per page. Words re-occur so remember to not count the same word twice.*

Page 1: Page de couverture. *cover page* _____

Pages 2, 3, 4: Les couleurs. *colours* _____

Page 5: Chanson couleurs. *colours song* _____

Pages 6, 7: Chanson chiffres et activité. *Numbers song and activity* _____

Page 8: Chanson joyeux anniversaire. *Happy Birthday song* _____

Page 9: Chanson grand méchant loup. *Big Bad Wolf song* _____

Pages 10, 11, 12, 13: Chanson de la ferme. *Let's take a walk around the farm song* _____

Pages 14, 15: Teste de compréhension animaux. *Animal comprehension test* _____

Page 17: Livre de Noël. *Christmas Book* _____

Pages 18, 19: Chanson Postman Pat. *Postman Pat song* _____

Pages 20, 21 22: Activité vêtement Postman Pat. Postman *Pat's clothes activity* _____

Pages 23, 24, 25: Histoire Le plus Beau Géant en Ville. *Smartest Giant in Town story* _____

Page 26, 27: Les 14 actions. *14 actions*.

D'autres mots other words: Hello, my name is…, goodbye, see you next week, holiday, thank you, game, good morning… _____

Nombre total de mots en moyenne: Total number of words on average: _____

8) Concernant des règles de grammaire, pensez-vous qu'il y ait des élèves qui ont intégré les règles suivantes; merci entourez votre réponse et donner un chiffre approximatif (En voie d'acquisition=EVA). *Concerning grammar, do you think that some of the students have acquired the following rules; circle your response; give names if you can:*

Pluriel avec "s" Plural with "s"

OUI ___   EVA___   NON___   *YES PARTIALLY NO*

L'article "A" The article "A"

OUI ___   EVA___   NON___   *YES PARTIALLY NO*

And Conjunction "and"

OUI ___   EVA___   NON___   *YES PARTIALLY NO*

L'adjectif de couleur

OUI ___   EVA___   NON___   *YES PARTIALLY NO*

 (L'adjectif de couleur placé devant le nom)

The colour adjective (The colour adjective placed before the noun e.g. red van)

9) Pensez-vous qu'Il y ait des élèves qui sont maintenant capable d'inventer des phrases en anglais avec les mots qu'ils connaissent? Donnez un chiffre sur les 22 élèves dans la classe: *Do you think that some of the children are now able to invent simple phrases with the words that they know? Give a figure out of 22 students in the class:*

OUI_____   *YES _____*

PEUT-ETRE_____   *PERHAPS_____*

NON _____   *NO _____*

10) Approximativement sur les 22 élèves dans la classe combien pensez-vous sont capable de comprendre et de répondre aux questions suivantes? *Approximately how many children, out of 22 in the class, do you think, are capable of understanding and replying to the following questions in English?*

What is your name?_____   How old are you?_____

Comment t'appelles tu?   Quel age as tu?

What is this?_____   Who is this?_____

Qu'est-ce que c'est?   Qui c'est?

What colour is this? _____   *How many…?* _____

Quelle couleur c'est?   Combien?

Did you sleep well? _____   *…where are you?* _____

As-tu bien dormi?   … où es-tu?

How are you today? _____
Comment vas-tu aujourd'hui?

Vos commentaires sont les bienvenus. *Any other comments are welcome.*

_____
_____
_____
_____
Merci beaucoup! ***Many thanks!***

Questionnaire (English version) for Nursery and Primary School Teachers

English as a Foreign Language

Please complete for Friday 23ʳᵈ May 2014. Many thanks. All your replies will remain anonymous

Please indicate the following:

Class teacher's name_____ Class: MAT CP CE1 CE2 CM1 CM2

Average age of students_____Number of hours of English teaching per week_____

Number of students in each group or in a single group_____

Please circle your response:

1) Do you teach English to your class or is the class taught English by an independent teacher who is a parent of the school or an English foreign language (EFL) teacher?

-I teach the class English   -The class has an independent teacher: Parent   EFL teacher

2) Which materials and which teaching methods do you or the independent teacher use for English foreign language teaching?

Materials: _____

Methods:
_____

3) Are the students tested for speaking (S), comprehension (C), reading (R) or writing (W)? *Please circle your response:*

Never (S) (C) (R) (W) **Very little** (S) (C) (R) (W) **Once per half-term** (S) (C) (R) (W)

Once per month (S) (C) (R) (W)   **Once per week** (S) (C) (R) (W)

4) Please indicate on a scale of 0-5 (0 = no progress; 5 = target progress reached) the general standard reached by your students in English by the end of the school year compared to the requirements indicated by the Ministry of Education? *Please briefly justify your response:*

Cycle 2 and 3 (MAT CP CE1 CE2 CM1 CM2)

Ability to communicate: 0   1   2   3   4   5   what are the reasons? _____

Oral comprehension: 0   1   2   3   4   5   what are the reasons? _____

Speaking: 0   1   2   3   4   5   what are the reasons? _____

Cycle 3 (CE2 CM1 CM2)

Reading : 0   1   2   3   4   5   what are the reasons? _____

Writing :   0   1   2   3   4   5   what are the reasons? _____

5) In your professional opinion, are there any changes that could be made in order to improve the present standard of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in your class? *Please circle your response?*

-Materials which are closer to the needs of the students?
-Different approaches?
-Different methods?
-Specific English Language teacher training for primary school teachers?
-A greater number of independent English foreign language qualified primary school teachers?
-Other_____

6) In your professional opinion, what is currently the greatest difficulty **teachers** experience in English language teaching and the greatest difficulty **students** experience in English language learning in primary school?

Teachers: _____

Students:
_____

7) Approximately, on average, how many words of vocabulary do your students currently possess in their mother tongue (**French**)? _____

8) Approximately, on average, how many words of vocabulary do your students currently possess in **English**? _____

With my sincere thanks for your time and participation!   Geneffa Virjee

Student Questionnaire CPa 26th June 2014

1) Sais-tu chanter en anglais? *Can you sing in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
2) Sais-tu poser des questions en anglais? *Can you ask questions in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
3) Sais-tu répondre à des questions en anglais? *Can you reply questions in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
4) Sais-tu comprendre des histoires en anglais? *Can you understand stories in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
5) Sais-tu raconter des histoires en anglais? *Can you tell stories in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
6) Connais-tu beaucoup de mots en anglais? *Do you know many words in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
7) Sais-tu compter jusqu'à 10 en anglais? *Can you count to ten in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
8) Sais-tu compter jusqu'à 20 en anglais? *Can you count to twenty in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO
9) Sais-tu le nom de 10 vêtements en anglais? *Do you know the name of ten clothing items in English?*	YES	A LITTLE	NO

10) Quelle activité a été ta préférée ? Colorie en bleu ton activité préférée ; tu peux colorier jusqu'à 3 choix en bleu :

Which was your favourite activity? Colour your favourite in blue; you can have up to 3 favourites.

Chanter   **Raconter des histoires**   **Ecouter des histoires**

Faire des activités   **Ecrire des mots**   **Faire des jeux**

Test Instrument - Appendix 11

Final End of Year Outcome Assessment of eleven Intervention
(experimental) Group (including CSG) and eleven Control Group students

ITEM ONE: Speaking (student responds to the following questions)

<u>18 QUESTIONS</u>

1) What is your name?

2) How old are you?

3) What colour is this? (red green yellow grey)

4) How many pens (show box of 12)

5) What is the weather like today? (Look towards the window)

6) Did you sleep well?

7) How are you today?

8) What do you like to eat?

9) What do you like to drink?

10) What don't you like to eat? (shake head)

11) What don't you like to drink? (shake head)

12) What do you do in the morning?

13) What do you do in the afternoon,

14) What do you do at lunchtime?

15) What do you do in the evening?

16) What do you do at the weekend?

17) What do you have in your pencil case?

18) What number is this? (5, 11, 17, 20)

ITEM 2: Actions Comprehension (the student performs the actions, spoken by the examiner)

-stand up (su)

-clap (c)

-write your name (wyn)

-turn around (ta)

-go to sleep (gts)

-see (s)

-sit down (sd)

ITEM 3: Speaking (the imperative). Invitation to ask examiner to do 3 ACTIONS

ITEM 4: Speaking (asking questions). Invitation to ask examiner 3 QUESTIONS

ITEM 5: Speaking (description of monster picture. Appendix 12)

ITEM 6: Speaking (description: of pictures on two portable magnetic boards, magnetic boards 1 and 2)

ITEM 7: Speaking (storytelling: using magnetic images on a big whiteboard on the wall of the room)

Grid for recording numbers (recognition) and actions (comprehension) during the test

Name : _____

Numbers :

Actions :

su	c	wyn	ta

gts	s	sd

Appendix 11A

<u>Outcome Assessment: CRITERIA for attributing points</u>

This enabled calculating the total number of correct intervention and control group responses, for **items number 1-4**

<u>Item 1 (18 points)</u>

- questions 1-18 were open questions leading to a variety of correct responses; these were considered correct if they directly related to the topic of the question e.g. question 1: "what is your name?" Response: "Jim";
- one word answers were considered correct (phrases were not required) in view of test anxiety and the different levels of grammar skills students were still developing e.g. question 10: "What do you like to eat?" Response: "Vegetables"; slight allowances were made for small confusions (e.g. questions 8-9, confusion between food/drink items).
- Question 18 involved identifying four different numbers (5, 11, 17, 20): the control group students seem to have learned numbers 1 -12 given the general teaching approach, whereas the intervention class students learned numbers 1-20. Consequently, a point was attributed to students who were able to identify at least two out of the four numbers. It appears that no specification is given for the A1 CEFR level or from the French Ministry of Education for 7-9 year olds concerning numbers to be learned.

<u>Item 2 (1 point)</u>

- This consisted of a comprehension skills test of seven different actions (stand-up, clap, write your name, turn around, go to sleep, see, sit-down) said by the examiner and performed by the student.
- -These are all actions students would be performing systematically as part of regular classroom practice (except for "go to sleep"; this, however, is often used in French to get students to settle down). To be attributed the point, students needed to perform at least three actions out of seven correctly.

<u>Item 3 (1 point)</u>

- To be attributed one point, students were required to say at least two actions, of their choice, for the examiner to perform.

<u>Item 4 (1 point)</u>

- To be attributed the point, students were required to ask the examiner at least one question, of their choice.

Total = 21 points

Evaluation 2

Name: ....

1 Give your monster a name.

My monster's name is ....

2 Colour the clothes. Colour the face.

3 Talk about your monster.

Units 5–8 (T123)
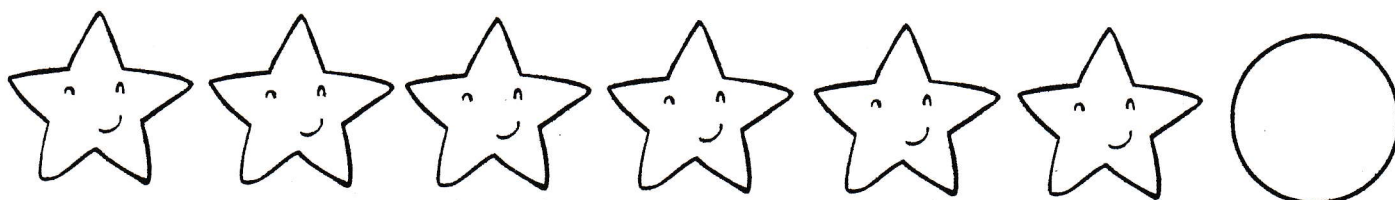
Appendix 13

Transcription Key

KEY

CT: Class Teacher

+   Also; at the same time; simultaneously

…   Unfinished phrase or sentence

- - -   Placed between words to indicate words said slowly and spaced out

///   Practically undistinguishable or inaudible talk

/// (   )   Practically undistinguishable or inaudible talk but possibly what was said

(   )   Initials inside brackets at the end of a phrase indicate child who spoke e.g. (MP)

         When no brackets or initials: not possible to distinguish which child is speaking

M----   A particular student's name: capital letter followed by jiggered line according to the number of letters in the name

😊   Laughter.

<u>Year Two Primary</u>

Transcription extract of pre-intervention monitoring. Lesson 1 September 9th 2014

Baseline Testing	Student utterances in English
EFL-T prepares testing activity (counting; colours). Students start talking; she moves BEPM to stop him talking. Generally, students stop talking now. EFL-T gives tick-off charts to CT. PG volunteers to start. **EFL-T** asks her to stand up and count 0-10.	**Student:** One, two, three, four, five, six, seven… nine, ten (PG).
EFL-T asks who wants to say the colours; TE volunteers. EFL-T calls her to the front and explains that she should pick up a coloured cushion from the basket, say the colour and put it on the table next to the basket. All students listen quietly to TE. EFL-T asks the class to clap for TE, who was able to say them all.	**Student:** Yellow, purple, white, orange, blue, green, pink, red, grey, brown, black (TE).
The next test is counting. SH volunteers and **EFL-T** asks him to stand up. All the students are very attentive.	**Student:** One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, *end*, nine, ten (SH).
EFL-T returns to colours testing. PG volunteers and stands up. EFL-T asks PG to come forward, pick up cushions individually, say the colour, and put it into the basket. EFL teacher reassures PG as she was only able to say one.	**Student:** Blue… (PG)
Testing returns to counting. IEM volunteers. **EFL-T** asks IEM to stand up. **EFL-T** praises her good effort.	**Student:** One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten (IEM).

CT: Class Teacher   Students in green.

Date : _____

Materials	Planned Language	Teacher Talk	Group Responses	Individual Responses

Comments

Questionnaire Classe Mat 5 Anglais

24 Octobre 2012

Nom de famille_____   Prénom de votre enfant_____

Chers parents,

En raison des recherches sur l'apprentissage de la langue anglaise que je mène dans la classe de vos enfants, vos réponses aux questions suivantes seront les bienvenues. Merci de compléter le questionnaire pour le 12 novembre 2012. Vous pouvez laisser le questionnaire dans le lutin de votre enfant une fois complété. Je vous remercie d'avance pour votre collaboration.

Cordialement, Geneffa Virjee

Les réponses resteront entièrement anonymes.

Merci d'entourer votre réponse :

1) Etes vous une famille anglophone ?   Oui   Non

2) Parlez-vous d'autres langues à la maison d'une manière quotidienne et régulière à part le Français ?   Oui   Non

Si oui,   lesquelles ?_____

3) Est-ce que votre enfant parle d'autres langues à part le français Oui Non

Si oui, lesquelles ?_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant a fait un séjour dans un pays anglophone ?   Oui Non

    Si oui, quel pays ?_____

    Combien de temps ?_____Dates si possible_____

Trouvez vous que votre enfant a bénéficié au niveau de l'apprentissage de la langue anglaise grâce à ce séjour ?   Oui   Non

Pourquoi ?_____

_____

5) Est-ce que votre enfant a été scolarisé dans une école anglophone ou bilingue en France ou à l'étranger ?   Oui   Non

6) Si oui, combien de temps ?_____ Dates si possible_____

7) Trouvez vous que votre enfant a bénéficié au niveau de l'apprentissage de la langue anglaise grâce à cette scolarisation?   Oui   Non

Pourquoi ?_____
_____

Concernant les cours d'anglais dans la classe Mat 5 :

Votre enfant a bénéficié de 4 cours de 45 minutes d'anglais depuis la rentrée.

1) Est-ce que votre enfant vous parle de ces cours ?   Oui   Non

2) Est-ce que votre enfant semble apprécier ces cours ?   Oui   Non

3) Comment savez vous ?_____
_____
_____
_____

4) Est-ce que votre enfant manifeste une envie spontanée de parler, chanter, compter en anglais ?   Oui   Non

5) Si oui, quels sont les mots qu'il prononce ?_____
_____
_____
_____

 6) Que pensez vous en général de l'enseignement de l'anglais actuellement dispensé en France dans :

Les écoles maternelles_____

Les écoles primaires_____

Les collèges_____

Autres commentaires :

_____
_____
_____

Questionnaire Class Mat 5 English

24th October 2012

Surname_____Child's first name_____

Dear Parents,

With regard to the research I am conducting in your child's class, your response to the following questions will be very welcome. Please complete the following questionnaire for the 12th November 2012. You can leave the completed form in your child's file. Thanking you in advance for your participation.

Yours sincerely, Geneffa Virjee

Your responses will remain entirely anonymous.

Please circle your response:

1) Are you an English speaking family?   Yes   No

2) Do you speak any other languages at home, on a daily basis, apart from French?

    Yes   No

If yes, which ones? _____

3) Does your child speak any other language apart from French? Yes   No

If yes, which ones? _____

4) Has your child ever lived in an English speaking country? Yes   No

    If yes, in which country? _____

    For how long? _____Dates if possible_____

    Do you think that your child benefited from learning English as a result of this stay? Yes   No

Why?_____
_____

5) Has your child ever attended an English or bi-lingual institution in France or abroad?

    Yes   No

6) If yes, for how long? _____Dates if possible_____

7) Do you feel your child benefited from learning English as a result of attending this institution? Yes   No

Why?_____
_____

Concerning the English classes this year in Mat 5:

Since the start of the school year your child has benefitted from 4 lessons of 45 minutes.

1) Does your child talk about these lessons? Yes   No

2) Does your child appear to enjoy these lessons? Yes   No

3) How do you know?

_____

_____
_____
_____

4) Does your child spontaneously attempt to speak, sing, or count in English?

    Yes   No

5) If yes, which words does your child say?

_____

_____
_____
_____

 6) What is your opinion of English teaching and learning in general in France today?

In nursery school? _____
_____

In primary school?

_____

_____

In secondary school? _____
_____

Other comments: _____
_____

461

(Pilot Project Data Analysis)

1) **E:** English language (spoken by EFL teacher)

2) **M:** Meaning (in French spoken by EFL teacher; also possibly including some English words to explain meaning)

3) **W:** Manual work

4) **AM:** Actions Movement (employed for songs or games)

5) **Q:** Questions (asked in French by students)

6) **REG:** Responses English Group (student group responses in English, replying a question)

   REG?/// : REG followed by ?/// Indicates possibly English, but not sure

7) **REI** **REI:** Responses English Individual (student individual responses in English, replying a Question; this code is also linked to meaning)

   REI?/// : REI followed by ?/// Indicates possibly English, but not sure

8) **RFG:** Responses French Group (student group responses in French, replying a question)

   RFG?/// : RFG followed by ?/// Indicates possibly French, but not sure

9) **RFI:** Responses French Individual (student individual responses in French, replying a question)

   RFI?/// : RFI followed by ?/// Indicates possibly French, but not sure

10) **F:** French language (mother tongue spoken by EFL teacher)

11a) **Ie:** Instructions in English (spoken by EFL teacher)

11b) **If:** Instructions in French (spoken by EFL teacher)

12) **X:** Explanations grammar and structure (spoken by EFL teacher in French and English e.g. correction of student oral language)

13) **O:** Other (CT talking; assistant talking; EFL teacher talking with CT or assistant)

14) **STEI-R:** Student Talk English Individual Repetition (individual repeating in English)

15) **STEI-S:** Student Talk English Individual Spontaneous (individual spontaneous English)

16) **STEG-R:** Student Talk English Group Repetition (group repeating in English)

17) **STEG-S:** Student Talk English Group Spontaneous (group spontaneous English)

18) **StfI:** Student talk French Individual (spontaneous individual talk in French)

19) **StfG:** Student talk French Group (chatter or spontaneous group talk in French)

20) **EGI:** Explicit Grammar Instruction in English or French (EFL teacher, teaching explicitly a grammar rule)

21) **FS:** Feedback to students by EFL teacher. Remark in Eng or French concerning

- Behaviour (good or bad)
- Responses (correct or incorrect e.g. "very good", "c'est bien", "bravo")
- Language use, pragmatics, e.g. "in the morning we say good morning", but not structure or grammar (come under X or EGI above)

22) **MI-R:** Mixing Individual Repetition (individual student mixing Eng and French: repetition)

23) **MI-S:** Mixing Individual Spontaneous (student mixing Eng and French spontaneous or creative language)

24) **MG-R:** Mixing Group Repetition (students mixing Eng and French: repetition)

25) **MG-S:** Mixing Group Spontaneous (students mixing Eng and French spontaneous or creative language)

26a) **Inter S:** Interruption by students from other classes

26b) **Inter T:** Interruption by teachers from other classes

26c) **Inter CS:** Interruption by students from the class (late arrivals etc.)

27) **dn:** disturbance (e.g. noise from the street etc.)

28) **CALM:** Calm in the classroom (only slight noise of students' movements at their table; no chatter or interaction; a few noises barely audible)

29) **EFM**: Mixing English and French mother tongue by EFL teacher

30) **CTEFM**: Class Teacher Mixing English and French mother tongue

31) **StfG-(singing):** Students singing as a group in the background quietly in French

   StfG?-(singing): question mark indicates that it seems to be French but not sure

32) **StEG-(singing):** Students singing as a group in the background quietly in English

   StEG?-(singing): question mark indicates that it seems to be English but not sure

33) **StfI-(singing):** Student singing individually in the background quietly in French

   StfI?-(singing): question mark indicates that it seems to be French but not sure

34) **StEI-(singing):** Student singing individually in the background quietly in English

   StEI?-(singing): question mark indicates that it seems to be English but not sure

35) **StfG-singing:** Students singing as a group in French

36) **StEG-singing:** Students singing as a group in English

37) **StfI-singing:** Student singing individually in French

38) **StEI-singing:** Student singing individually in English

CODING for GRAMMAR: spontaneous use in student's speech

Colour coded blue as for spontaneous speech above

1) ADJ adjective

2) NN noun

3) VB verb

4) A article

5) P pronoun

6) PRE preposition

7) CD cardinal number

8) Q question form (question asked in English by student)

KEY

CT: Class Teacher

+   also; at the same time; simultaneously

…   unfinished phrase or sentence

- - -   placed between words to indicate words said slowly and spaced out

///   practically undistinguishable or inaudible talk

/// ( )   practically undistinguishable or inaudible talk but possibly what was said

( )   initials inside brackets at the end of a phrase of child who spoke e.g. (MP)

> When no brackets or initials: not possible to distinguish which child is speaking

M----   a particular student's name: capital letter followed by jiggered line according to the number of letters in the name

METHODOLOGY:

Saldana, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers.* Singapore: SAGE Publications Asia-Pacific Pte Ltd.

Coding and sub-coding: page 12   Splitter lumper coding: page 23

Colour coding for pilot project transcriptions data analysis

E English   GREEN

Ie instructions in English   GREEN

M Meaning   ORANGE

RFI individual student response to meaning ORANGE

RFG group responses to meaning ORANGE

STEI-S student talk is spontaneous BLUE

REI student response to a question is spontaneous, not copied BLUE

REI   students spontaneous reponse to a question is linked to meaning ORANGE

REG students group response to a question but may be copying each other PINK

STEG-R students repeating language in a group PINK

STEI-R students repeating language individually PINK

STEG-S students group spontaneous language but may be copying each other   PINK

EFM: Mixing English and French mother tongue by EFL teacher YELLOW

CTEFM: Class Teacher Mixing English and French   YELLOW

CODING for GRAMMAR: spontaneous use in student's speech. Colour coded blue

1) ADJ adjective

2) NN noun

3) VB verb

4) A article

5) P pronoun

6) PRE preposition

7) CD cardinal number

8) Q question form

(1st year longitudinal study Video Data Analysis)

1) **E**: English language (spoken by EFL teacher), including questions e.g. 'How are you today?'

2) **M:** Meaning explained in words (spoken by EFL teacher) in French or English.

2a) **Mg**: Meaning explained (by EFL teacher) through gestures of facial expression.

3) **W:** Manual work.

4) **AM:** Actions Movement (employed for songs or games).

5) **Q:** Questions (asked in French by students).

6) **REG REG:** Responses English Group (student group responses in English, replying a question. Students may be copying each other). This code also linked to meaning (even if students are copying each other, at least one student has understood the meaning).

6a) **REG? ///**: REG followed by ?/// Indicates possibly English, but not sure.

7) **REI REI:** Responses English Individual (student individual responses in English, replying a question). This code is also linked to meaning.

   REI? ///: REI followed by ?/// Indicates possibly English, but not sure.

8) **RFG:** Responses French Group (student group responses in French, replying a question).

   RFG? ///: RFG followed by ?/// Indicates possibly French, but not sure.

9) **RFI RFI:** Responses French Individual (student individual responses in French, replying a question). This code is also linked to meaning.

   RFI? ///: RFI followed by ?/// Indicates possibly French, but not sure.

10) **F:** French language mother tongue (spoken by EFL teacher).

11) **IE:** Instructions in English (spoken by EFL teacher).

11a) **IF**: Instructions in French (spoken by EFL teacher).

12) **X:** Explanations of grammar and structure (spoken by EFL teacher in French and English) e.g. correction of student oral language.

13) **O:** Other (CT talking; assistant talking; EFL teacher talking with CT or assistant).

14) **STEI-R:** Student Talk English Individual Repetition (individual repeating in English).

15) **STEI-S** **STEI-S:** Student Talk English Individual Spontaneous (individual spontaneous English). This code is also linked to meaning.

16) **STEG-R:** Student Talk English Group Repetition (group repeating in English).

17) **STEG-S** **STEG-S:** Student Talk English Group Spontaneous (group spontaneous English). This code is also linked to meaning (even if students are copying each other, at least one student has understood the meaning).

18) **StfI** **StfI:** Student talk French Individual (spontaneous individual talk in French). This code is also linked to meaning.

19) **StfG:** Student talk French Group (chatter or spontaneous group talk in French).

20) **EGI:** Explicit Grammar Instruction in English or French (EFL teacher, teaching explicitly a grammar rule).

21) **FS:** Feedback to students by EFL teacher. Remark in Eng or French concerning

- Behaviour (good or bad)
- Responses (correct or incorrect e.g. "very good", "c'est bien", "bravo")
- Language use, pragmatics, e.g. "in the morning we say good morning", but not structure or grammar (come under X or EGI above)

22) **MI-R:** Mixing Individual Repetition (individual student mixing Eng and French: repetition)

23) **MI-S** **MI-S:** Mixing Individual Spontaneous (student mixing Eng and French spontaneous or creative language). This code is also linked to meaning.

24) **MG-R:** Mixing Group Repetition (students mixing Eng and French: repetition)

25) **MG-S:** Mixing Group Spontaneous (students mixing Eng and French spontaneous or creative language)

26a) **Inter S:** Interruption by students from other classes

26b) **Inter T:** Interruption by teachers from other classes

26c) **Inter CS:** Interruption by students from the class (late arrivals etc.)

27) **dn:** disturbance (e.g. noise from the street etc.)

28) **CALM:** Calm in the classroom (only slight noise of students' movements at their table; no chatter or interaction; a few noises barely audible).

29) **EFM**: Mixing English and French mother tongue by EFL teacher.

30) **CTEFM:** Class Teacher Mixing English and French mother tongue.

31) **StfG-(sh):** Students singing or humming as a group in the background quietly in French.

   StfG?-(sh): question mark indicates that it seems to be French but not sure.

32) **StEG-(sh):** Students singing or humming as a group in the background quietly in English.

   StEG?-(sh): question mark indicates that it seems to be English but not sure.

33) **StfI-(singing):** Student singing or humming individually in the background quietly in French.

   StfI?-(sh): question mark indicates that it seems to be French but not sure.

34) **StEI-(sh):** Student singing or humming individually in the background quietly in English.

StEI?-(sh): question mark indicates that it seems to be English but not sure.

35) **StfG(singing):** Students singing as a group in French.

36) **StEG(singing):** Students singing as a group in English.

37) **StfI(singing):** Student singing individually in French.

38) **StEI(singing):** Student singing individually in English.

CODING for GRAMMAR: spontaneous use in student's speech

Colour coded blue as for spontaneous speech above:

1) ADJ adjective

2) NN noun

3) VB verb

4) A article

5) P pronoun

6) PRE preposition

7) CD cardinal number

8) Q question form (question asked in English by student)

KEY

CT: Class Teacher

+   Also; at the same time; simultaneously

…   Unfinished phrase or sentence

- - -   Placed between words to indicate words said slowly and spaced out

///   Practically undistinguishable or inaudible talk

/// (   )   Practically undistinguishable or inaudible talk but possibly what was said

( )   Initials inside brackets at the end of a phrase indicate child who spoke e.g. (MP)

           When no brackets or initials: not possible to distinguish which child is speaking

M----   A particular student's name: capital letter followed by jiggered line according to the number of letters in the name

☺   Laughter.

METHODOLOGY:

Saldana, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers.* Singapore: SAGE Publications Asia-Pacific Pte Ltd.

Coding and sub-coding: page 12

Splitter lumper coding: page 23

Final List of Codes - Appendix 19

Pilot:

Development and trialling of coding system for first and second year primary: 38 codes and 8 structure codes.

1st Year Primary: QUANTITATIVE Content Analysis

38 codes and 8 structure codes refined down to 7 principle categories-themes/codes and 15 sub-codes

1) RESPONSES to questions

REI: responses in English, to questions, from individual students

REG: responses in English, to questions, from groups of students

2) SPONTANEOUS LANGUAGE

STEI-S: spontaneous language from individual students

STEG-S: spontaneous language from groups of students

3) ONE WORD UTTERANCES

WR-I: one word utterances from individual students

WR-G: one word utterances from groups of students

4) FORMULAIC SPEECH

FS-I: Formulaic speech produced by individual students

FS-G: Formulaic speech produced by groups of students

5) COMPLEX GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES

CGS-I: complex grammatical structures produced by individual students

CGS-G: complex grammatical structures produced by groups of students

6) STUDENT CODE-SWITCHING

SCS-I: code-switching from individual students

SCS-G: code-switching from groups of students

7)MEANING

Meaning-Teacher (meaning made explicit by the EFL teacher)
Meaning-Student-I (meaning made explicit by an individual student)
Meaning-Student-G (meaning made explicit by a group of students)

2nd Year Primary: QUALITATIVE Content Analysis

38 codes refined down to 5 principal categories/codes and 2 sub-codes

1) Metacognitive teaching

2) Metalinguistic teaching including meaning

3) Students naturally repeat (English) language

4)Students raise hands

5) Correcting (English) Language

- Students auto-correct English language

- Students correct peers' English language

Criteria for Quantitative Inter-rater Coding Reliability

Coding criteria for codes REI, STEI-S, WR-I, and CGS

Code	Criteria for coding
REI	- Individual responses in English prompted by a question asked in English. The answer must be correct, or comprehensibly correct (i.e. the English language must be comprehensible, and the reply to the question should make sense, even if the English is not quite correct). The question can be asked by the teacher or by another student.
	Example: Question: "What colour is this?" Response: "Red!"
	- Keep a time gap of 30 seconds between 2 same student responses (as students could be copying each other), with a minimum of 10-18 seconds gap depending on the amount of interference between the 2 same responses.
	- However, if a student repeats his own language, this is to be counted normally i.e. without leaving any time gap.
	- Exclude counting as a rehearsal exercise (i.e. practicing), singing, and repeating activities.

STEI-S

- Individual student <u>spontaneous language</u>. I.e. all other English language which is not REI.

The utterance in English must be correct, or comprehensibly correct (i.e. the English language must be comprehensible, and the reply to the question should make sense, even if the English is not quite correct).

- The utterance <u>can be</u> a response in English to a <u>question asked in French.</u>

Example: Teacher: "...quand on ne dort pas du tout bien… qu'est qui se passe dans la nuit ?" Student: "…Nightmare!"

- Keep a time gap of 30 seconds between 2 same student responses (as students could be copying each other), with a minimum of 10-18 seconds gap depending on the amount of interference between the 2 same responses.

- However, if a student repeats his own language, this is to be counted normally i.e. without leaving any time gap.

- Exclude counting as a rehearsal exercise (i.e. practicing), singing, and repeating activities.

WR-I

- Individual student one-word responses. Every word uttered in English to be counted; <u>no time gap applied</u>.

- Only count individual student utterances composed of one word i.e. not group utterances.

- The utterance in English must be correct or comprehensibly correct. I.e. the English language must be comprehensibly correct, but it can be counted even if it is a wrong response (unlike REI).

- If a student repeats his own language, this is to be counted.

- Exclude counting as a rehearsal exercise (i.e. practicing), singing, and repeating activities.

CGS-I   - Complex Grammatical Structures: individual student phrases and sentences of 2 words or more e.g. "Sit down!" (Verbal phrase). Count every phrase; <u>no time gap applied.</u>

- Count only individual student <u>phrases and sentences</u> i.e. not group utterances.

- The utterance in English must be correct or comprehensibly correct. I.e. the English language must be comprehensibly correct, but it can be counted even if it is a wrong response (unlike REI).

- If a student repeats his own language, this is to be counted.

- Exclude counting as a rehearsal exercise (i.e. practicing), singing, and repeating activities.

Colour coding content analysis for lesson activities

First Year Study lessons 7, 8, 28 and 31

These codes link to the THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK described in chapter 3 section 3.3.

CODES

Pink Movement: EMBODIMENT (action games, sing with movement, manual work,)

Turquoise Student's own work: OWNERSHIP (decorated work, English books personalised)

Yellow EMPOWERMENT: interaction

Red MEANING: comprehension checks

Green REALIA: Concrete items

Brown NATIVE LANGUAGE (instructions, explanations, feedback)

Dark blue QUESTION-ANSWER –DESCRIBE activities (stimulating out-put)

Grey FORMULAIC SPEECH: Singing

Purple Activities generating substantial number of exchanges

Time slots (S) in orange in lessons 7 and 8 correspond to the time spans in frequency Tables 6.4 (codes REI and STEI-S) where there was the <u>most English language produced</u> (i.e. between 25-45 minutes, and between about 55-70 minutes into the lesson).

Time slots (S) in brown in Lessons 28 and 31 corresponds to the time span in frequency Tables 6.4 (codes REI and STEI-S) and 6.6 (codes CGS-I and CGS-G) where there was a dip in language production (i.e. around 60 minutes into the lesson for both Tables, and for Table 6.6, also around 30 minutes).

Lesson 7: *Activities and Student Participation*

Teaching Activity	Student activity	Individual Student Oral Participation Number of EXCHANGES (English and French)	Group Oral Participation Number of EXCHANGES (English and French)	Lesson Time Elapsed minutes seconds
EFL teacher prepares materials; class teacher addresses students	Students enter classroom after recreation and settle	0	0	(S1) 3.14
EFL teacher greetings (==realia== plate faces). ==Question answer game== ==Checks comprehension==	Students listen Students reply-==describe==	==17==	==5==	(S2) ==6.44==
==Action Game== in English	Movement and English language comprehension	12	0	(S3) 18.56
EFL teacher distributes English ==books== individually asking the ==question== "where are you?"	Put up hand to be identified and replies teacher "here I am" looks through book	==24==	0	**(S4)** ==22.35==
EFL teacher ==instructions==: students to look in their ==book== for a numbers song.	Students turn to page			**(S5)**

Questioning using realia (wooden numerals)	Students listen	45	15	30.43
	Students reply			
Singing 0 5 10 song with CD (music, lyrics). Movement to make meaning salient	Whole class			(S6)
	Students stand up and sing with movement	0	23*	32.26
Singing 0 5 10 song without CD Movement to make meaning salient	Whole class			(S7)
	Students stand up and sing with movement	0	23*	34.01
Singing 0 5 10 song without CD With realia (wooden numbers) Movement to make meaning salient	Only 1st row of students			(S8)
	Students stand up and sing with movement	0	7*	35.31
Singing 0 5 10 song without CD With realia (wooden numbers) Movement to make meaning salient	Only 2nd row of students			(S9)
	Students stand up and sing with movement	0	9*	36.47
Singing 0 5 10 song without CD With realia (wooden numbers) Movement to make meaning salient	Only 3rd row of students			(S10)
	Students stand up and sing with movement	0	7*	37.53
EFL teacher instructions: students look for colours song in their books Singing with CD (music, lyrics). Sing with movement Point at colours. Comprehension check using colours song in book. Point at colours.	Students turn to page			(S11)
	Whole class stand up and sing with movement	0	23*	40.48
	Students listen			(S12)
	Students reply	1	0	41.39

Singing colours song without CD sing with movement Point at colours.	Whole class stand up and sing with movement	0	23*	**(S13)** **43.20**
Comprehension check using colours song in book. Point at colours.	Students listen Students reply	3	1	**(S14)** **43.59**
Questioning using realia (puppet wolf)	Students listen Students reply	15	5	**(S15)** 45.33
Preparation and playing song clip (Big Bad Wolf song and puppet-realia)	Students watch and listen	0	0	(S16) 47.21
Explanation about the song and questioning	Students listen and ask questions and reply	7	2	(S17) 49.04
Preparation and playing song clip (Big Bad Wolf song and puppet-realia) Singing	Students watch, listen and sing along	0	23*	(S18) 50.23
Explanation and questioning concerning manual work (students make realia)	Students listen Students reply	18	8	(S19) 56.10
Manual activity: colouring cutting sticking according to a model (making realia: plate faces) Instructions	Students carry out activity Listen to classic music	10	2	(S20) 74.01
Explanations concerning manual work. Clearing up and collecting students work.	Students listen and comment.	6	3	(S21) 79.57

Goodbye	Students clear up and get ready for end of class

Note. *This figure uncertain as difficult to see on the video if every child is actually singing

Lesson 8 : *Activities and Student Participation*

Teaching Activity	Student activity	Individual Student Oral Participation	Group Oral Participation	Lesson Time Elapsed
		Number of EXCHANGES	Number of EXCHANGES	minutes seconds
EFL teacher greetings. Question answer–describe game (realia: plate faces) Comprehension check	Students listen Students reply-describe	33	9	(S1) 6.34
Action Game in English	Whole class: Movement and English language comprehension	0	0	(S2) 8.15
Action Game in English	Only 1st row of students: Movement and English language comprehension	0	0	(S3) 9.23
Action Game in English	Only 2nd row of students: Movement and English language comprehension	0	0	(S4) 10.23
Action Game in English	Only 3rd row of students: Movement and English language comprehension	0	0	(S5) 11.37
Singing 0 5 10 song with CD (music, lyrics) Movement (make meaning salient)	Whole class Students stand up and sing with movement	1	23*	(S6) 15.01
Question answer game	Students listen			(S7)

Comprehension check	Students reply	4	0	15.58
Singing competition practice 0 5 10 without CD Movement (make meaning salient)	Whole class: Students stand up and sing with movement	0	23*	(S8) 17.36
Singing competition preparation Forming groups and distributing realia (wooden numbers)	Students listen. Group leaders take their numeral	4	3	(S9) 21.49
Singing competition: 0 5 10 with realia. Without CD. Feedback Movement (make meaning salient)	Group 1: 3 students stand and sing with movement	0	3	(S10) 23.25
Singing competition: 0 5 10 with realia. Without CD. Feedback. Movement (make meaning salient)	Group 2: 4 students stand and sing with movement	0	4	**(S11)** **25.53**
Singing competition: 0 5 10 with realia. Without CD. Feedback. Movement (make meaning salient)	Group 3: 3 students stand and sing with movement	0	3	**(S12)** **27.36**
Singing competition: 0 5 10 with realia. Without CD. Feedback. Movement (make meaning salient)	Group 4: 4 students stand and sing with movement	0	4	**(S13)** **29.50**
Singing competition: 0 5 10 with realia. Without CD. Feedback.	Group 5: 4 students stand and sing with movement	0	3	**(S14)** **32.47**

Movement (make meaning salient)				
Singing competition: 0 5 10 with realia. Without CD. Feedback.	Group 6: 3 students stand and sing with movement	0	3	(S15) 34.07
Movement (make meaning salient)				
Feedback from Class Teacher (CT) Question answer-describe game Comprehension check	Students listen Students reply-describe	3	5	(S16) 39.06
Individual students sing Big Bad wolf song. Feedback.	9 students sing	9	0	(S17) 39.22
Big Bad wolf song Realia (puppet) Singing	Whole class: Students sing	0	23*	(S18) 40.01
Big Bad wolf song Realia (puppet) Singing	Individual students sing by themselves	15	0	(S19) 43.08
Question answer-describe game using realia (Plate faces) Comprehension check	Students listen Students reply-describe	4	8	(S20) 45.11
Manual activity: colouring song sheet Big Bad Wolf. Instructions. Question answer game Comprehension check	Students listen Students reply Prepare materials	4	10	(S21) 50.00
Manual activity while listening to classic music	Students carry out activity	1	3	(S22) 60.05

Teaching Activity	Student activity	Individual students		Time Elapsed
Question answer game (realia:coloured song sheet) Comprehension check	Individual students describe their song sheet colouring to the class	29	3	**(S23)** 65.51
Clearing up and collecting students work. Question answer game. Comprehension check. Goodbye	Students put away materials Students listen Students reply	16	9	**(S24)** 70.59

Note: *This figure uncertain as difficult to see on the video if every child is actually singing

Lesson 28 : *Activities and Student Participation*

Teaching Activity	Student activity	Individual Student Oral Participation	Group Oral Participation	Lesson Time Elapsed
		Number of EXCHANGES	Number of EXCHANGES	minutes seconds
EFL teacher greetings.	Students listen			(S1)
Question answer-describe game using realia made by students (plate faces) Comprehension check	Students reply-describe	61	14	7.46
Question answer game using pictures students coloured (holiday). Comprehension check	Students listen Students reply-describe	27	9	(S2) 15.50
Question answer-describe game using story and pictures (Easter) students will decorate. Comprehension check	Students listen Students reply-describe	6	8	(S3) 17.58

485

EFL teacher gives instructions concerning manual activity (Easter) CT also gives instructions	Students listen Prepare materials	0	1	(S4) 20.26
EFL teacher distributes English books individually asking question: "where are you?"	Put up hand and replies teacher "here I am" looks through book	21	0	(S5) 23.10
Manual activity (Easter) listening to classic music. EFL teacher gives further instructions.	Students carry out activity	5	8	(S6) 30.23
Question answer game using realia (animal figures) Comprehension check	Students listen. Students reply-describe. Some finishing manual work	42	8	(S7) 38.05
Happy birthday song in English book: singing Instructions for manual activity Question answer game (birthday)	Students sing Students listen Students reply	26	4	(S8) 45.58
Manual activity (birthday): colouring cutting sticking listening to happy birthday music.	Students carry out activity	4	4	(S9) 61.30
Question answer game using students' coloured pictures (birthday) Comprehension check	Students individually describe their coloured picture in their book Students finishing work	52	0	(S10) 70.53
Distribution of coloured paper for English books. EFL teacher asks, "who would like to distribute?"	Students attempt to reply "please can I distribute?" Other students finishing work	8	0	(S11) 73.26

Teaching Activity	Student activity	Individual Student Oral Participation	Group Oral Participation	Lesson Time Elapsed
Question answer game using students' coloured pictures (birthday) Comprehension check	Students come individually to the front of the class to describe their coloured picture in their book Some finishing work	32	0	(S12) 79.38
Clearing up and collecting students work. Goodbye CT takes over	Students put away materials. Sit quietly Wait for CT instructions	3	2	(S13) 81.53

Lesson 31 : *Activities and Student Participation*

Teaching Activity	Student activity	Individual Student Oral Participation	Group Oral Participation	Lesson Time Elapsed
		Number of EXCHANGES	Number of EXCHANGES	minutes seconds
EFL teacher greetings.	Students listen			(S1)
Question answer-describe game using realia made by students (plate faces) Comprehension check	Students reply- describe	30	20	4.15
EFL teacher distributes English books individually asking: "where are you?" Question answer game using English books.	Put up hand and replies teacher "here I am" looks through book	44	0	(S2) 8.51
Question answer game using students-made realia (coloured cardboard clothes) in their English book. Comprehension check	Students prepare their realia. Describe clothes. Students listen Students reply	76	1	(S3) 21.38

EFL teacher	Students			
EFL teacher returns a picture comprehension test students did the previous week. Explanations. Feedback	Students listen Comment amongst themselves Students put away test.	1	0	(S4) 28.33
EFL teacher reads extracts of story related to the picture in the story comprehension test	Students listen	0	1	(S5) 33.49
EFL teacher invites students to describe pictures used for the story comprehension test. Feedback.	Students individually describe the pictures Students listen	80	0	(S6) 55.00
Manual activity: adding written labels to holiday pictures in English book: cut out, place correctly, and stick. EFL teacher instructions. Question-answer game	Students listen-describe Carry out manual activity Comment amongst themselves. Put materials away when finished.	6	0	(S7) 62.30
EFL teacher reads a new story	Students listen			(S8)
Question –answer-describe game linked to realia (food items) relating to story	Students comment-describe	63	21	77.38
Song: big bad wolf singing	Students sing			(S9)
Question-answer-describe game linked to realia (food items) relating to story	Students listen Students reply	13	10	79.33
				(S10)
End of lesson. Goodbye CT takes over	Students sit quietly Wait for CT instructions	0	1	81.01

Acronyms

CEFR: Common European framework of reference

CSG: Case Study Group

CT: class teacher

EFL: English foreign language

EFL-T: English foreign language teacher

ELLP : English language learning programme

ESL: English second language

FL: foreign language

FLA: first language acquisition

FLLP: foreign language learning programme

FME: French Ministry of Education

FS: formulaic speech

MCS: metacognitive skills

MLS: metalinguistic skills

SEN: special educational needs

SES: socio-economic status

SLA: second language acquisition

YL: young learner

References

Ahmed Virjee, G. (2011). *To what extent can the use of authentic illustrated English storybooks for 9 year old French learners of English as a Foreign Language in a primary school in France, be a means for increasing oral recall of lexical items and chunks of language in English?* Paper presented at the MA in TEYL seminar, York, United Kingdom.

Ambridge, B., & Lieven, E. V. M. (2011). *Child language acquisition.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Anderson, R. (2011). Brain, mind, and organisation of knowledge for effective recall and application. *Learning Landscapes,* 5 (1), 45-61.

Ashworth, M., & Wakefield, H. P. (2004). *Teaching the world's children ESL for age's three to seven.* Ontario, Canada: Pippin Publishing Corporation.

Atkinson, R.C., & Shiffrin, R.M. (1968). Human memory : a proposed system and its control processes. *Psychology of learning and motivation,* 2, 89-195.

Atkinson, R.C., & Shiffrin, R.M. (1971). The control of short-term memory. *Scientific American,* 225(2), 82-91.

Ausubel, D.P. (1960). The use of advance organizers in the learning and retention of meaningful verbal material. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 51(5), 267-272.

Ausubel, D.P. (1980). Schemata, cognitive structure, and advanced organizers: A Reply to Anderson, Spiro, and Anderson. *American Educational Research Journal*, 17 (3), 400-404.

Bara, F., Gentaz, E., Colé, P., & Sprenger-Charolles, L. (2004). The visuo-haptic and haptic exploration of letters increases the kindergarten-

children's understanding of the alphabetic principle. *Cognitive Development*, 19, 433-449.

Barkhuizen, G. (2008). A narrative approach to exploring context in language teaching. *ELT   Journal*, *62*(3), 231–239.

Barsalou, L. W. (2008). Grounded cognition. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 59, 617-645.

Bassano, D. (2000). Early development of nouns and verbs in French: exploring the interface between lexicon and grammar. *Journal of Child Language,* 27(3), 521-559.

Bassano, D., Eme, P. E., & Champeaud, C. (2005). A naturalistic study of early lexical development: General processes and inter-individual variations in French children. *First Language*, 25(1), 67-101.

Bassano, D., Maillochon,I., Korecky-Kröll, K., Van Dijk, M., Laaha, S., Dressler, W. U., & Van Geert, P. (2011). A comparative and dynamic approach to the development of determiner use in three children acquiring different languages. *First Language*, 31(3), 253-279.

Batstone, R. (2002). Contexts of engagement: A discourse perspective on "intake" and "pushed output". *System*, *30*(1), 1-14.

Bell, J. (2005) *Doing Your Research Project* (4th edition) Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Bowyer-Crane, C., Snowling, M. J., Duff, F. J., Fieldsend, E., Carroll, J. M., Miles, J., Götz, K., & Hulme, C. (2008). Improving early language and literacy skills: differential effects of an oral language versus a phonology with reading intervention. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry,* 49(4), 422-432.

Boyd, M. P., & Markarian, W.C. (2011). Dialogic teaching: talk in service of a dialogic stance. *Language and Education,* 25(6), 515-534.

Boyd, M., & Rubin, D. (2006). How contingent questionning promotes extended student talk: a function of display questions. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 38(2), 141-169.

Brewster, J., Ellis, G., & Girard, D. (2002). *The primary english teacher's guide.* Harlow, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

British Council (2015). Modal verbs. Retrieved February 5, 2015, from http://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/fr/english-grammar/verbs/modal-verbs

Brown, R. (1973). *A first language: the early stages.* Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New York: Addison Wesley Longman.

Bruner, J. (1960). *The process of education*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Bruner. J. (1975). The ontogenesis of speech acts. *The Journal of Child Language,* 2(1), 1-19.

Bruner, J. (1991). The narrative construction of reality. *Critical Inquiery,* 18(1), 1-21.

Bursztejn, C. (n.d.) Première partie. Modules transdisciplinaires. Module 3 – maturation et vulnérabilité. Objectif 32 – développement normal du langage et ses troubles. Retrieved September 4, 2019, from https://solidarites-sante.gouv.fr/IMG/pdf/08.modul_transdis_umvf.pdf

Butler, Y. G., & Le, V.N. (2018). A longitudinal investigation of parental social-economic status (SES) and young students' learning of English as a foreign language. *System,* 73, 4-15.

Butler, Y.G., Sayer, P. & Huang, B. (2018). Introduction: Social class/socioeconomic status and young learners of English as a global language. *System,* 73, 1-3.

Bygate, M. (2009). Teaching and testing speaking. In M. H. Long, and C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 412-440). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Cabrera, M. P., & Martinez, P. B. (2001). The effects of repetition, comprehension checks, and gestures, on primary school children in an EFL situation. *ELT Journal*, 55(3), 281-288.

Caine, R. N., & Caine, G. (2011). How new research on learning is re-writing how schools work and teachers teach. *Learning landscapes,* 5(1), 19-25.

Cambridge English. (2016). Principles of good practice. Retrieved October 9, 2019, from https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/Images/22695-principles-of-good-practice.pdf

Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Campus France. (2019a). Study in France. Retrieved October 8, 2019, from https://www.campusfrance.org/en

Campus France. (2019b). Finding the programme for you is easy. Retrieved October 8, 2019, from https://www.campusfrance.org/en/finding-a-university-programme-France

Chan, M. S., & Black, J. B. (2006, June). Direct-manipulation animation: Incorporating the haptic channel in the learning process to support middle school students in science learning and mental model acquisition. In *Paper presented at the international conference of the learning sciences* Bloomington, Indiana, USA.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory.* London, UK: Sage Publications Ltd.

Chomsky, N. (1959). A review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior. *Language* 35(1), 26-58.Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax.* Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Clandinin, D. J. & F. M. Connelly. (2000). *Narrative Inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Collentine, J., & Freed, B. F. (2004). Learning context and its effects on second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 26(2), 153–171.

Coolican, H.(2014). *Research Methods and statistics in psychology* (sixth edition). East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. (1990). Grounded theory research: procedures, cannons, and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative Sociology*, 13(1), 3-21.

Council of Europe. (2001). Common european framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment. Council of Europe, 1-34. Retrieved June 5, 2018, from https://rm.coe.int/168045b15e

Council of Europe. (2014). The CEFR grid for speaking. Retrieved June 12, 2018, from https://rm.coe.int/16806979df

Council of Europe. (2018a). The CEFR descriptors. Retrieved June 5, 2018, from   https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/the-cefr-descriptors

Council of Europe. (2018b). The CEFR levels. Retrieved June 5, 2018, from https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/level-descriptions

Council of Europe. (2018c). Qualitative aspects of spoken language use – table   3.   Retrieved   June   5,   2018,   from https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/table-3-cefr-3.3-common-reference-levels-qualitative-aspects-of-spoken-language-use

Council of Europe. (2018d). Language Policy Portal. Retrieved September 7, 2018, from https://www.coe.int/en/web/language-policy/home

Council of Europe. (2018e). Common European framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR). Retrieved September 17, 2018, from https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages

Council of Europe. (2018f). The CEFR descriptors. Retrieved October 8, 2018, from https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference- languages/the-cefr- descriptors (original 2001 illustrative descriptors).

Council of Europe. (2018g). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment structured overview of all CEFR scales. Retrieved October 8, 2018, from https://rm.coe.int/CoERMPublicCommonSearchServices/DisplayDCTMContent?documentId=090000168045b15e (original 2001 illustrative descriptors pages 1-34).

Council of Europe. (2018h). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors (2018) including Sign Languages. Retrieved October 8, 2018 from https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989 (New 2018 descriptors pages 1-235).

Council of Europe. (2018i). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Bank of supplementary descriptors. Retrieved October 8, 2018, from https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference- languages/bank-of-supplementary-descriptors (New 2018 Young Learner descriptors for portfolio models).

Council of Europe. (2018j). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Collated representative samples of descriptors of language competence developed for young learners. Retrieved October 8, 2018, from https://rm.coe.int/collated-representative-samples-descriptors-young-learners- volume-1-ag/16808b1688 (New 2018 Young Learner descriptors for portfolio models page 1-158 volume I for 7 - 10 year olds).

Council of Europe. (2018k). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Collated representative samples of descriptors of language competence developed for young learners. Retrieved October 8, 2018, from https://rm.coe.int/collated-representative-samples-descriptors-young-learners-volume-2-ag/16808b1689 (New 2018 Young Learner descriptors for portfolio models page 1-178 volume 2 for 11-15 year olds).

Council of Europe. (2019). Qualitative aspects of spoken language use – table 3. Retrieved September 4, 2019, from https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/table-3-cefr-3.3-common-reference-levels-qualitative-aspects-of-spoken-language-use

Council of Europe. (n.d.). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Retrieved March 3, 2015, from *Structured overview of all CEFR scales*

Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. In *review of educational research*. 49(2), 225-251.

Cunliffe, J. A. (1981). Postman Pat. Retrieved October 12, 2019, from https://www.google.com/search?client=firefox-b-d&q=John+Cunliffe

Cunliffe, J.A. (Author), Daly, B. (Lyrics and Music), Wood, I. (Producer). (2003). *Postman pat's magic christmas* (DVD). London, UK: Woodland animations Ltd.

Cunningham, A., Cunliffe, J. A. (2003). Postman Pat's Magic christmas. Retrieved October 12, 2019, from https://www.google.fr/search?tbo=p&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Anna+Cunningham%22

Daly, B. (1981). *Postman pat's theme song.* London: Entertainment Rights PLC.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (1974). *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Delahaie, M. (2009). *L'évolution du langage de l'enfant. De la difficulté au trouble. Guide ressources pour les professionnels*. Saint-Denis: Inpes: 84 p. Retrieved January 16, 2015, from http://www.inpes.sante.fr/CFESBases/catalogue/pdf/719.pdf

Donaldson, M. (1978). *Children's mind.* London, UK: Fontana.

Donaldson, J. (2003). *The smartest giant in town.* London, UK: Macmillan Children's Books.

Dulay, H. C., & Burt, M. K. (1973). Should we teach children syntax? *Language Learning,* 23(2), 245-258.

education.gouv (2012a). Note d'information. 12.11 Juin. Les compétences en langues étrangères des élèves en fin de scolarité obligatoire. Premiers résultats de l'étude européenne sur les compétences en langues 2011. Retrieved May 28, 2013, from http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid60712/les-competences-en-langues-des-eleves-en-fin-de-scolarite-obligatoire.html

education.gouv (2012b). Les données de la note d'information les compétences en langues étrangères des élèves en fin de scolarité obligatoire. Premiers résultats de l'étude européenne sur les compétences en langues 2011. Tableaux et graphiques au format Excel. Retrieved May 28, 2013, from http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid60712/les-competences-en-langues-des-eleves-en-fin-de-scolarite-obligatoire.html

education.gouv.fr. (2019a). L'école maternelle. Retrieved August 22, 2019, from http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid166/l-ecole-maternelle-organisation-programme-et-fonctionnement.html

education.gouv.fr. (2019b). L'école élémentaire. Retrieved August 22, 2019, from http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid213/l-ecole-elementaire-organisation-programme- et-fonctionnement.html

education.gouv.fr. (2019c). Les rythmes scolaires. Retrieved August 22, 2019, from http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid79816/nouveaux-rythmes-scolaires.html

education.gouv.fr. (2019d). Les langues vivantes étrangères et régionales. Retrieved August 22, 2019 from https://www.education.gouv.fr/cid206/les-langues-vivantes-etrangeres-et-regionales.html

education.gouv.fr. (2019e). Les niveaux et les établissements d'enseignement. Retrieved August 22, 2019, from https://www.education.gouv.fr/pid24/les-niveaux-et-les-etablissements-d-enseignement.html

éduscol (2011a). Enseigner les langues vivantes à l'école élémentaire. Retrieved May 14, 2013, from http://eduscol.education.fr/cid45718/les-langues-vivantes-etrangeres-ecole.html

éduscol (2011b). Qui enseigne les langues à l'école ? Retrieved May 14, 2013, from http://eduscol.education.fr/cid45714/qui-enseigne-les-langues-a-l-ecole.html

éduscol (2012a). Progression pour le cours préparatoire et le cours élémentaire première année. Retrieved May 14, 2013, from http://cache.media.eduscol.education.fr/file/Progressions_pedagogiques/79/0/Progression-pedagogique_Cycle2_Langue_vivante_203790.pdf

éduscol (2012b). Progression pour le cours élémentaire deuxième année et le cours moyen. Retrieved May 14, 2013, from http://cache.media.eduscol.education.fr/file/Progressions_pedagogiques/76/7/Progression-pedagogique_Cycle3_Langue_vivante_203767.pdf

éduscol. (2018a). Evaluation langues vivantes. Retrieved June 5, 2018, from http://cache.media.eduscol.education.fr/file/Langues_vivantes/65/9/EV16_C3_4_LV_nvo_de_maitrise_V4_748659.pdf

éduscol. (2018b). Elements pour l'appréciation du niveau de maitrise satisfaisant en fin de cycle 2. Retrieved June 5, 2018, from

http://cache.media.eduscol.education.fr/file/College_2016/33/9/RAE_ Evaluation_socle_cycle_2_643339.pdf

éduscol. (2018c). Evaluation cycles 2 langues vivantes: situation de l'évaluation de l'oral en anglais. Retrieved June 5, 2018 from http://cache.media.eduscol.education.fr/file/Oral/90/0/EV16_C2_LV_ Anglais_oral_preambule_747900.pdf

ELF Learning song and clip (n.d.). Walk around the farm. Retrieved August 2012, from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EwIOkOibTgM

ELF Learning song and clip (n.d.). Numbers song. Retrieved August 2012, from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bBPplaS4oX8&feature=relmfu

Ellis, N. C. (2009). Optimizing the input: Frequency and sampling in usage-based and form-focused learning. In M. H. Long, and C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 139-158). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Ellis, N. (2016). Salience, cognition, language complexity, and complex adaptive systems. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 38, 341-351.

Ellis, R. (1999). Theoretical perspectives on interaction and language learning. In R. Ellis (Eds), *Learning a Second Language through Interaction* (pp. 3-31). Amsterdam; Philadelphia: J. Benjamins.

Ellis, R. (1999a). Making the classroom acquisition rich. In R. Ellis (Eds), *Learning a Second Language through Interaction* (pp. 211-229). Amsterdam; Philadelphia: J. Benjamins.

Ellis, R. (2004). The definition and measurement of L2 explicit knowledge. *Language Learning, 54(2),* 227–275.

Ellis, R. (2005). Principles of instructed language learning. *System,* 33, 209-224.

Ellis, R. (2010). Second language acquisition, teacher education and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching*, 43(2), 182-201.

Ellis, R., Heimbach, R., Tanaka, Y., and Yamazaki, A. (1999). Modified input and the acquisition of word meanings by children and adults. In R. Ellis (Eds.), *Learning a second language through interaction* (pp. 63-114). Amsterdam; Philadelphia: J. Benjamins.

Ellis, R., Li, S., & Zhu, Y. (2019). The effects of pre-task explicit instruction on the performance of a focused task. *System,* 80, 38-47.

Enever, J. (Ed.) (2011). *Early language learning in Europe.* British Council.

English Language Statistics. (n.d.). Retrieved October 8, 2019, from http://www.englishlanguageguide.com/facts/stats/

Enseignement catholiques actualités. (2016). Les chiffres clefs de l'enseignment catholiques. Retrieved October 8, 2019, from https://enseignement-catholique.fr/wp-content/uploads/2018/01/dossier-eca-371.pdf

France Diplomatie. (2019). The French language in figures. Retrieved October 8, 2019, from https://www.diplomatie.gouv.fr/en/french-foreign-policy/francophony-and-the-french-language/the-french-language-in-figures/

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse , communication , and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *The Modern Language Journal*, *81*(3), 285–300.

Fisher, R. (1990). What is thinking? In *Teaching Children to Think.* Cheltenham, UK: Stanley Thornes.

Fisher, R. (2005). *Teaching Children to Learn* (2nd ed.)*.* Cheltenham, UK: Nelson Thornes.

Fricke, S., Bowyer-Crane, C., Haley, A.J., Hulme, C., & Snowling, M. J. (2013). Efficacy of language intervention in the early years. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 54(3), 280-290.

Fricke, S., Burgoyne, K., Bowyer-Crane, C., Kyriacou, M., Zosimidou, A., Maxwell, L., Lervag, A., Snowling, M. J., & Hulme, C. (2017). The efficiency of early language intervention in mainstream school settings: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 58(10), 1141-1151.

Frino, L., Williams, M., Nixon, C., & Tomlinson, M. (2014). *Kid's box teacher's book 2* (2nd ed.).Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Frino, L., Williams, M., Nixon, C., & Tomlinson, M. (2014a). *Kid's box teacher's book 1* (2nd ed.).Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gass, S., Mackey, A., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2005). Task-based interactions in classroom and laboratory settings. *Language Learning,* 55(4), 575-611.

Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence reframed*. New York: Basic Books.

Gee, J. P. (1994). First Language Acquisition as a Guide for Theories of Learning and Pedagogy. *Linguistics and Education*, *6*(4), 331–354.

Graham, S. (2006). A study of students' metacognitive beliefs about foreign language study and their impact on learning. *Foreign Language Annals,* 39(2), 296-309.

Graham, S. (2007). Learner strategies and self-efficacy: making the connection. *Language Learning,* 35(1), 81-93.

Graham, S., & Macaro, E. (2008). Strategy instruction in listening for lower-intermediate learners of French. *Language Learning*, 58(4), 747-783.

Graham, S., Santos, D., & Vanderplank, R. (2011). Exploring the relationship between listening development and strategy use. *Language Teaching Research*, 15(4), 435-456.

Greasley, P. (2008). *Quantitative Data analysis Using SPSS.* Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Greenstone, H. (2011). Executive functions in the classroom: Neurological implications for classroom interventions. *Learning Landscapes* 5(1), 101-114.

Gregg, K. R. (1993). Taking explanation seriously; or, let a couple of flowers bloom. *Applied Linguistics*, *14*(3), 276–294.

Gutiérrez-Clellen, V. (2012). Narrative development and disorders in bilingual children. In B. Goldstein (Ed.), *Bilingual language development and disorders in Spanish-English speakers* (2nd ed., pp. 233-250). Baltimore, MD: Brookes Publishing.

Harris, M., & McCann, P. (1994). *Assessment* Oxford, UK: Heinemann.

Hauser, M. D., Chomsky, N., Fitch, W. T. (2002). The faculty of language: what is it, who has it, and how did it evolve? *Science,* 298(5598), 1569-1579.

Hoff, E. (2006). How social contexts support and shape language development. *Developmental Review*, 26(1), 55-88.

Hulstijn, J.H. (2005). Theoretical and empirical issues in the study of implicit and explicit second-language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 27. 129–140.

indexmundi France Languages. (2018). Retrieved September 17, 2018 from http://www.indexmundi.com/france/languages.html

Insee (2018). Retrieved September 17, 2018 from https://www.insee.fr/en/statistiques/2382597?sommaire=2382613

Johnson, J., & Newport, E. (1989). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology*, 21(1), 60-99.

Johnson, B., & Onwuegbuzie. (2004). Mixed methods research: a research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher,* 33(7), 14-26.

Krashen, S. D. (1976). Formal and informal linguistic environments in language acquisition and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly,* 10(20), 157-168.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (2009). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. Internet edition. Retrieved August 14, 2020, from http://www.sdkrashen.com/content/books/principles_and_practice.pdf

Kuchah, K. (2018). Early English medium instruction in francophone Cameroon: The injustice of equal opportunity. *System,* 73, 37-47.

Kuhl, P.K. (2010). Brain mechanisms in early language acquisition. *Neuron,* 67(5), 713-727.

Laakso, M., Helasvuo, M. L., & Savinainen-Makkonen, T. (2010). Children's Early Actions in Learning Language : A Study of Proto-words and Pointing Gestures in Interaction between One-year-old Child and Parent. *SKY Journal of Linguistics*, *23*, 199–226.

Lantolf, J. P., & Johnson, K. E. (2007). Extending Firth and Wagner ' s (1997) ontological perspective to L2 classroom praxis and teacher education. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*, 877–892.

Lederman, N.G. and Lederman, J.S. (2015). What is a theoretical framework? A practical answer. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*, 26(7), 593-597. Retrieved September 8, 2018, from https://doi.org/10.1007/s10972-015-9443-2

Lee, L. (1965). *Cider with Rosie.* London, UK: The Hogarth Press.

Lenneberg, E. H. (1967). *Biological Foundations of Language*. New York: Wiley.

Lewandowsky, A., Oberauer, K., & Brown, G. D. A. (2009). No temporal decay in verbal short-term memory. *Trends in Cognitive Science,* 13(3), 120-126.

Lichtman, K. (2016). Age and learning environment: are children implicit second language learners? *Journal of Child Language*, 43(3), 707-730.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1999). Instruction, first language influence, and developmental readiness in second language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 1-22.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned*. (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned*. (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Long, M. H. (1996), The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie, & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego: Academic Press.

Long, M. (2005). Problems with supposed counter-evidence to the Critical Period Hypothesis. *IRAL*, 43(4), 287-317.

Long, M. H. (2009). Methodological principles for language teaching. In M. H. Long, and C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 373-394). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Lucas, T. (2011). Preface. In T. Lucas (Eds.), *Teacher preparation for linguistically diverse classrooms: A resource for teacher educators* (pp. xiii-xviii). Abingdon; New York: Routledge.

Lucas, T. (2011a). Language, schooling, and the preparation of teachers for linguistic diversity. In T. Lucas (Eds.), *Teacher preparation for linguistically diverse classrooms: A resource for teacher educators* (pp. 3-17). Abingdon; New York: Routledge.

Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2011).A framework for preparing linguistically responsive teachers. In T. Lucas (Eds.), *Teacher preparation for linguistically diverse classrooms: A resource for teacher educators* (pp.55-72). Abingdon; New York: Routledge.

Macaro, E. (2006). Strategies for language learning and for language use: revising the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal,* 90(3), 320-337.

Macaro, E. (2007). Language learner strategies: adhering to a theoretical framework. *Language Learning Journal,* 35(2), 239-243.

Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction, and second language development: an empirical study of question formation in ESL. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 21(4), 557-587.

Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22(4), 471-497.

Mackey, A., & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language development: recasts, responses, and red herrings? The Modern Language journal, 82(3), 338-356.

Mackey, A., & Silver, R. E. (2005). Interactional tasks and English L2 learning by immigrant children in Singapore. *System,* 33, 239-260.

McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the impact of negative feedback and learners' responses on ESL question development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(1), 79-103.

Mitchell, R. F. (2009). Current trends in classroom research. In M. H. Long, and C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 373-394). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Myles, F., Hooper, J., & Mitchell, R. (1998). Rote or rule? Exploring the role of formulaic language in classroom foreign language learning. *Language Learning*, 48(3), 323-364.

Myles, F., Mitchell, R., & Hooper, J. (1999). Interrogative chunks in French L2. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 21(1), 49-60.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: methodology and design.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Maillart, C., & Parisse, C. (2008). Dislocations as a developmental marker in French language A preliminary study. *Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics*, 22(4-5), 255-258.

Martyniuk, W., & Noijons, J. (2007). *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the development of language policies: challenges and responsibilities*. Language Policy Division.

Maybin, J., Mercer, N., & Stierer, B. (1992). "Scaffolding" Learning in the Classroom. *in* K. Norman (Ed.), *Thinking Voices* (pp. 186 – 195). London: Hodder & Stoughton.

McCullagh, S. (1972). *The little old woman.* Glasgow, UK: Collins Educational.

Montessori Centre International. (2000). *TEAL module 4.* London: Montessori Centre International.

Murphy, V. A. (2018). Commentary : socio-economic status, young language learning, and the weapon to change the world. *Elsevier System*, 73, 89-93.

Muffin Songs (n.d.). Twinkle twinkle little star. Retrieved August 2012, from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c4OMzOqUBj0&feature=related

Nassaji, H. (2007). Elicitation and reformulation and their relationship with learner repair in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning,* 57, 511-548.

Nassaji, H. (2016a). Anniversary article interactional feedback in second language teaching and learning: A synthesis and analysis of current research. *Language Teaching Research,* 20(4), 535-562.

Nassaji, H. (2016b). Research timeline: Form-focused instruction and second language acquisition. *Language Teaching Research,* 49(1), 35-62.

Nikolov, M. (Ed.). (2009). *Studies on Language Acquisition: The Age Factor and Early Language Learning.* Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Nixon, C., & Tomlinson, M. (2014a). *Kid's box pupils' book 1* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Nixon, C., & Tomlinson, M. (2014b). *Kid's box pupils' book 2* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Nixon, C., & Tomlinson, M. (2017). *Kid's box activity book 2* (updated 2nd ed.)*.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

O'Grady, W. (2015). Processing determinism. *Language Learning,* 65(1), 6-32.

O'Grady, W., Kim, K., & Kim, C.E. (2018). The role of salience in linguistic development: a contrarian view. In S. Gass, P. Spinner, & J. Behne (Eds*.), Salience in Second Language Acquisition* (pp.64-86). New York: Routledge.

Oliver, R. (1998). Negotiation of meaning in child interactions. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(3), 372-386.

Oliver, R. (2002). Negotiation of meaning in child interactions. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(1), 97-111.

Oliver, R., & Mackey, A. (2003). Interactional context and feedback in child ESL classrooms. *The Modern Language journal*, 87(4), 519-533.

Oller, D. K., Pearson, B., & Cobo-Lewis, A. (2007). Profile effects in early bilingual language and literacy. *Applied Psycholinguistics,* 28(2), 191-230.

Olguin, R., & Tomasello, M. (1993). Twenty-five-month-old children do not have a grammatical category of verb. *Cognitive Development,* 8(3), 245-272.

Paradis, J. (2011). Individual differences in child English second language acquisition: comparing child-internal and child external factors. *Linguistic Approaches to Bilingualism,* 1(3), 213-237.

Paradis, J., & Kirova, A. (2014). English second-language learners in preschool: profile effects in their English abilities and the role of home language environment. *International Journal of Behavioral Development,* 38(4), 342-349.

Pearsall, J. (Ed.) (1999). *The concise Oxford dictionary* (10th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Piaget, J. (1966). *The origins of intelligence in children* (second edition). New York: International University Press.

Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, D., & Linnell, J. (1996). Language learners' interaction: How does it address the input, output, and feedback needs of L2 learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*(1), 59–84.

Pienemann, M. (1984). Psychological constraints on the teachability of languages. *Studies in Second language Acquisition,* 6(2), 186-214.

Pienemann, M. (1989). Is language teachable? Psycholinguistic experiments and hypotheses. *Applied Linguistics*, 10(1), 52-79.

Pinker, S. (1995). *The language instinct*. London, UK: Penguin.

Poirier, A. (2013). Franglais row: is the English language conquering France? Retrieved September 17, 2018, from https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/magazine-22607506

Primlangues. (2018a). Propositions de progression du cp au cm2 en anglais. Retrieved September 6, 2018 from http://www.primlangues.education.fr/activite/propositions-de-progression-du-cp-au-cm2-en-anglais

Primlangues. (2018b). Textes officiels. Retrieved September 6, 2018, from primlangues.education.fr/ references/ textes-officiels

Qureshi, M. A. (2016). A meta-analysis: Age and second language grammar acquisition. *System,* 60, 147-160.

Richards, J., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rixon, S. (1992). English and other languages for younger children: practice and theory in a rapidly changing world. *Language Teaching*, 25(2), 73-93.

Rosenberg, M. (1997). What is NLP? In *The Teacher Trainer* 11 (1), 20.

Saldana, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Singapore: SAGE Publications Asia-Pacific Pte Ltd.

Sanjurjo, J.F., Blanco, J. M. A., & Fernandez-Costales. (2018). Assessing the influence of socio-economic status on students' performance in content and language integrated learning. *System,* 73, 16-26.

Sawyer, R. K. (2011).The Need for a Deeper Exploration and Conceptual Understanding: The Critical Role of Creativity and Collaboration in Real-World Learning. *Learning Landscapes* 5(1), 27-35.

Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed). *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp.3-32). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Seidlhofer, B. (2005). English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal,* 59(4), 339-341.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10, 201-231.

Selinker, L. & Naiditch, F. (2017). Using the discourse domain hypothesis of interlanguage to teach scientific concepts: Report on a case study in secondary education. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 55(4), 413-454.

Service-Publique.fr. (2019). A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2, à quoi correspondent ces niveaux de langue? Retrieved August 22, 2019, from https://www.service-public.fr/particuliers/vosdroits/F34739

Singleton, D. (2005). The Critical Period Hypothesis: A coat of many colours. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *43*(4), 269–285.

Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implimentation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguisics,* 17(1), 38-62.

Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal behaviour.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts

Smith, L., & Gasser, M. (2005). The development of embodied cognition: six lessons from babies. *Artificial Life,* 11(1-2), 13-29.

Strange, D. (2001). *Chatterbox Pupil's Book 1*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Strange, D. (2009a). *Chatterbox Activity Book 1*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Strange, D. (2009b). *Chatterbox Pupil's Book 2*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Steinberg, D., & Sciarini, N. V. (2006). *An Introduction to Psycholinguistics* (2nd ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson.

Steinberg, D. (1993). *An Introduction to Psycholinguistics.* Harlow, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

Tarone, E. (2007). Sociolinguistic approaches to second language acquisition research 1997-2007. *The Modern Languages Journal*, 91(5), 837-848.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tomasello, M., Akhtar, N., Dodson, K, & Rekau, L. (1997). Differential productivity in young children's use of nouns and verbs. *Journal of Child Language*, 24(2), 373-387.

Tomasello, M., & Olguin, R. (1993). Twenty-three-month-old children have a grammatical category of noun. *Cognitive Development*, 8(4), 451-464.

Tough, J. (1991). Young children learning languages. In C. Brumfit, J. Moon, and R. Tongue (Eds.) *Teaching English to children from practice to principle* (pp. 213-227). London, UK: Longman.

Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral grammar correction. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La revue canadienne des langues vivantes,* 55(4), 1-13.

Valdés, G. & Castellón, M.(2011). English language learners in American schools. In T. Lucas (Eds.), *Teacher preparation for linguistically diverse classrooms: A resource for teacher educators* (pp. 18-34). Abingdon; New York: Routledge.

Van der Velde, M. (2004). L'acquisition des articles définis en L1. Etude comparative entre le français et le néerlandais. *AILE, 21*, p.9-44.Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in Society.* London, UK: Harvard University Press.

Villegas, A. M., & Lucas, M. (2002). Preparing culturally responsive teachers : rethinking the curriculum. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(1), 20-32.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press. Added 26.8.2020

Wells, G. (1986). *The Meaning Makers.* London, UK: Hodder and Stoughton.

Williams, M., & Burden, R.L. (1997). *Psychology for Language Teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wirth, H. (2008). *I love English school. Primaire: Level 2. Activity book.* Boulogne-sur-Mer: Editions Bayard.

Wood, D. (1988). Images of childhood and their reflection in teaching. In *How Children Think and Learn: The Social Contexts of Cognitive Development* (pp. 14-36). Oxford: Blackwell.

Yule, G. (2010). *The Study of Language* (4th ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Zacharias, Z. C., Loizou, E., and Papaevripidou, M. (2012). Is physicality an important aspect of learning through science experimentation among kindergarten students? *Early Childhood Research Quarterly,* 27, 447–457.

Zull, E. J. (2011). *From brain to mind.Using neuroscience to guide change in education.* Sterling: Stylus Publishing.