ENGLISH in ACTION

A Qualitative Observation Study of Primary and Secondary Lessons Conducted by Teachers Participating in English in Action

Medium-scale qualitative study 2b Practice

Report 2: Cross-case analysis

RESEARCH REPORT

ENGLISH in ACTION

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A Qualitative Observation Study of Primary and Secondary Lessons Conducted by Teachers Participating in English in Action, (Study 2b Practice), Report 2: Cross-case Analysis.

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For more information about English in Action, visit: http://www.eiabd.com/eia/

Executive Summary - 2b Practice

The 2b Practice reports bring together evidence from a qualitative observation study of English language teaching (ELT) aspects in a sample of EIA lessons. The lessons analysed for this study were conducted by teachers who were participating in the pilot phase of the EIA intervention and had undergone English in Action (EIA) training for nine months. The purpose of the observations was to build on the first quantitative observation study of classrooms (Study 2a, see EIA 2011a), which established that a change had occurred in classrooms by showing the extent of the ELT aspects being used. As a qualitative study, the focus of the 2b Practice study was on *how* teachers were implementing approaches they had been learning through the EIA project. Note, the study's sample size means that the findings reported here cannot be taken as representative of all teachers participating in EIA.

Prior to the EIA intervention, most teaching 'did not encourage a communicative approach to learning English' (EIA 2009a, p. 7). Teachers dominated the lessons, doing almost all of the talking. In two-thirds of lessons observed, the majority of language spoken was Bangla, opportunities for students to participate were low, and very few students spoke in English during a lesson. In most classes students were 'not interactive at all' (EIA 2009a, p. 8).

The findings of this study (2b Practice) include evidence of some important changes emerging across a sizeable number of classrooms. The areas in which there has been the greatest degree of change are those where teachers remain very much in control (lesson structure, teacher-led activities and use of EIA materials). Nonetheless, there is evidence of more student-focused activities; some, notably pair and group work, are strongly represented. These relatively 'safe' strategies may be a stepping stone to other communicative practices for many teachers.

The EIA programme appears to be helping some teachers to give the learning of individual students a more prominent place. Instances of monitoring, checking understanding, dealing with errors and feedback all show a concern for student learning which reveals the underlying understanding that effective teaching is not simply a matter of transmitting the right information, but depends on interaction between student and teacher. It will certainly be important to support the development of this aspect of teachers' repertoire as the project develops.

At present, much interaction is at the level of teachers relating to whole classes, or to individuals within the class. However, in several episodes there is a progression to group and pair activities, both of which increase participation and give each student much greater experience of speaking English.

The motivating qualities of EIA resources are increasing participation. Students are listening attentively to spoken audio, and the levels of physical and vocal participation show that songs and rhymes are a popular feature. Teachers are using the resources in ways that promote meaningful use of language by

providing both context and ways into interactive activities. Songs are one way in which EIA-endorsed practices have become embedded in classroom routines, and the use of English in regular and predictable lesson structures shows English employed with communicative purpose. Teachers are not allowing what could be seen as 'ready-made' audio lessons to take control away from them.

Some elements of EIA are already widespread in use and are firmly embedded in the practice of many teachers, while others are being adopted more warily and selectively. This is to be expected. There can, however, be no doubt that EIA is making a difference to the teaching and learning in these classrooms.

Executive Summary - 2b Practice Report 2 : Cross-case analysis

a) Introduction and methodology

The 2b Practice reports bring together evidence from a qualitative observation study of English language teaching (ELT) aspects in a sample of EIA lessons. The lessons analysed for this study were conducted by teachers who were participating in the pilot phase of the EIA intervention and had undergone English in Action (EIA) training for nine months. As a qualitative study, the focus of the 2b Practice study was on how teachers were implementing approaches they had been learning through the EIA project.

The second 2b Practice report (Report 2 – Cross-case analysis) considers various aspects of ELT promoted by EIA and the way teachers and students used and participated in these in a sample of observed lessons. The cross-case analysis is a general attempt to gauge the extent of the ELT aspects relative to each other. The report provides a general picture of the progress of teachers in implementing the EIA approach.

A sample of 46 lessons (28 Primary and 18 Secondary) was analysed, focusing on those which provided the most detail on classroom behaviour. Given this sampling, the lessons analysed cannot be taken as representative of all EIA teachers; therefore, any data on frequency of practices should be treated with caution.

The teacher and the students' actions and interactions (recorded in the classroom observation notes) were analysed in relation to largely predetermined categories (nodes) to understand the nature of the pedagogy in a particular lesson.

A cross-case analysis of the sampled lessons was undertaken to obtain a general view of the ELT strategies observed and recorded. The analysis consisted of three steps: 1) agreeing the codes (based on ELT aspects); 2) coding the lessons using NVIVO software; and 3) performing a secondary analysis of particular codes.

The focus of the secondary analysis was to understand the nature of the various behaviours that make up each of the ELT aspects covered by the codes, and to estimate how much of each was observed.

Note that the focus of this cross-case analysis was validity and this was maximised by relating particular types of behaviour represented by the codes of ELT. Nevertheless, the coding derivation and discussion served to maintain a level of reliability. The main threat to validity was in fact the details that were often missing from the observers' notes.

b) Findings

The cross-case analysis findings have been structured around groupings of the codes:

• using materials

• lesson structure

• teacher-led activity

• student-focused activity

• responding to learning.

Note that whenever a statement is made about the frequency of any activities, it is made clear whether it refers to the number of lessons or the total number of incidents. As indicated earlier, such statements are made with caution.

i) Using materials

EIA Primary classroom resources comprise audios, posters, flashcards and figurines for all year groups (classes), whereas EIA Secondary classroom resources comprise audios for use with the *English for Today (EfT)* textbooks for all classes. The fact that three quarters of Primary and a quarter of Secondary lessons used EIA materials reflects the balance of provision.

EIA audio material was used in two-thirds of Primary lessons, but only a quarter of Secondary lessons. EIA posters were found in half of Primary lessons.

The textbook represented the main non-EIA material used by teachers, but real objects and pictures were also used. Non-EIA materials, apart from the textbook, were used in less than a fifth of Primary lessons and only a few Secondary lessons.

Songs were the most popular audio in Primary lessons, with positive responses from students, including clapping. When dialogues or stories were played, teachers sometimes prepared students' understanding, used the pause signal to check understanding, explained the language, reinforced the language content, and ensured that a question asked on the audio is answered. In Secondary lessons the audio was used to enable choral dialogue and to provide information to students to complete a table or diagram.

Posters were used in half of Primary lessons, usually with the audio. In general teachers used posters with the whole class, asking questions such as 'What is this?' to elicit single words. Flashcards and figurines were rarely used, but where they were, again, this was usually to elicit words.

Non-EIA materials are encouraged by the EIA approach, particularly real objects. These (including common classroom objects) made up half of such materials used in Primary classrooms. In both Primary and Secondary lessons there were a few examples of teachers using cards and pictures they found or made themselves.

In many instances, EIA materials were observed to be underpinning communicative practices by setting the *EfT* language into meaningful contexts and with communicative purpose. For example, teachers frequently used a poster and audio together to reinforce students' understanding of the meaning of the

EIA stories and hence the language of the *EfT* textbook. Questioning and expository activities before listening prepare students to be active listeners, enabling them to make sense of the language as they hear it.

There seemed to be little evidence of the audio 'taking over' the class from the teacher. Most teachers seemed firmly in control of the teaching and learning processes, playing the audio when they have prepared their students to understand it, pausing it to ask questions which check understanding and extend learning, and often using it as the basis for further language use. This underscores the value of the materials as a vehicle for teachers' professional development, rather than simply as a classroom teaching aid.

ii) Features of the structure of lessons
Warm-up activity, setting the scene, ending the lesson

Three-quarters of lessons for both Primary and Secondary had incidents of a warm-up activity: in Primary lessons the introductory song (EIA audio) and greetings in English were used mostly; Secondary lessons focused on greetings in English (no EIA song is available). Greetings in English were recorded in Baseline Study 3 (EIA 2009a), whereas the songs are an addition provided by EIA. Classroom routines (e.g. register, writing up the date), which provide opportunities for purposeful, contextualised talk, were found in under half of Primary and only a quarter of Secondary lessons. Scene setting occurred in a third of Primary lessons and under half of Secondary lessons, where it was more sophisticated.

With regards to ending the lesson, around three-quarters of Primary lessons used the EIA 'goodbye' song. Many Secondary teachers used a short 'thank you and goodbye' routine. Reviewing the lesson, or linking to the next, happened rarely. In half of Secondary lessons homework was set.

These parts of the lesson are generally not vehicles for formal English teaching. However, there were instances of grammar in context, and integrating skills of literacy and oracy.

There were simple examples of authentic use of English in routine openings and endings, greetings and classroom routines (e.g. taking the register). More complex examples (mostly in Secondary) included teachers asking questions, sometimes of individuals, about homework they (should) have done and what happened in the previous lesson. Homework setting requires students to listen carefully. There was one example of real engagement with the curriculum through the medium of English.

Most interaction was at the whole-class level. There were few examples of teachers addressing individuals or of personalisation to suggest a student-centred approach. However, there was a high degree of student participation.

Teachers' efforts to bring communicative practices into the structured parts of their lessons were, for the most part, at best, incipient. But these sections of the lesson prepare students for learning by encouraging enthusiastic participation.

iii) Teacher-led activity
Teacher presenting, teacher instruction, teacher questions, body language, modelling, repetition, eliciting, choral dialogue

Baseline Study 3 (EIA 2009a) showed classrooms in which the teacher was leading and central to all teaching and learning activities. Although activities in this category come closest to traditional pedagogy, there were examples of at least the beginnings of communicative practices within the lessons analysed.

Most of the incidents of *teacher presentation* were teachers talking briefly. In Secondary examples, the communicative aim of the presentation was generally clearer. The reading examples mostly involved the teacher simply reading a passage or even a few words from the textbook. In both Primary and Secondary lessons there were examples of teachers' successfully presenting elements of language in ways that had at least some communicative aspects.

Three quarters of all lessons contained incidents of *teacher instructions* (English or Bangla). In Primary and especially Secondary, English task instructions were being used and understood, but observers often did not record students' responses.

With regards to *teacher questions*, over two-thirds of all lessons teachers used closed questions to check vocabulary, provide stimulus, and build from the textbook. 'What is this?' was a common question on posters, textbooks and audio. The incidence of open questions is very limited.

Body language is likely to have been substantially under-reported. It was observed in a quarter of all lessons, mostly for communicative purposes. Some instances were associated with EIA songs or games, others demonstrated meaning (e.g. when counting fingers; 'in' v 'on') or indicated to students what to do.

Less than a quarter of Primary lessons included *modelling*, which is mainly related to language items and structures. In Secondary lessons, teachers modelled activities (e.g. a game). A small number of teachers deployed the strategy in a communicative way.

Half of Primary lessons and a quarter of the Secondary lessons included incidents of *repetition*; in Primary this was mainly choral. Examples found included: reciting a rhyme, practising new language (e.g. vocabulary, numbers), or checking student understanding.

Eliciting involves a range of techniques through which learners produce the target language without teachers directly supplying it. This was observed in half of Primary and three-quarters of Secondary classes. *Choral dialogue* whereby a class is divided into groups, each taking a role in performing a scripted dialogue was found in only three Secondary lessons (but no Primary lessons). Each case related to an *EfT* lesson on the diary of Anne Frank, the example used in the Secondary EIA materials.

The most frequently-observed teacher-led activities were in categories where there is clear teacher control (e.g. 'teacher presenting' and 'teacher instruction'). This is sometimes evidence of a traditional approach, but not where students are expected to give a communicative response. Teachers' questions and elicitations can be the first stage of an interactive sequence, while their body language and subsequent utterances may encourage and scaffold students' contributions. Even instructions, presentation of information and the modelling of language may provide a context in which students can participate actively. Eliciting and (the admittedly rare) instances of open questioning force the initiative onto the individual student. These are signs of at least a degree of student-centredness.

There were several examples of teacher language being used for a communicative purpose in the context of action (e.g. a verb form illustrated by closing a door; a teacher asks students to give her various objects).

Although the evidence for communicative practices is not overwhelming, it is clear that there is more going on than imitation and repetition of the teacher; there are emerging signs of various elements of communicative practice. Teacher-led practices can be the first step towards greater student autonomy.

iv) Student-focused activity
Student initiative, student presentation, pair and group work, expansion, individual work

Only four incidents of *student initiative* (contributing to a lesson without prompting) were recorded (three Secondary, one Primary). *Student presentation* was slightly more common, with Primary instances being mainly the student reading their own work, and Secondary, mostly prepared dialogue.

Pair and group work are more common, and were found in over three quarters of Primary and Secondary lessons. Most cases involved the students interacting with each other, the most common form of such being choral dialogue, individual dialogue (one person from one group with one in the other group), or asking questions. Pair work was varied, with students: discussing a text or other materials; preparing for writing; drafting material or rearranging words.

Expansions to personalise or develop a task were found in just under a quarter of all lessons. Primary examples of personalisation were mainly around home and family topics. The primary examples of developing the task are by extending the reference of a language pattern (e.g. using different nouns to complete a sentence). In Secondary there were two examples of development of task (e.g. after reading about a kitchen fire to then write about a new cooker for homework) and two of personalisation (e.g. write your own biography or diary). The Secondary examples asked students to apply textbook knowledge to a different context.

Individual working was observed in less than a quarter of lessons. Writing was observed more frequently than reading. All but one of the Primary writing tasks dealt with meaning at some level (e.g. write something after reading from textbook). Secondary writing incidents were EfT exercises, or based on the EIA audio. In Secondary incidents only, teachers were observed giving some focus or questions for the reading.

Although most of these activities were instanced in only a quarter or so of lessons, there was some evidence of a significant shift in teacher outlook from the pre-EIA situation; for example teachers using English at the level of textual understanding. The application of learning in new contexts could not be achieved by repetition and rote learning: it relies on student understanding and willingness to be creative. Many of the examples of individual work depended on teachers' expectation that students would be able to transfer meaning from one medium into another.

It is not surprising that *student presentation* and *student initiative* were not strongly present, since Baseline Study 3 (EIA 2009a) showed that students had virtually no opportunity to speak in lessons. In the present study it was those interactive activities which left the teacher in control which were most commonly found. Student presentation is a relatively simple strategy for teachers to manage, and one with some potential for increasing interactivity within a lesson in a 'safe' way.

Student presentation may have been under-represented because it has received relatively little attention in the EIA training materials and face-to-face sessions. This hypothesis gets some support from the relatively strong showing of pair and group work, which features prominently in most elements of EIA and was observed in around half of all lessons. As with other categories of student-focused activity, the use of strategies which take group and pair work into the realms of meaningful language use is an encouraging sign.

v) Responding to learning
Checking understanding, monitoring, dealing with errors, giving positive feedback

Tokenistic *checking of understanding* (e.g. 'Do you understand?') was found in around a quarter of all lessons. Real checking (e.g. questions about the audio, checking pronunciation) was found in a quarter of Primary lessons. Secondary incidents (in almost a third of lessons) included a teacher asking one student to comment on another's response ('Is it true or false?') and using pairs to check each other's work (peer assessment). Real checking involves meaningful interaction between the students and the teachers. Instances of real checking were not sustained and so did not enable a teacher to gauge the understanding of the class.

A third of Primary lessons and half of Secondary lessons involved *monitoring* at the level of simple supervision; a smaller proportion of lessons involved interacting with students (e.g. through questions, facilitating, scaffolding). It was always the teacher who initiated interaction. There was one example of a teacher using monitoring in a communicative way.

There were few recorded instances of teachers *dealing with errors*. Incidents of teachers ignoring errors or offering a simple correction were found in only two Primary lessons and one Secondary. Thus, although we know that teachers think it is important to correct errors (EIA 2011d), little is being recorded which suggests under-reporting. In only one Primary lesson was an error followed by an effort on the part of the teachers to engage with, and support, a student's learning.

Positive feedback was found in around half of both Primary and Secondary lessons. This was done most obviously by the teacher confirming a correct response (e.g. 'thank you', or 'very good') or repeating the students' response.

It is not surprising that the incidence of the pedagogical strategies involved in responding to learning was low or very low, given that these make the greatest demands of teachers whose background is traditional. However, such pedagogies are beginning to emerge in both Primary and Secondary classrooms. Understanding how well students are learning is essential to a student-centred approach: an approach which takes each individual's current level of attainment as the starting point for their learning. This is achieved through planned monitoring and questions that check understanding explicitly, asked by teachers who know how to interpret unexpected answers and turn them into teaching opportunities.

Teachers' and students' attitudes to errors are fundamental to language teaching and learning. Over-attention to accuracy will always be an enemy of fluency, while tolerance of errors will encourage interaction and participation. Perhaps the most significant finding on 'responding to learning' is a negative one: that, contrary to teachers' expressed opinion that error correction is very important, the incidence of attention to students' errors is low. However, the practices are beginning to take root in some classrooms and is a hopeful sign.

c) Reflection on findings

Prior to the EIA intervention, most teaching 'did not encourage a communicative approach to learning English' (EIA 2009a, p. 7). Teachers dominated the lessons, doing almost all of the talking. In two-thirds of lessons observed the majority of language spoken was Bangla, opportunities for students to participate were low, and very few students spoke in English during a lesson. In most classes students were 'not interactive at all' (EIA 2009a, p. 8).

The findings of the cross-case analysis include evidence of some important changes emerging across a sizeable number of classrooms. The areas in which there has been the greatest degree of change are those where teachers remain very much in control (lesson structure, teacher-led activities and use of EIA materials). Nonetheless, there is evidence of more student-focused activities; some, notably pair and group work, are strongly represented. These 'safe' strategies may be a stepping stone to other communicative practices for many teachers.

The EIA programme appears to be helping some teachers to give the learning of individual students a more prominent place. The instances of monitoring, checking understanding, dealing with errors and feedback all show a concern for student learning. This reveals the underlying understanding that effective teaching is not simply a matter of transmitting the right information, but depends on interaction between student and teacher. It will certainly be important to support the development of this aspect of teachers' repertoire as the project develops.

At present a great deal of interaction is at the level of teachers relating to whole classes, or to individuals within the class. However, in several episodes there is a progression to group and pair activities, which both increase participation and give each student much greater experience of speaking English.

The motivating qualities of EIA resources are increasing participation. Students are listening attentively to spoken audio, and the levels of physical and vocal participation show that songs and rhymes are a popular feature. Teachers are using the resources in ways that promotes meaningful use of language by providing both context and ways into interactive activities. Songs are one way in which EIA-endorsed practices have become embedded in classroom routines, and the use of English in regular and predictable lesson structures shows English employed with communicative purpose. Teachers are not allowing what could be seen as 'ready-made' audio lessons to take control away from them.

Most of the lessons analysed show evidence of teachers who are able to use some aspects of ELT pedagogy, and some teachers who are able to use several aspects and do so in a purposeful way. Some elements of EIA are already widespread in use and are firmly embedded in the practice of many teachers, while others are being adopted more warily and selectively. This is to be expected. There can, however, be no doubt that EIA is making a difference to the teaching and learning in these classrooms.

A weakness of the methodology is that if an aspect of pedagogy is *not* noted, it cannot be taken as evidence that it did not appear in the lesson. This resulted in some areas (e.g. pair work) having insufficient detail.

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1. Introduction

The EIA Logframe specifies the requirements for the investigation of classroom practice via Indicator 2 (see Table 1). This indicator applies to both Output 1 (Primary intervention) and Output 3 (Secondary intervention).

Table 1: Output 1 and 3, Indicator 2 – Practice*

Indicator 2: Practice – the numbers of teachers evidencing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches in their classroom practice

Indicator	Study	Purpose	Process & Product	Timeline	Completion Date	Persons/ Contractors Responsible
Practice	Medium scale in-depth case studies	Exemplifying more thoroughly how classroom practice has changed, and teacher and pupil perspectives on this.	Video observation and teacher narrative of lessons informing semi-structured interview. Collection of pupil and teacher artefacts (e.g. photographed lesson plans, pupil work books). Collection of evidence (e.g. photographs, audio recordings, oral accounts) gathered by teachers.	January to March 2011	April 2011	To be carried out by TDCs, supported by OU research teams and local support partners.

* Information extracted from EIA (2009b).

Study 2b Practice is a sister study to Study 2a (EIA 2011a). The 2a study was the first large-scale quantitative observation study of teaching and language practices among teachers participating in the EIA Primary and Secondary programmes, carried out three months after the teachers had been introduced to EIA approaches and materials. The 2a report indicated the extent of change observed in the classroom practice of teachers participating in EIA with reference to that observed in baseline studies. However, as with any quantitative study, Study 2a provided limited insight into *how* and *why* teachers had or had not changed as a result of the EIA intervention. This qualitative observation study (2b practice) therefore provides more detailed insight into how teachers have changed as a result of EIA.

Study 2b is also a direct follow-up to EIA Baseline Study 3 – *An Observation Study of English Lessons in Primary and Secondary Schools in Bangladesh* (EIA 2009a). This examined of the types of activity in English classes in Bangladesh in 2009, on a total of 252 classroom observations (162 from Secondary classes and

90 from Primary classes). The 2b classroom observation study thus reports how the EIA project has changed English lessons (as a result of teachers having adopted its approaches) from those observed in the baseline studies.

This second report of the 2b Practice report (Report 2 – Cross-case analysis, EIA 2011b) considers various aspects of ELT promoted by EIA and the way teachers and students used and participated in these in a sample of observed lessons. The cross-case analysis is a general attempt to gauge the extent of the ELT aspects relative to each other. The report provides a general picture of the progress of teachers in implementing the EIA approach.

2. Methodology

2.1 Data collection methods

As a qualitative observation study, several tools were used in order to capture as much classroom behaviour as possible and information regarding the immediate classroom and school context. The tools used were: direct observation, video recording, photographs and diagrams, and interviews. The principal means of data collection for this study was classroom observation, recorded via hand-written notes on an observation schedule; the other data sources and methods were used to substantiate these notes or add context. The cross-case analysis (the topic of this report) used the observation schedules only; the case study analysis (see Report 3, EIA 2011b) drew on the photographs and diagrams as well as the observation schedules.

2.1.1 Observation

All observers recorded the lessons using an observation schedule on which they made hand-written notes about the classroom activity and talk. Observers were asked to note down exactly what was being said, including any gestures (pointing, etc.) if these were part of the communication observed. They were asked to also record what the teacher and students were doing, including as much of the dialogue as possible in their notes. The observers were asked to record whether the dialogue was in English or Bangla (using English to record anything that happened in English). If the class worked in pairs or groups, the observer was asked to watch the nearest group and try to note down their activity and talk. The observer was also asked to time activities undertaken in the class (start and finish times were recorded). They was also asked to note any EIA or non-EIA materials which were used in the lesson, as well as anything written on the board (see observers' guidance in Appendix 1). When making observations, the observers were asked to record their own thoughts/comments on the teacher or the student activity in the 'comments' column.

Overall, the observers were instructed to try to capture the general flow of the lesson such as : how the teacher structured activities by noting the tasks being presented and explained, what tasks the students did and how, and whether teachers and students reviewed the completed work.

2.1.2 Video recording

The observers were asked to make a video recording of the lesson with a small and relatively unobtrusive Flip video camera. The video recording functioned primarily as a backup for the observers to check the observations recorded. The video recordings were not used in the data analysis.

2.1.3 Photographs and diagrams

The observers were asked to take a photograph of any classroom artefacts used (e.g. classroom displays, work on board, student work, teacher lesson plans) and to draw a diagram of the layout/set up of the classroom for all lessons observed. They were also instructed to make notes on the context of the classroom (e.g. any external noise, the physical condition of the classroom/school). Furthermore, they were also asked to photograph the school environment (outside of the school, the school buildings, the locality, etc.).

2.1.4 Interviews

Immediately after the lesson had finished, the observers were asked to conduct a 5-minute interview with the teacher to allow them to reflect on the lesson. They were asked to record the interview with the Flip camera.

2.2 The data collection instrument

The primary instrument used to collect data was the observation schedule (see Appendix 2). Figure 1 provides an example of the data collected from an observation schedule.

Figure 1: Extract from an observation schedule

Time	Observed activity and talk	Comments
2:34	Teacher moves to table and puts down the pointer. T: now (walking across front of classroom)… I will listen the word. OK? (walks to the audio on the table; takes 25 sec to get to audio clip) T (turning to class): Listen, I will play the audio, everybody, listen to that [inaudible?], OK? Ss: OK (in chorus) T returns to audio to start.	English problem; means 'You will listen to the words'? Some Ss not paying attention

2.3 The sample

A total of 600[1] government school teachers have participated in the EIA programme during the pilot stage of the project (2010-2011): approximately 400 Primary teachers (from 200 schools 2 teachers per school), and 200 Secondary teachers (from 100 schools 2 teachers per school). This study was designed to reach 15% of those 600 EIA teachers.

A sample of 90 teachers (60 Primary; 30 Secondary) was taken from all government school teachers participating in EIA, according to the following criteria:

- include a range of grades (i.e. class levels) for both Primary and Secondary (e.g. Primary: lower (Grade 3) and higher (Grade 5)).
- include teachers with highest rates of student interaction (using the Study 2a (EIA 2011a) to determine this).
- select schools from rural, semi-rural and urban areas.

Study 2a (EIA 2011a) informed the sample selection in order to maximise our understanding of what teachers did with respect to the implementation of EIA approaches. The sample makes no claim at being representative of the teachers participating in EIA during the pilot phase.

Ninety teachers were observed by researchers from the Institute of Educational and Research (IER); a further 12 were observed each by Open University (OU) staff, bringing the total number of observations available for analysis to 102.

A sample of 46 lessons (28 Primary and 18 Secondary) was analysed, focusing on those which provided the most detail on classroom behaviour (as some observers provided insufficient detail in their notes).

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[1] *Note that 600 is an approximate figure. The pilot phase of the project recruited 680 teachers – 600 in government schools and also FIVDB and UCEP teachers. However, teachers join and leave the EIA programme from time to time, and hence the exact number will vary.*

The sample analysed was approximately 8% of the overall population of EIA teachers. (See Subsection 2.8 (below) for discussion on validity and reliability.)

2.4 Training the researchers

The data for this study was collected by 15 researchers from IER at the University of Dhaka. These researchers are independent of the EIA project and EIA staff. (As mentioned above, a further 12 observations undertaken by OU staff, but these were not used in the analysis).

During October 2010, the IER researchers were given three days of hands-on training by two members of the EIA/OU team (the training schedule is provided in Appendix 3.). This training briefed the researchers fully about the study, introduced and explained the observation schedule (and interview) and clarified any issues. The researchers were given 'observer's instructions' (see Appendix 1), which provided guidance on carrying out the observations and collecting contextual information, as well as the 'ELT aspects' document (see Appendix 4) to guide their observations. During the training programme, the researchers trialled the observation schedule (see Appendix 2) with videos of both a Primary and a Secondary lesson. They also trialled it on an actual English lesson at a nearby school.

Both the guidance document and the training session help to ensure the instruments were used correctly in the field and the data were captured as intended.

2.5 Undertaking the research

The research was undertaken by the IER researchers in Primary and Secondary schools during late October 2010.

The researchers experienced problems with the Flip video cameras, mainly because the batteries did not hold their charge. The videos could not be relied upon and therefore could not be consistently used by researchers as backup (to check their hand-written observation notes).

2.5.1 Ethical issues

As part of the normal ethical procedures adhered to by EIA, permission was obtained from the head teacher, the teacher and the students. Each teacher was again asked for their verbal consent to be involved in the study. All information is held under strict confidentiality within the EIA project and all respondents are anonymous in this report.

2.6 Data management

On returning to from the field (to Dhaka), all the researchers met with EIA research staff to type up their observation notes and organise their electronic data (see file management guidance provided in the 'observer's instructions in Appendix 1) . The electronic files were then transferred to the secure servers at EIA Base office in Dhaka and at the OU. All paper copies of the observation schedule were passed to EIA Base office for secure keeping. As mentioned above (in Subsection 2.5.1), all information is held under strict confidentiality within the EIA project.

2.7 Data analysis

2.7.1 Data

The cross-case analysis was based entirely on the observation notes made by observer: these provided a record of the teacher and student actions and interactions that took place in the classroom.

The observation schedules were analysed in relation to predetermined categories (nodes) to understand the nature of the pedagogy in the sampled lessons (discussed further in Subsection 2.7.2). The analysis was based on observers' typed-up observations or a secondary analysis of the observers' notes.

The data from the lesson observations was analysed in two ways:

- by looking across all sampled lessons to obtain a general view of the nature of the ELT aspects that were evident in the observations (a cross-case analysis), and
- by focusing upon particular cases to consider how lessons are viewed as a whole (case studies; see Report 3, EIA 2011b).

2.7.2 Cross-case analysis

This analysis consisted of three basic steps:

1. To derive and agree codes that reflected the ELT aspects which were being encouraged as part of the EIA approach.
2. To code each lesson using the agreed codes using NVIVO software.
3. To take the elements of each lesson for a particular code and to perform a secondary level of analysis (based on sub-codes).

Step 1: Deriving and agree codes. A set of ELT aspects were derived (see Appendix 4) to help the observers become aware of the needs of the analysis. This was then discussed by the analyst team and used whilst the team read through one lesson observation to see to what extent the ELT aspects could be used as the basis for a coding frame. A first set of codes was derived and then the analysts each coded a set of four lessons, and drew up a synopsis of one of these to capture features of it. The code frame was discussed again, refined, and again used with the common script to discuss its application. A final version of the code frame was agreed, and, where appropriate, sub-codes derived (see Table 2) to enable the second-level analysis to take place. The code frame was accompanied by a descriptive version to guide analysts (Appendix 5).

Step 2: Coding all selected lesson observations. Each analyst then coded their allocated batch of lessons using NVIVO over a period of two weeks. All the coded lessons were then combined within NVIVO and reports were produced for each major code, showing sub-codes under each one. For example, all instances of 'dealing with errors' were reported for each sub-code ('ignore', 'T corrects', 'Explain error', 'Work on error', and 'Reframe question') for all lessons coded; this gave a total of 17 reports.

Step 3: Secondary-level analysis of each code. Each of these reports was allocated to an analyst to carry out the sub-analysis, with each analyst working on 2 or 3 reports. The purpose of this secondary analysis was to identify examples of each sub-code and to examine the nature of the classroom behaviour involved. For example, 'monitoring' had two sub-codes and the kinds of activities for each were explored, along with

some general idea of how much of each kind were found across all lessons.[2] This was done by giving examples of each sub-code and, where necessary, distinguishing various kinds of activities within a sub-code. For 'monitoring', where the teacher moves round the classroom, this is basically supervision, and monitoring which often produces teacher-student interaction in the form of facilitation of tasks and giving feedback to students. In the event all these interactions were initiated by the teacher, and none by students.

The focus of this analysis was to understand the various behaviours that make up one of the ELT aspects covered by the codes, and to give rough estimates of how much was taking place. In particular, the analysis explored the way in which the behaviours contributed to a communicative approach to ELT.

This second-level analysis is the basis of this report. The findings from this have been organised into pedagogic themes, according to common factors, namely:

  i)   using materials (EIA and other teaching resources)

  ii)   lesson structure (warming up, scene setting, ending lesson)

  iii) teacher-led activity (teacher presenting, teacher instructions, teacher questions, body language, modelling, repetition, eliciting, choral dialogue)

  iv)   student-focused activity (student initiative, student presentation, pair and group work, expansion, individual work)

  v)   responding to learning (checking understanding, monitoring, dealing with errors, feedback).

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[2] *These figures have to be treated with caution, as Subsection 2.8 (on validity and reliability) indicates.*

Table 2: The coding frame (showing main codes and sub-codes)

Code	Sub-codes
Warm up activity	Greetings (English)
	Classroom routines
	Song
Scene setting (Lesson and activity level)	None
	Today's lesson is….
	Review last lesson
	Outcomes for lesson
Eliciting (Questions & answers English & Bangla)	Verbal/non-verbal, Variety of students chosen
Monitoring	Supervision: Teacher moving around the classroom
	Teacher interacting as moving round class
Checking that students understand	Tokenism
	Real checking: using probes/interaction
Using materials in the classroom	EIA: Pictures/posters/objects
	Non-EIA: Pictures/posters/objects
Body Language	Purpose unknown
	Communicative
Pair/group work	Organisational (no interaction)
	Used with interaction
Open vs. closed questions (English v Bangla)	Open questions
	Closed questions
Instruction from the teacher (Student response - know what to do)	Task instruction (English or Bangla)
	Management of class (English)
Dealing with errors	Ignore
	T corrects (no learning?)
	Explain error
	Work on error
	Reframe question, etc. (scaffold task)
Modelling language	
Expansion	Personalisation
	Development of task
Student Presentation	Reading to class/teacher
	Talking about work
Repetition	Single student
	Choral
Student initiative	
Individual work	Reading
	Writing
Choral dialogue	
Teacher presenting	Reading
	Talking
Ending lesson	Close lesson/review lesson/homework task/link to next lesson

2.8 Validity and reliability

Study 2a (EIA 2011a) provided an overall view of the proportion of time in a lesson dedicated to particular types of classroom activity/behaviour. As with all quantitative observations, the reliability of the observations is maximised, usually at the expense of validity.

The focus of this qualitative observation study was validity, and this was maximised by relating particular types of behaviour (represented by the codes of ELT aspects in Appendix 5) to instances of classroom behaviour. This makes the study more explorative, and, hence, less of an exercise in quantifying behaviours. Nevertheless, the coding derivation and discussion served to maintain a level of reliability. While this was not formally measured by coding a common lesson, there were few instances of miscoding between major codes; rather, the bulk of this occurred within them (i.e. between sub-codes of a code). As a single analyst worked with these sub-codes, consistency was achieved and, in any case, the analysis that follows substantiates the nature of the behaviours examined through many examples of actual behaviour.

The main threat to validity was in fact that details were often missing from the observers' notes. For example, relatively few observers mentioned the use of the government textbook (*EfT*), even though teachers are expected to use it in every lesson. In this case, observers may simply have felt its presence to be a matter of course, and literally un-noteworthy. As the focus was on additional material used in the classroom, this particular issue was not taken as problematic. However, it is evident that, for example, when pair work was undertaken, few observers recorded the detail of how that work took place. Where this had particular impact (e.g. on determining whether a teacher's instructions in English were understood by students) this is discussed as part of the conclusions about a particular code, or group of codes.

Another threat to validity is that teachers might have seen themselves as giving a demonstration lesson, to the observer, rather than just an ordinary lesson. This reflects on how representative the data recorded is of a teacher's normal classroom practices. However, as the concern with this study is in the *nature* of what teachers can do by way of ELT practices, this is less of a concern. What prevents teachers from reproducing these practices on a regular basis is likely to lie outside the EIA project as such (e.g. the lack of incentive to continually plan new lessons).

Furthermore, the way the sample was selected initially (90 teachers) and the sub-sample of this analysed (the 46 lessons), means that the behaviours cannot be taken to be representative of all teachers participating in the EIA pilot. In discussing the nature of activities in the classroom (e.g. the kinds of questions a teacher asks), this is not problematic. However, it means that when we give some indications of the number of lessons that contain instances of a particular ELT aspect, this has to be treated with caution. For this reason, percentages of lessons with a specific ELT aspect are not used; instead, a more general indication of this number (e.g. two-thirds of lessons). Note, the focus of this report is on the *nature* of activity taking place, rather than on the *amount*.

3. Findings

As described in the methodology (Section 2), these findings are presented under five general themes: i) using materials, ii) lesson structure, iii) teacher-led activity, iv) student-focused activity, and v) responding to learning. These themes in part reflect the way the baseline study (EIA 2009) studied and characterised lessons.

The baseline study looked at lesson structure (in terms of the start and end of lessons), and found classroom activity to be teacher-led rather than student-focused. The way in which teachers respond to learning is indicative of a student focus and as the EIA project uses materials in a particular way, it is important to understand if they are being used in an appropriate way.

3.1 Using materials

Both the baseline study (EIA 2009) and the observational evidence of this study concur that teaching resources in Bangladeshi Primary and Secondary classrooms are thin on the ground. In most lessons the principal (and often sole) resources are the government's *English for Today* (*EfT*) textbook and pupils' notebooks or *khata*. The Primary and Secondary teaching and learning programmes of EIA are primarily teacher development initiatives, but both (and particularly the former) also offer a range of resources for use in the classroom. These materials are outlined later in this subsection.

The first aim of the observers in respect of materials was simply to document which materials were used in each lesson, and from this to show how widely EIA materials have been adopted by teachers in the project schools. By recording the contexts in which the materials are used, the observers also provide some evidence of the pedagogies associated with them.

Code definition and interpretation

This subsection deals with the frequency with which teachers use EIA and other materials to support their teaching and explores the pedagogic strategies associated with different types of materials. The sub-codes for this code recorded whether materials used are 'EIA' or 'non-EIA', but it has been possible to analyse the data further on the basis of different types of material (books, audio, etc.). The main types of materials observed in use in lessons are:

- **English in Action (EIA) materials**
  - *EIA Primary materials.* Materials have been developed to support each lesson in the *EfT* textbooks for Classes 1-5. There are two audios for each lesson (played in classrooms on EIA-provided equipment), posters, flashcards and a set of figurines for each year group (i.e. class). Teachers are guided in their use materials by a *Teachers' Guide* and an *Activity Guide,* but the use of these 'out of lesson' resources was not noted by the lesson observers. However, many of the communicative teaching strategies recorded throughout this study almost certainly originate in, or are supported by, reference to these guides.
  - *EIA Secondary materials.* EIA material for Secondary teachers is organised into pedagogic themes and there is less material directly associated with classroom use or particular lessons. However, there are a number of audios based on lessons in *EfT* textbooks for Classes 6-10. As with the Primary materials, many of the communicative teaching strategies observed in Secondary lessons also, in all probability, originate in, or are supported by reference to, the modules in the EIA Secondary *Teacher Guide*.

- **Non-English in Action (non-EIA) materials**
  - *English for Today (EfT)***.** This is the government textbook which guides English teaching in all Primary and Secondary schools. It is the *de facto* English curriculum.
  - *Materials provided/adopted by teachers.* These are mostly realia, often objects normally found in the classroom. There are also examples of items from outside the classroom, including pictures, being brought in especially.

How much use is made of EIA materials?

Table 3 shows the number of lessons in which each type of resource was coded as being used. This shows that three quarters of the Primary and a quarter of the Secondary lessons used EIA materials, reflecting the balance of materials provided for the Primary and Secondary programmes.

Table 3: EIA and non-EIA resource use in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Using EIA resources	23	5
Using non-EIA resources	12	6

Different kinds of resource were observed in use with differing degrees of frequency (Table 4).

Table 4: Use of resource types in Primary and Secondary lessons

Resource type	Primary	Secondary
EIA audio	19	5
EIA poster	16	n/a
EIA flashcards	4	n/a
EIA figurines	1	n/a
Non-EIA textbook	9	5
Non-EIA other resources	7	3

The different types of Primary EIA materials tended to be used together; for example, in all but two cases, posters were used in conjunction with an audio. Flashcards were always used with a poster, and on two occasions also with an audio. The single use of figurines recorded was accompanied by a poster.

What is the nature of material use?

- **Audio**

The most commonly-used EIA resource in Primary classrooms was the audio, which was observed in 19 lessons. Eleven of the lessons were introduced using the 'Hello' or 'Good morning' song and nine closed with the 'Goodbye' song. All 19 lessons used the main audio segment which presents the language content of the *EfT* textbook.

Students seemed enthusiastic about the songs. Most observers reported the class joining in the singing, and teachers who asked the students whether they wanted to sing the song (or sing it again) got a positive response.

Teacher played the goodbye song on the audio.
Students stood up and sang the goodbye song in chorus with the audio.
(CS 56)

There are frequent references to students clapping their hands or making appropriate gestures (e.g. waving goodbye) as they sang. In one instance the teacher successfully used the song to gain the attention of an inattentive class:

Teacher played good bye song with instruction and she played it four times to get the good response from the students. They are making a noise and they were leaving the class by singing the song. (CS 52)

Sometimes the audio was used to rehearse the song, which was then sung unaccompanied. There was also one report of a song being sung by pairs and groups of students:

The audio main segment – usually a short dialogue in which the key vocabulary and structures to be taught in the *English for Today* lesson are used in a familiar context - is used frequently, but the way teachers use it varies. Sometimes it seems that the teacher simply plays the audio without introduction, or announces it briefly without giving any additional information beyond an injunction to be quiet or to listen. (CS 41)

Now we see what have in iPod.
(CS 19)

Now we are going to see audio, silent please.
(CS 30)

This is perhaps understandable since the audio itself usually includes a short preamble (often in Bangla) which sets the scene for the listener. However, the teachers often provided something themselves, ranging in complexity from:

Today we will hear a story: Kamal's bedroom.
(CS 19)

to quite complex explanations in Bangla:

T: (*In Bangla*) There were two foreign friends. Like you. She wrote a letter. Let's see how she could learn punctuation with the help of her friend.
(CS 11)

Another incentive to listen was provided when teachers warned students that they would be asking questions afterwards, or that the information would be needed for a later activity (CS 53). There is evidence of teachers going to some lengths to prepare students to understand, for example, by rehearsing the vocabulary students were about to hear using both the poster and realia in the classroom, and writing the words on the board.

Often the audio has a 'pause' signal at which teachers should stop the audio and engage in some specified way with their students. There is some evidence of teachers' pausing the audio to check or develop students' understanding, though it was not always clear whether this is as directed by the audio or on their own initiative. Purposes for pausing included:

To check understanding (in English or Bangla)

> Teacher: Where is the desk. Where is the book shelf?
> (CS19)
> T: Samina apar students ra kuthay jacche? (Where are going the students of Samina Madam?)
> Ss- Chiriakhanay. (Zoo)
> (CS 61)

To explain

> Teacher played the audio on 'Kamal's bedroom'. During playing the audio the teacher paused the audio and explained the audio instruction in Bangla.
> (CS 56)

To reinforce language content

> Teacher paused the iPod and counted with the students. He was counting using his fingers also. He paused the iPod and practised counting 1-5. Teacher related the audio lesson to the poster.
> (CS 29)

To ensure a question on the audio is answered

> Then teacher started the audio. He paused the audio after a question asked in the audio.
> (CS 31)

There is also evidence of teachers using gesture to reinforce the meaning of the audio while it was playing, and of students engaging directly with the audio, answering questions in chorus (CS 31). After listening, a common activity observed was questioning to check understanding, such as this exchange following the 'Kamal's bedroom' audio:

> T: Is there a television?
> Ss: No / no there is not (mixed response).
> T: No there is ___?
> Ss: not (chorus)
> T: Is there a bed?
> Ss: Yes (chorus).
> T: Yes, there is.
> continue.........
> (CS 53)

The audio was frequently used in conjunction with other resources, most notably the EIA posters. It is clear that this often reinforced the meaning of the language heard.

> The teacher played a lesson on Zoo on the audio. Teacher was showing the poster with the description of a zoo played on the audio lesson.
> (CS 61)

Audio was also commonly used with the *EfT* textbook; in the following example both resources are used.

> T: Open your book, Lesson 28, page no. 76
> Ss opened book and read with the audio.

Teacher paused iPod after each sentence and Ss were reading the sentences one after another with the block rocker.

T: Where is the bed? Who can say raise your hand?

Teacher asked question also asked by the iPod.

Ss raised their hand for give the answer. Teacher asked one boy and he answered.

B: There is a bed near the window.

T: There is a bed near the........?

Ss: window (chorus)

(CS53)

Unlike in the Primary programme, where there are at least two dedicated audios for each *EfT* lesson, the number of EIA audio resources for Secondary classrooms is limited. Given this, it is unsurprising that there were only five recorded instances of Secondary teachers (a quarter) using EIA audios. In one case the dialogue was used as the basis for choral dialogue, with students repeating each line in chorus several times in large groups. This was followed up by students' practising the dialogue in pairs. In another lesson, the audio reproduced the *EfT* text and students were asked to use the information they heard and read to complete a table, while in another, students used what they heard to help them complete a family tree. In the first of these cases, the teacher was particularly concerned that students fully understood, so he asked questions and circulated the class to monitor comprehension.

- **Poster**

Posters were used almost as often in Primary classrooms as the audio, in total in half of the lessons observed. The EIA Secondary materials do not include posters.

As noted above, posters were frequently used to help make the meaning of the audio clear to students, usually in the form of an introduction. Whatever the rationale of their use, posters seemed to be exclusively used by teachers working with the whole class, often as a vehicle for asking questions. Frequently the question was a simple 'what is this?', eliciting a single-word as a chorused response. More complex questions included:

What is she doing? (CS 1)

What can you see in the picture? (CS 28)

How many boys flying kite? (CS 41)

Questions often related to the identification of nouns, colour or numbers. They were most commonly addressed to the whole class, though there are instances of teachers eliciting an answer from one student, as a model for whole-class response.

An example of more creative use of the resource is the teacher who used a poster to point out contrasting items:

T: Look at me. It is big...it is small.... (showing a big and a small toy)

Ss: big....small.... (chorus)

Continuing..............

T: Ovi come here

B: Big...small... (showing toys)

continuing............

Teacher showed one big and one small toy and another two fat and thin dolls to grow the concept of opposite word and she involve students in this activity.
(CS 52)

One Class 3 teacher used a poster to provide context for some relatively elaborate language:

T: Where is the bed? Who can say raise your hand?
B: There is a bed near the window.
T: There is a bed near the........?
Ss: window (chorus)
(CS 53)

- **Flashcards and figurines**

In the sample there were only four recorded instances of flashcards being used. In one of these it was unclear how the card was used, and in two others the cards were simply used to elicit words (in one case, numbers) from the class. In the remaining case, however, the cards were used by students working in groups to play a bingo game. There was only one instance of the use of figurines, used as the subject of questions already asked to the class, thus casting the sentences into the third person:

T: Everybody, attention please.
T: What is this, Sadia? (showing figurine)
G: Mita
T: What's Mita's favourite colour?
G: Her favourite colour is green.
(CS 28)

Although these are isolated cases, these last two examples discussed show the beginnings of teachers thinking beyond the obvious uses of the resources to engage students in a more communicative way.

- **Non-EIA resources**

Non-EIA resources were recorded as being used in only 18 lessons (12 Primary, 6 Secondary). It seemed likely that this is a serious underestimate, since the *EfT* textbook guides all teaching in government schools. It is more likely that the observers took the use of the textbook for granted, only noting its use when, for example, it is used in conjunction with an EIA resource.

In both Primary and Secondary lessons, about half of the non-EIA resources observed were realia, in most cases objects found in the classroom as a matter of course (pens, books, etc., as well as doors, windows and furniture), but there was one example of a teacher bringing in leaves to illustrate the colour green. Use of realia is also encouraged in EIA guidance for Primary and Secondary teachers.

There were a few examples of Secondary teachers using cards and pictures, probably which the teachers made or found for themselves (there are no visual resources in the EIA Secondary materials), but there was little additional information about these.

Reflection on the use of materials

The observations show that EIA materials are used widely in the project teachers' classrooms, in around two-thirds of the lessons observed (in Secondary, a quarter; in Primary, well over three-quarters; see Table 31). Given the relatively limited extent of EIA Secondary materials, the Secondary proportion

seems remarkably high. The most frequently used resources are the Primary audios (used in over two-thirds of observed Primary lessons). Visuals, mostly posters, are used in over a half of the Primary lessons, often to support comprehension of the audio. Most use of EIA resources is with whole classes, but there are some instances of their use either with groups or, as the starting point for group work.

In many instances, EIA materials were observed to be underpinning communicative practices. For example, teachers frequently use the poster and audio together to reinforce students' understanding of the meaning of the EIA stories and hence the language of *EfT*. Questioning and expository activities before listening prepare students to be active listeners, making sense of the language as they hear it. The intention of much of the Primary material is to set the *EfT* language into meaningful contexts and teachers appear to be taking advantage of the opportunities they provide for using language with *communicative purpose*. The materials offer a starting point for teacher–student *interaction* in the form of question and response as well as for interaction between students through games and prepared dialogues.

There seems to be little evidence of the audio 'taking over' the class from the teacher. Most teachers seem to be firmly in control of the teaching and learning processes, playing the audio when they have prepared their students to understand it, pausing it to ask questions which check understanding and extend learning and often using it as the basis for further language use. This underscores the value of the materials as a vehicle for teachers' professional development, rather than simply as a classroom teaching aid.

3.2 Features of the structure of lessons

Warming up, scene setting, ending lesson

A number of the lesson features coded relate to the structure of the lessons themselves. Teachers and students become accustomed to routines which begin and end lessons and these can provide a secure and predictable structure within which routine language is used. These were also elements examined in Baseline study 2a (EIA 2009c), which enable some degree of comparison. Both the Primary and Secondary EIA materials encourage and support teachers in the planning of lessons and effective lesson planning often entails instances of teacher talk which either precedes coming activities or reflects on what has just been learnt. This includes whole lesson 'warm up' activities, scene setting for particular elements of lesson content, linking work to the next lesson, setting homework and explicitly reviewing the lesson just passed. Each of these is examined in this subsection in terms of the analysis of the lessons sampled, to see the various ways they are exhibited. When these things are done in English, they offer a context for genuinely purposeful use of communicative language.

3.2.1 Warm-up activities

Code definition and interpretation

Warm-up activities refer to the variety of ways in which English language teachers may start their lessons. These may include, for example, classroom routines like: taking attendance, writing the date, number of pupils, etc., on the board; exchanging greetings with students (in English); or singing a song. Classroom routines are those activities that take place at the beginning of a lesson and are regularly experienced by the students as a feature of their orientation to each class. Greetings in English vary in their communicative potential, from the brief and perfunctory to the more extensive and engaging with

the students. Students often join in with the teacher in singing the Hello or Good morning songs which is introduced in a variety of ways. At a minimum, warm-up activities signal to students that the lesson is starting. Ideally, they get students warmed up and in the mind set to speak and learn English.

The code of warm up activity was broken in four sub-codes: song; greetings (English), routines, and stand up/sit down.

How much warm-up activity takes place?

The analysis of the coding of the warm-up activities is 'incident' based. The frequency of incidents is gauged by the number of items coded in the 'warm-up' data field.

Forty of the cases studied identified incidents of warm-up activity in their coding: 25 Primary and 15 Secondary, i.e. three-quarters of both Primary and Secondary lessons included a warm-up activity. A numerical check of these incidents enables us to estimate the relative presence of the different aspects of warm-up activity across the sample. On occasions, a warm-up activity was used more than once in a lesson. The number of individual lessons which used at least one warm-up activity is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons using various kinds of warm-up activities

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Song	22	-
Greetings (English)	21	14
Routines	14	5
Stand up/Sit down	4	2

The breakdown of incidents of the different forms of warm-up activity among the 40 cases is shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Number of warm-up incidents in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Song	30	-
Greetings (English)	23	14
Routines	27	7
Stand up/sit down	11	2
Total	91	23

Warm up songs ('Hello' or 'Good Morning') form part of the audio resources for EIA Primary lessons, but they do not feature in Secondary materials. (Therefore, as Table 6 shows, songs were not used as a part of the warm-up in Secondary classrooms.) Tables 5 and 6 show that songs were the most often used warm-up activity; they were found in almost all Primary lessons which had some kind of warm-up activity. Greetings in English were used in nearly all of the Secondary lessons and in only slightly smaller proportion of Primary lessons. Routines, for example taking attendance, writing the date, checking the number of pupils, etc., took place in just over half of Primary lessons but in only a third of Secondary lessons. The lack of this may reflect the teachers' views of giving a demonstration lesson to the observer, rather than just an ordinary lesson.

The use of a greeting in English in Primary and Secondary lessons in EIA classrooms was similar to that found in the baseline study (EIA 2009), but the use of a song in Primary classrooms adds to the teachers' repertoire (this activity was not reported as occurring in the baseline study).

Of the Primary and Secondary lessons which contained some form of warm-up activity, under half of Primary lessons contained two types, and a fifth contained four types. Almost all of these Primary lessons contained two or more warm-up activities, whereas three-quarters of Secondary lessons used only one, and around a quarter used two.

What is the nature of 'warm-up' activities?

- **Song**

This type of warm-up took place solely in Primary classrooms. Some teachers tried to actively engage with their pupils as they undertook the warm-up singing. For example:

> Teacher asked the students: "Do you like song?"
> (Gann sunta possondo koro tomra?)
> All the students said: "Yes".
> Now the teacher played the hello song with block rocker. And she asked the students to stand up and sing the hello song.
> After playing the hello song teacher asked the students whether they wanted to listen the song again?
> Then the students replied "Yes".
> T: Teacher asked the students to clap their hands.
> The second time, students started to sing the hello song.
> (CS 1)

Or another example of active engagement:

> T: No problem, okay. Everybody stand up. Let's sing a good morning song. 1 2 3.......
> After exchanging greetings with the Ss she asked her Ss to sing the good morning song. When she uttered 1 2 3 then Ss started to sing the song without the block rocker. Teacher also participated with the Ss by clapping and maintaining rhythm.
> (CS 28)

However, the majority of song-related activity in the Primary classrooms can be routinised as the teacher–pupil interaction typified in the observation noted by the following types of exchanges:

> T: Let's sing the good morning song. Please, stand up.
> Students stood up and the teacher started the good morning song on the audio. Students sang the song with the audio.
> (CS 61)

and:

> T: I am fine, thank you, sit down. Now we recite a good morning song.
> T: (*in Bangla)* we will sing the good morning song, ok?

Teacher entered the class and exchanged greetings with students and played the good morning song and Ss sang it.
(CS 52)

or:

T entered in the classroom and played the good morning song. Ss stood up from themselves and sung the song with the audio
T: Thank you, sit down please.
Ss sat down
(CS 53)

Whatever the limitations in teachers' use of songs, there was sufficient evidence to show that teachers were using audio technology appropriately in their classrooms and that they incorporated singing into their warm-up activities. This gave the students the opportunity to articulate a greeting (and response) even if their teacher opted not to participate personally.

Even when the audio technology did not work, one teacher:

sang the good morning song without the iPod since her iPod was in trouble.
(CS 51)

This shows a degree of motivation on the part of the teacher to keep the formula for the classroom warm-up to the EIA-recommended approach.

- **Greetings (English)**

Most English greetings are rudimentary in both Primary and Secondary classrooms. With very minor variations in wording, the typical greeting can be characterised by the following example from a Primary classroom:

T: Good morning students.
Ss: Good morning teacher.
T: How are you students?
Ss: We are fine and how are you teacher?
T: I am also fine. Ok. Thank you. Sit down please.
(CS 10)

The typical Secondary classroom greeting was similar to that of the Primary classroom:

Teacher enters the room.
Ss: Good morning teacher.
T: Good morning students. How are you?
Ss: I am fine. How are you?
T: I am fine. Thank you. Sit down.
(CS 60)

One Secondary teacher's non-typical greeting in English was identified:

T greets Ss with 'Good afternoon'.
T: 'Have you done your home work?'
(CS 70)

This was the only example of a teacher starting their lesson with reference to a previous lesson. The vast majority of greetings used in both Primary and Secondary classes were short, almost standard, greetings in English which were designed to get the students' attention for the start. They were formulaic, formal, friendly greetings which elicited a standard response (in English) from the students. In Primary classes, greetings in English often preceded the singing of the Hello or Good morning song. In Secondary classes, greetings in English preceded students sitting down in readiness for other lesson activities.

- **Classroom routines (taking attendance; writing the date, number of pupils, etc. on the board)**

Classroom routines were performed in both Primary and Secondary classes during the warm-up period. As with greetings, where the routines were undertaken in English they provide real opportunities to use the language purposefully and in context. They typically relate to activities such as setting out the details of the class and establishing which pupils are in attendance. For example, in the Primary classroom:

> T: Ok. Now I start my class.
> The teacher asked what subject they are reading.
> The Ss said English.
> She showed the writing on the board:
> Class: One
> Sub: English
> Date: 23-10-2010
> The Ss read the writing in chorus.
> (CS 10)

or:

> T enters the classroom at 9:33 am. Then she takes attendance. Ss respond.
> (CS 35)

or:

> Teacher was preparing for taking attendance.
> Teacher: Shoja hoye bosho. [Sit up straight]
> Teacher was checking their seating arrangement.
> T: Now response your roll call.
> Teacher was taking attendance and students were responding to him one by one.
> T: Thank you everybody.
> (CS 38)

Similar types of routine took place at the start of Secondary lessons. For example:

> T: Response to your roll number 1...2....3.....4......
> Ss: Present sir... present sir... present sir....
>
> Then teacher cleaned the blackboard and wrote class six. He counted the number of students and wrote present-20, total-53, date-21/10/10.
> (CS 14)

or:

> T says good morning to students. T writes on Blackboard (Subject – English, total number of students – 85, and the present number of students – 61). T then calls role.
> (CS 6)

These routines at the start of class are important tools for management and administration of any learning environment. Their application can help to reduce noise levels, generally calm the class and gain the pupils' attention so the teacher can be heard and their lesson plan can be operationalised.

- **Stand up/sit down**

There was some limited evidence of getting Primary students to stand up and sit down several times as a means of getting their attention during the warm-up period. For example:

> T: Kotha na boli (Don't talk) please. Stop talking please. Ss Stand up.
> Ss stand up.
> T: Sit down
> Ss sit.
> T: All together. Stand up......Sit down.
> T: Stand up. Ss, let's sing a song.
> Ss: Yes......teacher.
> T: Say 'yes teacher' loudly.
> Only four lines. Can you remember the song?
> Ss: Yes teacher.
> Ss stand up and start singing the song "We shall overcome........................."
> T: Okay, thank you, sit down.
> Ss: Thank you.
> (CS 35)

Other coding of the stand up/sit down activity for both Primary and Secondary classrooms related to basic classroom control so as to bring students' attention back to the lesson and facilitate progress.

3.2.2 Scene setting

Code definition and interpretation

Scene setting refers to short and appropriate activities that in themselves may be peripheral to the main objective of the lesson, but serve the dual function (ideally) of i) introducing the themes or subjects of the lesson or activity and ii) engaging students' interest in what is to come. The aim is to get the students' 'mindset' fixed on the area that the content of the lesson or activity is focused on.

The code of scene setting was broken down into two subcodes:

a) *lesson level*, which introduces and attempts to engage students in the overall content or theme of the lesson, and

b) *activity level*, which does the same thing but for a particular activity.

How much 'scene setting' takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents

recorded. Of the total number of cases used in the coding, 18 Primary lessons and 13 Secondary contained incidents of scene setting.

The breakdown of incidents of 'activity level' scene setting and 'lesson level' scene setting is also of interest and is shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Number of incidents of scene setting in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Activity level	24	13
Lesson level	10	8
Total	34	21

What is the nature of the 'scene setting'?

The definition of 'scene setting' was interpreted very broadly in the coding exercise with many incidents consisting of examples like the following:

> T: Students, we learn counting, we learn…?, today we learn counting …
> (CS 29)

This is probably the most common way of setting the scene both at the lesson level (as in the case above) and at the activity level – and this is particularly true for Primary. The very simplicity of this way of setting the scene can be appropriate (again particularly at Primary level) as it gives in a few words an immediate focus on what is to come, and is certainly preferable to giving no context at all. The example above is notable for the appropriate (although possibly merely fortuitous?) use of repetition. Another similar example indicates that such simple scene setting (a sort of 'marker' for what is to come) may result in more student engagement:

> Teacher starts to play audio again and said, 'Today we will hear a story Kamal's bedroom'. Students start to listen to the story attentively. (CS 19)

The example above is at the 'activity level' although it performs much the same function as the first example at the lesson level.

At the Primary level in particular there are a number of references to scene setting at the activity level that appear barely to qualify as scene setting. These take the form of such formulae as '…now take out your books', as in:

> T: Ok. Take your English book. Open your book. Page 47. (CS 10)

These particular examples do not tell us, or the students, much about what is to come, nor are they particularly engaging for the students.

A more meaningful example of scene setting was found on the number of occasions when the teacher introduced an activity that led into one of the lesson objectives or activities in the materials, such as in the following example from a Primary class:

> The Gs were passing the ball but not singing. Then T asked two Bs to come in front of the class. They were asked to sing the song and pass the ball one to another. The Bs do so. After first two lines of

practice, T takes the ball and tries to make the Ss understand the Right and Left sides. The T tells the Bs to go to their seats with clapping from the class. Then she asked two Gs to come out to the front. The Gs started the rhyme but T stopped them and told them to start from the third line. After doing so, T and Ss clap. Then another pair of Bs did so. Then T was searching for the rhyme on the iPod to play to the class. (CS 26)

Roughly a third of examples across Primary have this more meaningful sense of scene setting and rather more than half in Secondary. The following example at Primary level is notable in that it also involved a degree of personalisation before leading students to the book:

T says we will learn today about "Kamal's Bedroom". T writes on black board "Kamal's Bedroom". "What are in Kamal's bedroom we also have many of the things in our bedroom: isn't it?" (CS 5)

The Secondary lessons observed contained (not surprisingly) some rather more sophisticated examples of this meaningful scene setting leading to activities in the book. For example:

T: Students, look at the blackboard.
Teacher drew a picture on the board.
T: Students, what's that?
Ss: Lemon.
She drew another picture.
T: Students, what's that?
Ss: Carrot.
T: What's contain lemon?
Ss: Vitamin C.
T: What's contain carrot?
Ss: Vitamin A.
T: That's vitamins.
(CS 12)

In this example the students then go on to look at a reading passage on the subject of vitamins. Although in this example the researcher has recorded what seems to be grammatical errors made by the teacher, the scene setting and attempt to engage students by introducing both a lexical and subject area is clear.

In addition to scene setting which successfully uses lexical or thematic areas that will be introduced in the main part of an activity or lesson, there are also examples of structures which are used with some successful communicative purpose (particularly in Secondary). The following is a particularly good example of this:

T: Good, very good. I have just arrived, I have just arrived that the class. Say different sentence. *Arekti sentence bolo*. I have just, I have just….
S: opened the door.
Other Ss: Opened the door
T: I have just opened the door.
S: I have just closed the door.
T: Goes to the door, and closes and opens it, Ss respond, like- When T opens the door, they said, "I have just opened the door." When T closes the door, they say, "I have just closed the door"…
(CS 55)

Overall, the majority of examples of scene setting in Primary and Secondary, at both lesson and activity level, indicate that teachers generally know how to set the scene, and there are examples of doing so in a very engaging and communicative way. Scene setting is being done in a way not reported in the baseline study.

3.2.3 Ending the lesson

Code definition and interpretation

Ending the lesson refers to some way of bringing the lesson to close. This code had four sub-codes: close lesson; review lesson; homework task; link to next lesson.

Each teacher will wind down the lesson and bring it to a close in a different way, selecting a way of ending the lesson which suits themselves and the class. The ending of a lesson can vary along a continuum from cheerful, communicative and comprehensive to abrupt and perfunctory. Most lesson endings tended towards the abrupt end of the continuum, but there were a few examples that were less so. Practice has improved to the extent that there were no examples of teachers just walking out of the class (reported in 10% of lessons in the Baseline Study 3).

How much 'ending the lesson' takes place?

The analysis of the coding of the ending the lesson activities is 'incident' based. The frequency is gauged by the number of incidents coded in the ending the lesson data field.

Forty of the cases studied identified incidents of ending the lesson in their coding: 25 Primary and 15 Secondary, i.e. in three quarters of Primary and Secondary lessons. On very few occasions, ending the lesson activity was used more than once in a lesson. The number of individual lessons that used at least one ending the lesson activity is shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons using 'ending lesson' activities

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Close lesson	25	13
Review lesson	6	1
Homework task	5	10
Link to next lesson	2	-

A numerical check of these incidents enables us to gauge the relative presence of the different aspects of ending the lesson activity across the cases. The breakdown of incidents of the different forms of ending the lesson activity among the 40 cases is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Number of `ending lesson' incidents in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Close lesson	32	16
Review lesson	6	2
Homework task	5	10
Link to next lesson	2	0

Tables 8 and 9 show that the ending the lesson activities of review, homework and linking were only used once by teachers in lessons, however on a few occasions the teachers closed the lesson more than once, i.e. once before setting the homework and once afterwards. The pedagogic techniques of reviewing the lesson, extending it by setting homework or linking to the next lesson, were used very little, except in the case of setting homework in Secondary lessons, where half of teachers set a homework task.

It is not possible to reliably compare the detailed ways of ending a lesson with the baseline study (EIA 2009), because it did not distinguish Primary and Secondary lessons and the use of songs introduced by EIA, however it is evident that there are a lower proportion of lessons where reviewing the lesson, setting homework or linking to the next lesson takes place. It is also worth noting that teachers in this study appear to have abandoned the strategy of just walking out of the lesson.

What is the nature of 'ending lesson' activities?

- **Close lesson**

The typical ending of the majority of Primary lessons involved: the teacher announcing that the lesson is at an end; getting the students to sing the goodbye song; cleaning and wiping the board in readiness for the next lesson; picking up their materials and leaving the classroom. For example:

> Teacher played the goodbye song on the audio. Students stood up and sang the song with the audio. Then the teacher wiped off the board, took the materials and left the classroom.
> (CS 61)

Although it was not always quite as straightforward as that:

> Teacher played goodbye song with instruction and she played four times to get a good response from the students. Because they were making noise and they were leaving the class by singing the song at last.
> (CS 52)

Some teachers exhibited more control over the ending of the lesson:

> Stand up every body. *Ekhon goodbye song ta korbo*. (Now we will sing the goodbye song.)
> Teacher played the goodbye song on the audio. Students stood up and sang the goodbye song in chorus with the audio.
> After the goodbye song-
> T: OK, everybody. Thank you. Sit down. We shall meet again. OK, thank you.
> Then teacher asked the students to sit in their seats and wait for the bell.
> Students sat for 1 min. without any activity.
> (CS 56)

The end point of Secondary lessons could be quite abrupt, with teachers appearing to need to organise themselves (and the pupils) in readiness for their exit from the classroom.

> T: thank you, go to your seat. Ok, our class finish. Good bye.
> Ss: thank you, madam.
> S (while T is leaving): Stand.
> All Ss stand up.
> (CS 7)

or:

> the teacher cleaned the black board and told "thank you everybody, see you again"
> (CS 74)

- **Review lesson**

There were some examples in Primary classes of teachers taking time to review the lesson and, in effect, telling the students what they had learnt:

> T: So students - what we have learnt? We learnt that who are there in a family. (In Bangla)
> (CS 32)

and:

> No more today, in this way we play various games with number in words..........with number or words. In the same way we can play the game like this-seven, ten... *erokom koreo amra khela ta khelte pari, thik kina?*
> Students-*Ji sir* [Yes sir]
> Some students wanted to continue the game.
> T: Thank you. No more today. *Ajke r khelbo na arek din khelbo*. Thank you everybody.
> (CS 38)

In one case a Secondary teacher asked one of his/her students what they learned in the lesson:

> T: Now last of all (pointing to a girl) you come here. What do you learn? Reflection
> S: By taking part in the class we came to know about the remarkable person honourable Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina, the philosopher Plato, however similar Mother Teresa. Mother Teresa is an altruistic woman. He worked all the time for the mankind. Last of all I want to say we came to know about new words, true or false and hot notes. Thank you very much.
> (CS 14)

- **Homework task**

A small number of Primary teachers set homework tasks which involved reading, writing numbers or simple drawing tasks. For example, observers noted: 'T: You will read the lesson in home' (In Bangla) (CS 32), and 'gave the home work - to draw a football, like p-51. (CS 32).

In Secondary lessons, where a homework task was regularly set, homework was likely to involve the students in a writing activity such as the following examples:

> She gave home work on the board and said to write in Ss' khatas.
> Write a paragraph Our Food.
> She erased the board after Ss' writing and left the class.
> T: Good bye Ss.
> Ss: Good bye teacher.
> (CS 12)

> The teacher gave a home task to the students, it was a paragraph. Teacher went back to the black board wrote the name of the task "write a pararaph about your neighbour".
> (CS 46)

T gives Homework. "*Protteke Vitamin er upor 10 ti korey sentence likhey niye ashbe* (Everyone should write down 10 sentences on Vitamin)". T remains silent for a few seconds. Then cleans the board. T leaves the classroom saying "Thank you".
(CS 6)

- **Link to next lesson**

There is little evidence of linking between lessons in Primary classes and no evidence of linking between any Secondary lessons. The limited types of linking that are defined are rather weak, consisting as they do of information to the pupils that a lesson will be repeated:

Tomorrow we will read this lesson again, OK?
(CS 56)

3.2.4 Reflection on the structure of lessons

To what extent can we count the incidents described here as contributing to a communicative pedagogy? There is a little evidence here that teachers are using these parts of the lesson to develop formal aspects of English teaching. The teacher who sets the scene for a lesson segment by opening and closing a door (CS 55) is teaching grammar in context, and those who tell students about their homework while asking them to note it down from dictation or the board are integrating skills of literacy and oracy. However, given that the incidents are by their nature *about* the teaching content of the lesson, rather than the content itself, it is not surprising that such events are quite rare.

On the other hand, routine openings and endings of lessons are practices which exist only by virtue of the language used to construct them, and so offer real opportunities to use language for communicative purpose. Even though the students' 'good morning' may be almost a rote response, it is still an authentic response to a real question. Even taking the register and the 'stand up/sit down' routine often used in Primary schools can be seen in this light. At the other end of the scale, and most often in Secondary schools, there are examples of teachers asking questions, sometimes to individuals, about homework they (should) have done and what happened in the previous lesson. Some of the examples of homework setting require careful listening on the part of students, while the teaching examples involving the present perfect tense (the door-closing lesson) and vitamins (CS 12) require a real engagement with the curriculum through the medium of English.

Most of these lesson segments exhibit a good deal of interaction but overwhelmingly at the whole-class level. There are no examples of teachers addressing individuals and the lone example of personalisation in the homework setting 'Write a paragraph about your neighbour' are the only instances of anything like a student-centred approach. However, the benefit of an effectively delivered whole-class approach lies in a high degree of student participation, something which seems strongly evident in the way in which the opening songs are enjoyed. The specific addition of this participation by the EIA approach is a contribution to the teaching of English in the classroom in Bangladesh.

While there is evidence here that teachers are beginning to find ways of bringing communicative practices into the structuring parts of their lessons, at present these practices are for the most part, at best, incipient. But these are not the core teaching sections of the lesson; rather, they are designed to prepare students for learning. By encouraging enthusiastic participation they may be laying the ground for more effective teaching and learning in the main parts of the lesson.

3.3 Teacher-led activity

Teacher presenting, teacher instruction, teacher questions, body language, modelling, repetition, eliciting, choral dialogue

This subsection takes as its focus a group of activity types which can be characterised as 'teacher-led'. The Baseline studies (EIA 2009) showed classrooms in which the teacher is leading and central to all teaching and learning activities, as characteristic of Bangladeshi Primary and Secondary schooling. On the face of it, a teacher-dominated classroom appears to be the antithesis of a student-centred, communicative classroom, and the observation data does include evidence of teacher-centred practice which is not conducive to student learning. However, teacher-led and teacher-centred are not the same thing; indeed a classroom which is not at some level teacher-led would be a rarity anywhere in the world. Although this group of activity types comes closest to the kinds of pedagogy to be expected in a traditional class, throughout this subsection there are examples of at least the beginnings of communicative practices which were not evident in the baseline study.

3.3.1 Teacher presenting

Code definition and interpretation

Teacher presenting refers to a period of the lesson which is dominated by teacher-centred activity such as the teacher introducing or explaining vocabulary or grammar. It could also be an extensive form of scene setting. This teacher-centeredness should not be taken as negative. Good teacher presentation is an often essential part of the input of a lesson.

Around half of the events coded as 'teacher presenting' are in fact much simpler activities than the kind of activity described above, often, for example, being simply an isolated instruction from the teacher. However, for both Primary and Secondary, there were many examples of more meaningful teacher presentation and these are the focus of the discussion here.

The code of teacher presenting was broken into two sub-codes:

a) *reading*, where, in almost all cases the teacher is simply reading from the *EfT* textbook, and

b) *talking*, where teachers are generally modelling, explaining, questioning or helping to create a conceptual context. It is these last examples which are the more interesting and significant in communicative language teaching (CLT).

How much 'teacher presenting' takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. 18 Primary lessons and 13 Secondary contained incidents of teacher presenting. This means that more than half of the Primary lessons and almost three quarters of Secondary lessons contained incidents of teacher presenting.

The breakdown of teacher presenting incidents of 'reading level' and 'talking level' is shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Number of incidents of 'teacher presenting' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Reading	14	8
Talking	62	28
Total	76	36

This kind of analysis of incidents does of course prevent a systematic analysis of just how long teachers presented for, though the descriptions that follow reinforce the earlier comment that most teacher presentations were short.

What is the nature of the 'teacher presenting'?

For both Primary and Secondary, the cases of 'talking' were considerably more numerous than 'reading'. Talking also presented more variety and significance in terms of communicative interaction. Not surprisingly, the incidence of the communicative teacher presentations in Secondary lessons generally presented a more meaningful (and accurate) grasp of the target language and the communicative aim of the presentation was generally clearer.

There were a number of cases (particularly in Primary) where the teacher was presenting or demonstrating a language item by calling on the students and managing the class. For example:

> T: Student, we learn counting, we learn………..? Today we learn counting.
> Ss: Counting
> T: One finger, one, one, one…………
> Ss: One finger, one, one, one………
> Teacher showed his one finger and called one: Ss was also drilling with one showing their finger with their teacher.
> T: BANGLA (Put your hands down, you need not to shake your hands.)
> *In this way the teacher counted to five by drilling with the students, and all Ss participated in this activity and they enjoyed this.*
> (CS 29)

Significantly, later in the lesson this same Primary teacher successfully linked his own presentation to the materials (audio and poster in this case) and this encouraged what seemed to be some enthusiastic participation from the students in the target language:

> Ss are listening. Someone was counting with the iPod. Teacher paused the iPod and counted with the Ss. He cleared the instruction pausing the iPod. He was counting by finger also. He paused
>
> the iPod and practiced counting 1-5. Teacher related the audio lesson to the poster. Ss participated spontaneously.
> (CS 29)

The reading examples for both Primary and Secondary were less interesting from a communicative point of view, especially when they involved (as in a number of cases) the teacher simply reading a passage or even a few words from the textbook. However, there were incidents (such as the one that follows from Primary) where the teacher mixed reading with instruction and drilling. It is notable, however, that this example was almost all in Bangla:

> T: (BANGLA): Ss, take out your English book, page 46. Everybody, take your English book, page 46. ………....……..you can just listen carefully, please. I'm reading, you just listen carefully, okay?
> (T starts reading)
> T: A red rose………..a black banana (two times)
> (BANGLA) Do you have the same thing in your book?
> Ss: Yes teacher.

> T: (BANGLA) Now, you drill with me. If you don't drill with me then your pronunciation will not be okay.
> (CS 35)

In Secondary there were a number of clear cases of the teacher both presenting language items while also setting the scene and asking pre-questions, for example:

> (T presents the vocabulary)
> T: Son…………..male child
> Daughter…….female child
> T: Now we are going to listen a passage about Belal's family. Before listening I shall give you two questions:
> Q1. How many members in Belal's family?
> Q2. …………………………… etc.
> (CS 42)

The above interaction was all in English and nicely linked the target language and reading passages which were about to come in the textbook.

In the following example, from a Secondary lesson, the teacher used materials to present adjectives and at the same time drew students in with questions on the visuals and integrating reading and speaking. Again, this all took place in English:

> T: Ok there are some questions…..Who is angry? And who is furious? Who is funny? Look at the cartoon figures….which caption goes with which character and why? Next who is the character of picture? ……
> Ss started talking
> Ss: Mrs Dellay…
> T: Angry….Mrs. Dellay is…..
> Ss angry
> T: Angry. Ok now…….next question……..who is furious?
> Ss: Tintin
> T: Tintin. Who is Tintin? (Teacher pointed to the picture of Tintin on the wall. Students said 'Tin-tin') He is furious. Ok….next question….Who is funny? ...
> (CS 46)

In this final example, from a Secondary lesson, the teacher again presented vocabulary but, it seems, with relatively few words; instead they use gesture. This technique is stressed in the EIA Secondary materials as a potentially effective and engaging way of teaching the target language.

> Then teacher said to the students, take out your exercise books or khata. The teacher wrote some words on the black board and explained the meaning of the words with gestures. The words were 'cautious', 'talkative', 'conscious', 'frustrated', 'simplistic'.
> (CS 46)

In summary, in both the Primary and Secondary classrooms were several encouraging examples of teachers' successfully presenting aspects of the language to students in ways that had at least some CLT characteristics. Furthermore, few of the examples indicated that there were long periods of teacher

talk, which dominated the lessons observed in the baseline study ('teaching reading from the book' was frequently observed).

3.3.2 Teacher instructions

Code definition and interpretation

By 'teacher instructions' we mean the parts of a lesson where teachers are telling the students what is expected of them in a lesson or during particular task in the lesson, or giving them class management instructions at a more generic level (e.g. 'take out your books'). Obviously the important aspect of class instruction is not so much the giving of the instruction itself, but whether the teacher is able to convey the instruction in such a way that it is understood by the students. Unfortunately, in the case of most of the incidences noted by observers, no indication of this essential second part (whether the students understood the instructions or not) was included in the observers' notes.

The code 'teacher instructions' was broken into two subcodes:

a) *task instructions in English or Bangla*, where the key point is whether the students' responses show whether they have understood the task or not (regardless of whether it was given in English or Bangla), and

b) *task instructions about management*, where English instructions are focused on (although in most cases it was in Bangla, and it has therefore been been disregarded). Here, again, the important thing to ascertain is whether or not students have understood the message, which would indicate (if in English) that the teacher has probably introduced these instructions as a part of classroom routine and practice.

How much 'teacher instruction' takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Of the total number of cases used in the coding (28 Primary and 18 Secondary), 24 Primary lessons and 15 Secondary contained incidents of teacher instructions. This means that three quarters of the Primary and Secondary lessons contained incidents of teacher instructions.

The breakdown of teacher instruction incidents in terms of 'task instructions' and 'management of class' is also of interest and is shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Number of incidents of 'teacher instructions' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Task instructions (English or Bangla)	101	53
Management of class (English)	23	6
Total	124	59

What is the nature of the 'teacher instructions'?

There were many examples of teacher instructions with an overwhelming majority being for task instructions and a relatively small minority for management of the class – and with many more incidents in Primary than Secondary. Although many examples of instruction were observed, it was much rarer to

read any particular communicative significance into this as few examples indicated whether the students had understood the instruction or not. This is not to say that the students had not understood, merely that the evidence was rarely existent in the examples given.

That said, there were some indications of student understanding and appropriate response to task instructions from the teacher as, in the following examples (both from a Primary class):

> Then she said to take their English book. She said to give her an English book.
> T: Would you hand me your English book please?
> One girl gave her the English book
> (CS 11)

> T: Take your English book, open at page 73, lesson 28, Kamal's bedroom
> *Ss opened the page before according to the instruction of the teacher.*
> T: Now we are going to audio hear
> (CS 30)

In almost all examples classroom management by the teacher seems to have been in Bangla, or occasionally and more promisingly, made with gesture, as in the following Primary example:

> The Ss open their books as the instruction from the audio. T was touching her ear as an instruction to listen to the audio carefully.
> (CS 24)

On occasion, even when the task instruction was in Bangla, it seems it was not understood by the students (or possibly inaudible in a crowded classroom):

> T (in Bangla): If the task is finished then cross check [with partner]. You two, you two…
> Most of the students were writing in their exercise book. They did not exchange their exercise books. T exchanged some of them.
> (CS 28)

Although evidence of the student response was often lacking, there were Secondary examples where task instruction (in English in this case too) had clearly worked. Significantly, the teacher clears up a potential misunderstanding or confusion in this longer example:

> T: Okay, now you will work with pair. Now you will practice with your partner. Now, every …
> You are Mr. Brown and you are Mrs. Brown. (Indicating a pair). You are Mr. Brown and you are Mrs. Brown (indicating another pair) … Now I will give you 10 minutes to act. Okay? (Ss starts practice within pair. T was moving around the class and supervising Ss practice. T make the Ss move to make them face to face…
> T: Okay Ss there is questions in your textbook. Open your textbook. Here is some question. You talk, you will talk with your partner and find out these questions answer. (T gives the instruction 3 times to the students). No 1 and 2. I will give you 3 minutes. (Two times) Now let's start. (Ss start discuss. Some Ss were asking the T whether they have to write the answer in their exercise book or not. T said that they could just discuss and find out the answer, they did not have to write. Ss continue their discussion for 3 minutes. Then T stopped them with a clap…
> (CS 36)

This example shows repetition which we can probably assume the teacher used in response to what he/she read from the students' reaction to understanding the English instructions. It seems the students were able to follow the instructions well enough to conduct the task successfully.

Despite the large number of examples of instruction in coding, most illustrated very little without knowing the student reaction. However, there were indications in both Primary and especially Secondary that task instructions in particular were being used and responded to with understanding and often in English. EIA materials support the use of English for classroom instruction and management.

3.3.3 Teachers' questions

Code definition and interpretation

This code covers all instances of teachers asking a question either to the whole class or to groups or individuals within the class. Questions were broken into two sub-categories:

a) *Closed questions*, where there is often a single 'correct answer' the teacher is looking for. A closed question can usually be answered with a short response (e.g. 'what is this?' 'Apple'/'an apple'/'it's an apple') or yes/no (e.g. 'is this an apple?' 'Yes'). Closed questions are quick and easy to answer and leave control with the questioner.

b) *Open questions*, where the questioner is seeking information and cannot predict what the answer will be. An open question deliberately demands a longer answer. It asks the respondent to think and reflect and hands control to the respondent.

How much teacher questioning takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Thirty-six lessons contained incidents of teachers' questions: i.e. 22 Primary lessons and 13 Secondary. Table 12 indicates the number of lessons where questioning was identified, and Table 13 the total number of incidents of questioning within all cases. Given the better level of English of Secondary school students, it is surprising that Secondary lessons had relatively fewer incidents of open questions (however, this could be an artefact of the sampling).

Table 12: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'teacher questioning' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Closed questions	22	13
Open questions	9	4
Total	21*	14*

* Note both sub-categories appear in some lessons

Table 13: Number of incidents of 'teacher questioning' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Closed questions	85	41
Open questions	15	5
Total	100	46

What is the nature of the questioning?

- **Closed questions**

Often the teacher was checking vocabulary through the use of the Primary poster.

> Then the teacher showed a picture in the poster and the Ss uttered with her in chorus.
> T: This is a cat.
> Ss: This is a cat.
> T: What is this?
> Ss: Ball.
> T: A ball.
> Ss: A ball.
> The teacher showed many pictures form the poster and talking about the colour. The students were answering in chorus.
> (CS 10)

Sometimes the teacher provided the stimulus through drawing.

> Teacher was drawing a picture in the board and asked 'what is this?'
> T: What is this? A leaf. What colour is it?
> One or two Ss could answer it.
> (CS 10)

At other times, the teacher used the textbook.

> T: Open your book.
> Indicating an animal on the book, teacher asked the students-
> T: Now tell me, 'what is this?'
> (CS 61)

For many of the closed questions, the teacher asked the question 'what is this?', using the stimulus from either a poster, textbook or audio, thereby requiring the students to produce an item of vocabulary in response.

There were also examples of 'who' questions from the teacher.

> You stand up- who is this?
> S: This is Amin.
> T: Pointing to the picture- Can you tell me who is this woman?
> S: This is Amin's teacher.
> T: Who is this man?
> S: This is Amin's father.
> T: Who is this girl?
> S: This is Amin's sister.
> (CS 32)

Very occasionally a teacher asked a yes/no question.

> T: Is there a television?
> Ss: No, it is not a television.

T: Is there a book-shelf?
Ss: Yes, there is.
T: Is there a chair?
Ss: Yes, there is.
(CS 19)

The use of closed questions results in the production of short answers from students, most frequently nouns and occasionally adjectives, though as the case studies show (see Report 3: Case studies; EIA, 2011b) there were instances of teachers insisting on students using phrases or sentences in their responses.

- **Open questions**

When asking open questions, phrases such as 'How do you….?', 'Why do you...?', 'What do you think about….?' are generally used to encourage the student to produce more extended speech. In all the incidents coded as 'open questions', there were no examples of such prompts. In so far as these questions do give students some choice over their response, they are characterised as open questions. However, the degree of 'openness' is very limited:

T: This is a nice poster, nice picture. Sundor na? (Isn't it nice?)
(T hangs the poster on the top of the Blackboard)
Onekgulo flowers ache, onek gulo sobuj ki ache? Dekho. Sobuj ki ki ache? Sobuj na, Patagulo sobuj na? (What can you see in the poster that is green in colour?)
(CS 35)

T: Calls 1 S (Nayon). "Tumi boltey parba jinish gulor nam? (could you tell the name of the things in the picture?)
S: Window, bookshelf, lamp.
(C S5)

(what things are in Asif's room?) Look at the picture and say.
Again teacher asked question to the Ss from iPod and helped Ss to give answer by looking at the poster.
(CS 53)

In the above, in all three examples is for at best a list of vocabulary. In this next incident, there is a possibility of more extended speech as the student is asked for her opinion on what she sees in the picture.

Teacher moved to a girl and said,
T: Number 1 picture. What do you mean by seeing this picture? Number 1 picture. Any one?
(CS 14)

In this final example, the teacher is in fact asking virtually a closed question, as although the student has some choice over the response, it anticipates a one word answer.

T: Tahmina, what do you want to be?
Tahmina : Ukil.
T : Advocate. ok. Sit down. Pointing to another student, what do you want to be?
2nd S : Nurse.

T : Ok. Good. Sit down. Pointing to another student, what do you want to be?

3rd S : Engineer

(CS 7)

The teacher misses the opportunity to progress into a properly open question, for example, by simply asking the students 'why?', thus opening up the dialogue in to more extended speech where the student would take control of the response. (This is not to deny the place of closed questions in a communicative approach.)

In general, although there is some attempt to ask open questions, most are closed. These closed questions are not in themselves evidence of a lack of a communicative approach. However, the lack of open questions (i.e. the limited expectations of extended speech by students) restricts extended communicative activity.

3.3.4 Body language

Code definition and interpretation

The code *body language* broken into two sub-codes**:**

a) *communicative*, which means using gesture to aid understanding, to reinforce learning and to support students; and

b) *purpose unknown*, which refers to using gesture with no clear purpose.

'Communicative' body language links gesture to meaningful reinforcement or support, for example miming an action, pointing at an object while naming it. The teacher may also use communicative body language while encouraging a student to continue speaking. A third use of communicative body language is in using gesture while organising the students, for example when dividing the class in half, putting students in pairs, and so on.

'Purpose unknown' records body language which is not clearly linked to any reinforcement or organisation. It should be noted that body language is part of all communication and, as such, may easily be overlooked by an observer who, of practical necessity, must select which incidents to record. It seems inevitable that, in terms of 'raw incidents', body language will be substantially under-reported. Moreover, body language can be subtle and is often difficult to interpret.

How much 'body language' takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Of the 46 cases used in the coding, 8 Primary lessons and 4 Secondary lessons contained incidents of using body language. Table 14 indicates the number of classes where body language is identified, and Table 15 the total number of incidents of body language within all cases.

Table 14: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'body language' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Communicative	6	4
Purpose unknown	2	0
Total	8	4

Table 15: Number of incidents of 'body language' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Communicative	12	8
Purpose unknown	3	0
Total	15	4

These tables show that in around a quarter of all Primary and Secondary lessons observed some form of body language was recorded, though, as noted above, this may be an artefact of the recording process.

What is the nature of the body language?

- **Communicative**

Several of the incidents of communicative body language recorded in Primary classes were in response to songs on the iPod. Sometimes these were gestures carried out by children:

> T: ok students, I am finishing my class.
> She played goodbye song and the Ss sang with bye sign by hand and were standing.
> (CS 10)

At other times the gestures were carried out by the teacher:

> Students were singing the song with the audio.
> Teacher said, you say with me.
> Teacher was showing gesture with the audio.
> (CS 16)

In both cases, the meanings of the words within the songs are reinforced.

At other times body language was used in teaching and demonstrating meaning, for example:

> T: How many fingers? (showing one finger)
> Ss: One finger.
> T: How many finger? One…two…(showing two fingers)
> Ss: Three finger…finger…finger…
> T: Thank you. Clap.
> This way teacher showed her fingers and students responded the numbers of the fingers. And that's how she counted 1-5 with the students.
> (CS 51)

It can also be used to clarify the meaning of grammatical concepts, as in this Primary example where the teacher was teaching 'in' and 'on'.

> T: When we put something (pen) in a bag then we use in.
> Ss: A pen in a bag, a book in a bag.
> T: What is in my hand?
> Ss: Box
> T: What is I put on the box and what will be…
> Ss: A fish on a box

T: Rokon (S name) come here. When I put chick on a box, what will be?
Rokon: A chick on a box.
T: We see what is the meaning of 'on'?
Ss: Upon.
T: What is the meaning of 'in'?
Ss: Inner.
(CS 77)

Some of the activities within the Primary materials are based on the use of body language, as in this example showing the game 'Golpu Dadu' (Simon Says):

T: Golpu Dadu says sit down. (those who don't seated come out. Out!)
Continuing game…
(CS 51)

It can also engage the students in the lesson, whilst simultaneously reinforcing meaning:

T was showing the Ss right and left with her hands. After that the ball was being passed all over the class. Then T asks the Ss to sing the rhyme as well pass the ball and Ss were doing so.
(CS 26)

Body language also has a major role to play in the classroom when the teacher is organising the students to take part in activities. Meaningful gestures can ensure that students understand what they have to do:

T: Okay now I will divided the class into two groups.
T Was indicating the middle row where Ss were to be divided.
T: This are group A (indicating to the left side of the class)
And this are group B (indicating to the right side of the class).
(CS 36)

It can be used to emphasise what the teacher wants the students to do.

T: My dear students, look at the picture (showing the picture)
(CS 55)

- **Purpose unknown**

The three recorded incidences of 'purpose unknown' are all records of children in Primary classes singing and clapping their hands to a song from the iPod.

It was a song and they were singing and clapping their hands
(CS 10)

Students were clapping their hands with the song:

Students were laughing and singing. And there body was moving. They were reciting the full poem.
(CS 16)

These examples show the students engaging with the materials, though the body language has no direct communicative purpose (apart from showing enjoyment and engagement with the song).

3.3.5 Modelling

Code definition and interpretation

In English lessons, teachers will frequently demonstrate an example of language or behaviour that they want their students to produce. Although, at its simplest, this is a matter of 'repeat after teacher', the aim is usually for the students to be able to reproduce the language or behaviour independently, later in the lesson. The code 'modelling' was broken down in two sub-codes: 'modelling language structure' and 'modelling language activity'.

How much modelling takes place?

Modelling was not a strategy used often in the observed lessons. It is recorded in a total of 7 primary and 6 secondary lessons. In Primary lessons it most commonly takes the form of modelling language items and structures, while in Secondary lessons modelling activities predominates (see Table 16).

Table 16: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'modelling' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Modelling language structure	6	2
Modelling language activity	1	4

What is the nature of the modelling?

- **Modelling language items and structures**

Some examples of modelling sit easily within a traditional concept of language teaching. In one case, the teacher simply pronounced a list of words (table, chair, clock, bookshelf, book, picture, calendar), which the students repeated (CS 5). Another example was highly directive, and mediated in Bangla:

> Teacher 'Yes' bolbeto! (You should say 'Yes'.)
> Ss: Yes teacher.
> (CS35)

This teacher continued to require the repetition of isolated English words, eventually modelling a sentence form:

> T: Good, The .... Orange .... is …................. Yellow.
> Tahole, (So) Banana is yellow, The orange is yellow.
> (CS35)

This did not, however, appear to be effective, as when the teacher later modelled a related structure ('A red rose', 'A black banana'), the students failed to respond.

More effective was the teacher who modelled a sentence in order to correct a student's attempt. That the student grasps the pattern is illustrated by its repetition with different vocabulary:

> K: My favourite colour?
> T: What's your favourite colour?
> K: What's your favourite colour?

S: My favourite colour is green.
K: What's your favourite sport?
S: My favourite sports are cricket and football.
(CS28)

A similar example was found in another classroom:

T: How many apple?
T: One apple.
T: How many cup?
G: One cup.
(CS51)

All the examples of language modelling above are from Primary classrooms. All instances of language modelling observed in Secondary classrooms (and one of the Primary incidents) relate language structure to actions.

In a Primary example (CS 11), the teacher asked 'Would you hand me your English book, please?', 'Would you open the window, please?', 'Would you give me your pen, please?'. Students responded with appropriate actions, and although they are not recorded using the structure productively, the fact that after each request is spoken it is written on the board implies that students will be expected to learn it.

The two Secondary incidents both involved teaching the present perfect tense:

T (closes the door and asks): What have I done?
Ss: (Response unclear)
T: I have closed the door.
[…]
T: Present perfect. We can tell this kind of sentence. You (Indicates to a G)
G: I have closed the door.
T: Okay, I will write it on the blackboard and you have to make another sentence.
(T start writing a sentence in the board- "I have closed the door".)
T: You can tense 'I have closed my book'. You have to change this word (Indicate to "the door")
not that. (Indicates to "I have closed")
G: I have closed my book.
(CS36)

The teacher in CS 55 followed a similar pattern of speaking to accompany action, and then explained the syntactic structure:

T: Good, very good. I have just arrived, I have just arrived that the class.
Said different sentence. Arekti sentence bolo
I have just, I have just...
S: Opened the door.
Other Ss: 'Opened the door.'
Ts: I have just opened the door.
S: I have just closed the door.

T goes to the door, and closes and opens it with his actions,
Ss respond as -
When T opens the door, they said: 'I have just opened the door.'
When T closes the door, they say: 'I have just closed the door.'
T: Hmm, get it, perfect.
Ss (in chorus): Yes.
T (Taking the duster from the desk): I have just, I have just taken the duster.
Ss utter the same sentence with the T.
T (Dropping the duster): I have just...
Ss: Dropped the duster.
(CS 55)

Incidentally both of these cases exemplify the principle of teaching grammar in context.

- **Modelling an activity**

When asking students to undertake a relatively complex activity, such as a game or role play, often the simplest way for the teacher to get the message across is to demonstrate the required actions. The Primary teacher in CS13 introduced a number guessing game, saying:

I have a number it has four letter, first letter f. a rokom vabe tomra prosno korba oe pokkhoke.
(you will stand and ask question. I have a number it has four letters, first letter f. like this you will ask question to another group)
(CS 13)

In four Secondary cases (CS 15, CS 36, CS 55 and CS 60), teachers initiated dialogue practice by getting a chosen pair of students to enact the dialogue to the class.

Modelling is not as yet a widely-used strategy in EIA classrooms, and several of the incidents reported do not owe much to communicative approaches, often being little (if anything) more than 'repeat after the teacher'. However, a number of teachers (only one of whom was a Primary teacher) have been able to deploy the strategy in a way which enables students to use a target structure or take part in a game or dialogue in a way which can be described as communicative.

3.3.6 Repetition

Code definition and interpretation

Repetition refers to repeating a word, phrase or text several times in an exchange. This code was broken in to two sub-codes:

(a) *Single student*, where an individual student repeats after the teacher or from the textbook, audio, etc., and,

(b) *Choral*, where the whole class (or at least a group of students) repeats after the teacher or from the textbook, audio, etc. This includes traditional language teaching practices like drilling.

Drills are generally associated with the audio-lingual approach to language learning in which a stimulus-response-reinforcement pattern is followed (Harmer 2007: 64). Although drills are not directly linked with the grammar-translation method, they are considered traditional due to their being mechanical i.e. focusing on form (words, structures) rather than meaning.

How much 'repetition' takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Of the 46 cases used in the coding, 21 contained incidents of 'repetition' (16 Primary and 5 Secondary). That means fewer than half of the lessons contained incidents of repetition: half of Primary lessons and a quarter of the Secondary lessons.

The number of lessons which contained incidents of either single or choral repetition is listed in Table 17.

Table 17: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'repetition' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Single	5	3
Choral	16	4

The majority of lessons included either single student repetition or choral repetition – not both. Only 5 Primary lessons contained both student repetition and choral repetition; none of the Secondary lessons contained both.

The breakdown of incidents of 'student' and 'choral' repetition are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Number of incidents of 'repetition' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary (No. of incidents)	Secondary (No. of incidents)
Student	8	8
Choral	50	7

This means that in the 16 Primary lessons where repetition took place, there were a total of 8 instances of single student repetition and 50 instances of choral repetition. In the 5 Secondary lessons where repetition took place, there were a total of 8 instances of single student repetition and 7 instances of choral repetition. This suggests that choral repetition is happening much more often in Primary classrooms.

What is the nature of 'repetition'?

- **Repetition of classroom materials**

In some cases, the students all recited together a poem or rhyme, an EIA song, or a text from the textbook. This is often followed by several individual students reciting the poem on their own, as in the following example from a Primary lesson:

> Now the students recite the rhyme sleepy head, sleepy head....
> T: Rumi stand up.
> S: Reciting the rhyme sleepy head, sleepy head....
> T: Very good. Clap her.
> All the students clapped.
> (CS 1)

After a choral recitation of a rhyme, the students often sang it together:

> Then T and Ss drill first five lines of the rhyme.
> Then T and Ss start singing the rhyme with gesture.
> Then T takes a ball in her hand.
> …
> T play the rhyme. At that time, the Ss stand up and start singing the rhyme with the audio and T with gesture.
> After finishing T plays the audio one more time.
> (CS 26)

In some cases, the students repeated after a recorded EIA dialogue:

> Then after every sentence teacher paused the audio and students repeated the sentence from the book. Sometimes teacher also repeated the sentence.
> …
> Then teacher again started reading and asked students to read after him.
> (CS 56)

However, in other cases the students repeated as the teacher read from the *EfT* textbook:

> Ss were reading the text after the teacher.
> (CS 30)

or:

> T: Now, I am reading after repeat me, repeat.
> …
> Ss were reading the text after the teacher.
> (CS 30)

This practice of repetition seems to be the primary means by which students learn songs and rhymes. It also seems as if they work towards memorising texts from the textbook in this way. Perhaps teachers assume that students' memorisation of chunks of language by repetition will help them acquire fluency in English. (This is a matter on which the research evidence is mixed; Wray, 1999.)

- **Repetition to introduce new language**

Teachers also used repetition to introduce new language structures and vocabulary, as the examples from Primary below demonstrate:

> She wrote some names of colours on in the board and was pronouncing those. The students were repeating after her utterances.
> (CS 10)

In Primary lessons, the teachers used repetition to introduce or practice numbers:

> T was saying the numbers 1 to 20.
> T: Now everyone follow me.
> T drill twice with the Ss. 1, 2, 3,… 20.
> (CS 24)

or, as similarly seen in this example:

> Ss: counting
> T: One finger, one, one, one, …................
> Ss: One finger, One, one, one....................
> Teacher showed his one finger and called one;
> Ss were also drilling with showing their fingers with their teacher.
> T (*in Bangla*): Put down your hands, you need not to shake your hands.
> In this way teacher counted till five by drilling with the students, and all Ss participated in this
> activity and they enjoyed this.
> (CS 29)

After the whole class had repeated the numbers in chorus, individual students are often called on to recite the numbers:

> T. ask individual Ss
> Jahura: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
> ….
> Continue..............Raju, Hafiza, Nabodeep:1, 2, 3, 4, 5
> T. Excellent
> (CS 41)

Repetition was used to introduce or reinforce other vocabulary or phrases as well:

> T: Big, small, big, small.....
> Ss: Big, small, big, small.....(chorus with the teacher)
> T: Fat, thin, fat, thin...
> Ss: Fat, thin, fat, thin.....
>
> T: Repeat please, repeat please
> T: Big, small...fat, thin...old, young...
> Continuing...
> (CS 52)

or:

> T – Table, chair, clock, bookshelf, book, picture, calendar.
> While the teacher says the name of the things, Ss repeat with the T.
> …
> The S reads loudly the name of the things, others repeat with him loudly.
> (CS 5)

Again in this example, an individual student was asked to repeat the vocabulary after the whole class has chorused it.

- **Repetition as student involvement**

Finally, repetition seems to be quite common as a means of checking understanding or holding students' attention. In some cases students were often asked to repeat what the teacher has just said or written, as in the following example from a Secondary classroom:

'Discovering a vitamin'
She wrote it in the board.
She said the words and Ss said with her in chorus.
(CS 12)

3.3.7 Eliciting

Code definition and interpretation

Eliciting (elicitation) covers a range of techniques which enable the teacher to get learners to produce target language for themselves rather than have the teacher provide it for repetition. In Vygotskian terms, it represents a way of working within a student's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky 1978), encouraging students to speak words and phrases of which they may not be certain, then affirming them through feedback. This is commonly thought of in ELT as 'bringing students' knowledge to the surface'. Commonly, eliciting is used to ask learners to come up with vocabulary and language forms and rules, and to brainstorm a topic at the start of a skills lesson.

The code 'eliciting' was broken into two sub-codes:

a) *English question Bangla answer* – teacher uses English questioning to elicit answer in Bangla from students, and

b) *English question Bangla answer* – teacher uses English questioning to elicit answer in English from students.

How much 'eliciting' takes place?

As each coding element is an incident, then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Of the 46 cases (28 Primary and 18 Secondary) used in the coding, 27 contained incidents of eliciting: 18 Primary lessons and 9 Secondary lessons. Table 19 indicates the number of lessons where eliciting is identified, and Table 20 the total number of incidents of eliciting within all cases.

Table 19: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'eliciting' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Bangla answer	7	1
English answer	17	8
Total	18*	9

* Note both sub-categories appear in some lessons

Table 20: Number of incidents of 'eliciting' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Bangla response	9	1
English response	52	32
Total	61	33

These tables show that more than half of all classes observed displayed some form of eliciting; half of Primary lessons and three-quarters of Secondary lessons. Overwhelmingly, in both Primary and

Secondary lessons, teachers were seeking to elicit, and students provided a response in English.

What is the nature of the elicitation?

- **Bangla answers**

Often the teacher provided a stimulus using EIA Primary posters. The students' answers in Bangla confirm they understood the narrative in the picture.

> T: Sagor stand up. What is she doing here?
> S: Teeth your brush. Brush your teeth (Datt brush korse).
> (CS1)

> T: Akhi stand up. What she is doing here?
> S: She is drinking the water. (Panni pann korse)
> (CS1)

The teacher continues (the second example above) by probing the vocabulary knowledge of the students.

> T: Could you tell me the English of pani?
> S: Water.
> T: Yes, water. Thank you …..
> (CS1)

Eliciting was also used to check understanding of a structure or, as in following case, punctuation rules in writing. In this example the teacher is explaining where to put the comma when listing three or more items.

> She asked one boy and wrote on board –
> What do you like to eat?
> B1: I like to eat banana, apple and mango.
> T: Comma kothay boshe? (Where is the comma?)
> B1: banana er por (after banana).
> (CS11)

It is worth noting that it is often difficult to distinguish clearly between elicitation and questioning.

- **English answers**

In the Secondary lessons there was an example of the teacher using elicitation during pre-reading/ listening to brainstorm students' understanding of a topic.

> T: What are they called?
> G: They called tribal people.
> T:…..Do you know where they live?
> G: They live in different parts of the country.
> (CS60)

There was also an example of the teacher knowing when to give up eliciting and offering some input him/herself when the response was not forthcoming.

T: Do you know what is diary? (two times)
(Ss do not reply)
T: Every person writes some memory in his own self or another person. Do you know this? It is called a diary.
(CS36)

Eliciting can be used to check students' understanding of grammar structures and forms. In this example the teacher checked the students' recognition of the present perfect tense.

T: (Closed the door) What have I done?
Ss: (Ss responded all together)
T: I have closed the door. Which tense I use it?
Ss: Present perfect.
(CS36)

In another case study, the teacher used elicitation to ensure that students not only recognised the form but could also produce it.

T goes to the door and closes and opens it…
When T opened the door, they said: 'I have just opened the door',
when T closes the door they said: ' I have just closed the door'.
T: Hmm get it, perfect.
(CS55)

In a Primary lesson, the teacher elicited colour adjectives from the students by drawing objects on the board.

T: A rose is…
Ss: Red.
She drew a picture of rose on the board.
T: A sky is…
Ss: Blue.
T: My hair is …
Ss: Black
She showed and drew things and asked about the colour. The students could answer.
(CS10)

In another Primary class, the teacher elicited the numbers 1–5 from the students by using gesture.

T: how many finger?
Ss: one finger….
T: how many finger?
Ss: Two finger
Continuing….T counted from 1 – 5 and wrote the numbers on board.
(CS51)

3.3.8 Choral dialogue

Code definition and interpretation

Choral dialogue is when the whole class speaks in chorus. Usually this is to practice a dialogue, for example one that is in the textbook. Generally, one half of the class reads the part of one of the characters in the dialogue, while the other half reads the other part. Choral dialogue is useful because it gives all students a chance to speak. It also provides support for weaker students as they do not have to perform on their own. Instead, they can join in with their classmates, and if they make a mistake, they are not exposed. Often, students feel more comfortable practising the foreign language in a group rather than individually in the classroom, particularly at the beginning. There may be less fear of making mistakes and losing face. So, choral work helps to build students' confidence. After a choral dialogue activity, teachers might then do a pair work activity where students can practice the language in a pair or smaller group.

Choral dialogue is the topic of Module 2 of the EIA Secondary Teacher Guide. In the lesson plans for this module, teachers are guided in undertaking a choral dialogue in the Class 7, Unit 1, Lesson 5, which is about the diary of Anne Frank.

The code 'choral dialogue' was not broken into sub-codes.

How much 'choral dialogue' takes place?

There were no instances of choral dialogue in the Primary lessons and 3 instances in the Secondary lessons. It is most likely that this is because choral dialogue is the topic of Module 2 of the EIA Secondary Teaching Guide, whilst it does not feature prominently in the Primary materials.

What is the nature of the 'choral dialogue'?

In two cases where choral dialogue was observed, it was in a lesson that followed the sample Lesson plan from Class 7 about the diary of Anne Frank from the Secondary Teacher Guide, Module 2.

In this example (CS 36), the teacher first did some choral repetition, where the students repeated the recorded dialogue after hearing it on the iPod:

> Now, I will play an audio. You will act Mr. Brown and Mrs. Brown.
> (T starts playing the audio on the block rocker. The iPod was prepared. So, no delay to play the audio. After playing a sentence, T pauses the audio and explains it.)
> T: Why you are looking so sad?
> (T repeats and Ss drill with him. T plays the audio and pauses again.)
> T & Ss: I've just read a very sad book. (Two times)
> (T plays the audio and pause again.)
> T: What's it called?
> (Ss were repeating after T)
> T: The Diary of.....
> Ss: Anne Frank
> (Though the T can't pause the audio in time, this dialogue was played on the iPod earlier. So T was reading from the book. T stopped the audio here for today.)

T & Ss: The Diary of Anne Frank.
First, Mr. Brown, why you are looking....
T & Ss: So sad. (Two times)
T: Mrs. Brown, I have just read a
T & Ss: very sad book. (Three times)
T & Ss: Again Mr. Brown, what's it called? (Three times)
T & Ss: Mrs. Brown, The Diary of Anne Frank. (Two times)
T: I have never heard of it. (Two times)
(It wasn't played on the audio.)
T: Again say, I have never heard of it.
(CS 36)

The teacher then set up the class to speak the dialogue between Mrs. Brown and Mr. Brown, as suggested in the EIA materials. Here the teacher also used the classroom language suggested for the lesson, such as 'You are Mr. Brown'.

T: Okay, now I will divide the class into two groups.
(T was indicating the middle row where Ss were to be divided, because there were three rows in the classroom.)
T: This is group A. (Two times) (Indicating to the left side of the class.)
and this is group B. (Indicating to the right side of the class.)
Now, group A will act Mr. Brown, You are Mr. Brown.
And you are Mrs. Brown. (Two times)
Now we will act. First time, you will act with me.
T: Mr. Brown, why you are looking so sad? (Three times)
(Ss were repeating with T. Then T goes to the another side. During this time two dogs enter into the classroom and move in the middle of the class.)
T & Ss: Mrs. Brown, I have just read a very sad book. (Two times)
(T goes to the left side.)
T & Ss: What's it called? (Two times)
(T goes to right side.)
T: Mrs. Brown.
Ss: The Diary of Anne Frank. (Two times)
(T again goes to the Mr. Brown side and then starts saying -)
Ss: I have never heard of it. (Three times)
T: Now close your book and hear the audio again.
(T plays the audio. This time, T played the full audio. But this time he played the selected part of the audio which was practiced.)
T: Okay, Mr. Brown. (Indicate to the left side)
Left side Ss: Why you are looking so sad?
Right side Ss: I have just read a very sad book?
Left side Ss: What's it called?
Right side Ss: The Diary of Anne Frank.
Left side Ss: I have never heard of it.

(In the meantime, T was his hand left to right side though the Ss were telling the dialogues as a memorized lesson. T practices the dialogues three times with the Ss.)
(CS 36)

After this part of the lesson, the teacher organised pair work so that students could practice the dialogue in smaller groups, as also suggested in the EIA materials. The teacher even practiced the grammar aspect of the lesson (the present perfect), as suggested in the materials.

The second example of choral dialogue also came from the Class 7 lesson about Anne Frank (CS 55). In this case, the teacher did not use the pre-recorded dialogue from the iPod. Instead, he read the dialogue from the textbook, offered a translation, and then the students repeated after him line by line.

> T: Mr. Brown, why are you looking so sad? Why are you looking so sad. Ki bollo, Mr Brown. Ki bollo.
> Ss : Why are you looking so sad?
> T: Mrs. Brown: I've just read a very sad book.
> Ss repeat the sentence.
> T: Mrs. Brown ki bollo?
> Ss: I've just read a very sad book.
> T: I've just read a very sad book, Mr. Brown, What's it called? Mr. Brown ki bollo?
> Ss: What's it called?
> T: What's it called? Mrs. Brown, The diary of Anne Frank. Mrs. Brown ki bollo?
> Ss: The diary of Anne Frank.
> T: Mr. Brown, I've never heard of it. Mr. Brown ki bollo?
> Ss: I've never heard of it.
> T: Mrs. Brown says, it's the diary of a young Dutch Jewish girl. Ki bollo Mrs. Brown.
> Ss: It's the diary of a young Dutch Jewish girl.
> (CS 55)

The teacher then had two students perform the dialogue for the class. After that, he organised the class into two groups to perform the dialogue as a choral dialogue. Again in this example, the teacher follows much of the guidance from the EIA materials, and also used some of the recommended classroom language. However, it should be noted that the EIA materials recommend that students first practise the dialogue as a whole class (as a choral dialogue) before they work in pairs. This gives students more practise before having to read the dialogue on their own.

> T: Now, my dear Ss, we are dividing group two. This class we are dividing group-2. Suppose or say, you are (Group-1) Mr. Brown, and you (Group-2) are Mrs. Brown.
> Group-1(13 Ss in chorus): Why are you looking so sad?
> Group-2: I've just read a very sad book.
> T (indicating Group-1): you are Mr. Brown. Speak.
> Group-1: Continues.
> The dialogue ends.
> T: Tomra Mr. Brown carry on, again, again. Abar abar bolo.
> Same dialogue again …
> (CS 55)

After this activity, the teacher asked the students to work in pairs to discuss a dialogue from the textbook.

In the third case where choral dialogue occurred (CS 36), the students took part in an activity that the teacher called a 'choral dialogue'. However, from the observation notes it seems this activity is in fact more of a group game – using two halves of the class – than a dialogue:

> A girl from A-group, namely Popy, said to B-group 'touch your head'. B-group touched their head. All of the girls in B-group said 'touch your eyes'. The girls in A-group touched their eyes. At that time a few girls were laughing with each other.

The teacher, however, uses some of the techniques that are promoted in the module, for example:

> The teacher divided all thirty girls into two groups: Group A and Group B. They stood in two rows facing each other. They stood at the blank space of their U-Shaped sitting arrangement. Then the teacher told them: "A-group question B-group, B-group question A-group. A-group answer the question." [This is an example of a teacher using a technique promoted in the EIA materials in another lesson.]

Other than this instance, it is interesting that the only examples of choral dialogue were directly from the EIA materials. This seems to indicate that the practice is not being taken on more generally.

3.3.9 Reflection on teacher-led activity

The highest incidence of events recorded in this subsection was in those categories, such as 'teacher presenting' and 'teacher instruction', where there is clear teacher dominance in the teaching and learning process. In some cases this is almost certainly evidence of the persistence of a traditional, highly teacher-directed approach, but not in all. The key to identifying the difference between traditional teacher-led pedagogies and those which, while teacher-led are nonetheless more supportive of a communicative approach, lies in the way students respond and are expected to respond. Although the observation data does not always show these responses, we have evidence that in some instances teacher-led practices are taking place in the context of a communicative approach. Teachers' questions and elicitations can be the first act in an interactive sequence, while their body language and subsequent utterances may encourage and scaffold students' contributions.

Even the more formal teacher language of instructions, presentation of information and the modelling of language, may provide a context in which students can participate actively. Eliciting, which can be construed in behaviourist terms as students responding appropriately (or not) to the stimulus of their teacher's words, can be seen more valuably as a social constructivist strategy which forces the initiative for speaking – and therefore for thinking and learning – onto the individual student. The same is of course true of those instances where teachers' questions are sufficiently open to require an individual response. These things can be seen as signs of at least a degree of student-centredness.

Further evidence of teacher language being used in a communicative way can be found where words are associated with action. This may be the main intention of the utterance, as, for example, when a verb form is illustrated by the closing of a door (CS 36); or when the teacher asks students to give her various classroom objects (CS 11); or in the incidental way in which gesture is used to reinforce the meaning of classroom instructions (CS 36); or by students and teachers as they listen to and sing a song. Several of these examples show language in use for communicative purpose.

None of the above is to claim that the bulk of evidence in this subsection supports a view of a fully communicative classroom. However, it is clear that there is more going on in these classrooms than a simple transmission model, built on imitation and repetition of the teacher; there are emerging signs of various elements of communicative practice. Teacher-led practices can be the first step within a progression of activities to activities in which students are able to exercise a greater degree of autonomy. For example, in the subsection which follows there are examples of choral dialogue being used as the basis for dialogue work in pairs.

3.4 Student-focused activity

Student initiative, student presentation, pair and group work, expansion, individual work

3.4.1 Student initiative

Code definition and interpretation

Any event in which a student makes a contribution to a lesson without the prompting or invitation of the teacher is recorded as an example of student initiative. The code 'student initiative' was not broken into sub-codes.

How much 'student initiative' takes place?

Only four examples of student initiative were noted: three in Secondary lessons and one in Primary. No lesson included more than one example of student initiative.

What is the nature of 'student initiative'?

The single Primary example was of a student volunteering that he has completed a task. In each of the Secondary examples, a student asked a spontaneous question, one procedural:

> One S: Page no?
> T: Page no. 6.
> Ss: Six.
> T: Open your book, page no. 6, lesson-5, (sound of traffic heard)
> (CS 55)

and one seeking clarification of vocabulary:

> One G: What is diary?
> T: This is called diary. (T Showing the diary.)
> Okay, understand?
> Few Ss: Yes sir.
> (CS 36)

The remaining Secondary example involves spontaneous peer support:

> The girl couldn't understand. Other girls helped her to understand by saying in Bangla 'jore'. The presenter girl smile and started to present their group work.
> (CS 14)

The overall impression in terms of student initiative is of classrooms where the initiative remains with the teacher. A little encouragement can be gained from the fact that all the Secondary examples involve students volunteering a genuine question in English: small examples of English used for communicative purpose.

3.4.2 Student presentation

Code definition and interpretation

Student presentation refers to when students read or talk about their work after an activity (individually, as a pair or a group). Incidents of students talking about their work were mainly examples of practising dialogues in pair work. The code 'student presentation' had two sub-codes: i) reading to the class/ teacher and ii) talking about work.

How much 'student presentation' takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Of the 46 cases used in the coding, 5 Primary lessons and 5 Secondary contained incidents of 'student presentation'. The number of incidents of student presentation is quite low. Secondary students seemed to have more time than their Primary counterparts to present their work. Table 21 indicates this.

Table 21: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'student presentation' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Reading to class /teacher	4	1
Talking about work	1	4
Total	5	5

The breakdown of incidents of 'reading to the class or teacher' and 'talking about work' are shown in Table 22.

Table 22: Number of incidents of 'student presentation' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Reading to class /teacher	5	5
Talking about work	1	3
Total	6	8

These tables show that less than a sixth of the Primary lessons observed but over a third of the Secondary lessons had some form of student presentation.

What is the nature of student presentation?

- **Reading to class or teacher (Primary)**

The incidents of reading to the class or teacher in Primary were addressed to individual students. In one lesson two students were directed to stand up and read their writing:

She told one student to stand up and say her writing.
She did same activity for some Ss and helped them to answer.
(CS 11)

In three other lessons, something similar happened:

Some Ss raise their hands
T asks one G Santa by name to read it .
Santa reads the passage and everyone clap her.
Two other Ss also read the lesson from the textbook.
(CS 32)

T calls one student to read out what is written on board.
S reads it loudly, teacher uses a stick to indicate the particular words.
T then calls another S to come in front of the board and read the words loudly, instructs other to
say the same words with the S at the front of the class.
(CS 5)

- **Reading to class or teacher (Secondary)**

All the incidents of reading to the class or teacher in Secondary were recorded from a single lesson (CS
14). With the five incidents, students were reading from their notes about topics covered in the lesson:

A student went to the front and read about Mother Teresa from her notes written in the group.
(CS 14)

Then teacher said: "now another group, you come here and read your paragraph". A girl came and
started to read.
(CS 14)

Teacher asked another student: "Do you complete?"
Girl said: "yes".
Teacher said: "You come here then present your writing".
The girl went to front and started to read in low voice.
(CS 14)

S: I am a Nipa. I am a student of class six. My school's name is Khilgaon Girls High School.
(CS 14)

S: I am Habiba. I am a student of class nine. My father name is Mahbubul Kuddus. My mother
name is Nilufar Khanam. […] my two older brother and sister. My school name is Khilgaon Khan
Girls High School.
(CS 14)

- **Talking about work**

In general, there were higher number of incidents of students talking about work in both Primary and
Secondary. These incidents were somewhat more communicative (in Secondary) because students are
generally required to speak in English, often through pair work.

In this Primary example, a student presents what he learnt about the contents of 'Kamal's bedroom'.

T calls a student (Nayon) to say are the things available in his bedroom.
Nayon says the name of the things.
T says everybody to clap for him.
(CS 15)

Examples from four Secondary lessons are of a student reading aloud about Mother Teresa.

A student went to the front to read about Mother Teresa
(CS 14)

In other lessons, there were two examples of students practising dialogues (talking about work) in pair work:

T (T stops the Ss by clapping.): Now I will make pair, get into pair.
You two in a pair........ You two in a pair............ (Many times for many Ss.) and that's like.
(T was indicating some Ss to make pair.)
T selected a pair to come in front of the class: This pair, come here. (Two times)
When Ss were coming T ask them to come with their books)
T: Now you are Mr. Brown and you are Mrs. Brown. Now you will act Mr. Brown and you will act Mrs. Brown.
(T stands these two Gs face-to-face.)
T: Now, come in front of her. Mr. Brown
Ss start conversation.
After their conversation, T pronounces the sentence which was not clear from the Ss conversation.
Then T exchanged their roles.
Then the Ss continued their dialogue practice 4/5 times. After finishing, a few Ss were clapping then T claps.)
(CS 36)

T: Okay, now this pair, come here. (Two times)
(T asks a pair to come in front of the class and they come.)
You will ask (Indicate to a G) and you will answer (Indicate to another G) and you will check your answer with them. (Indicate to all the Ss.)
(One G was asking question and another one was answering looking at her exercise book. After a question answering two times T says-)
T: Is she correct?
Ss: Yes sir.
(Then the pair started asking another question.)
(CS 36)

In another lesson, a group of Secondary students presented the dialogue they worked on:

G3: I am Santa.
G4: I am Rabea. Now we discuss about our dialogue.
G3: Hello Rabea, how are you?
G4: I am fine and you.
G3: I am fine. Can I ask you something?

G4: yes, of course, what purpose?
G3: About the Eskimo. What kinds of house that traditional Eskimo used?
G4: Igloo house.
G3: What type of food?
G4: Whatever they get.
(CS 60)

3.4.3 Pair and group work

Code definition and interpretation

Pair and group work refers to times in a lesson when students are working together in pairs or in larger groups. The code 'pair and group work' was broken into two sub-codes:

i) *organisational (no interaction)*: where the division seems to be merely a matter of organization and students continue to function as individuals (or individual members of a whole class working in concert)

ii) *used with interaction*: where there is a clear intention on the part of the teacher for the activity to be interactive (i.e. students have the reason to interact with each other in some way).

How much pair and group work takes place?

Both the Primary and Secondary materials for teachers promote the use of group and pair work, and this is reflected in a fairly high incidence. This kind of activity takes place in half of all Primary and Secondary lessons analysed. There is an interesting difference between Primary and Secondary phases in the balance of interactive and organisational group work: in both cases, interactive group work predominates, however, in Primary this is in a 2:1 ratio, while in Secondary, all cases but one are interactive.

The breakdown of incidents of 'pair and group work' is shown in Table 23.

Table 23: Number of pair and group work incidents in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
With interaction	19	14
Organisational	6	1
Total	25	15

What is the nature of pair and group work?

The examples of organisational group and pair work in Primary classrooms were divided equally between grouping students for the sake of performing a song or rhyme, and some kind of reading activity, where students are organised into groups but read independently. In the one case of organisational grouping in a Secondary class it is difficult to see the purpose of the activity.

Of the examples of interactive group work, the form of activity which departs least from the practice of whole-class teaching involves splitting the class into two groups, still led from the front by the teacher. In Secondary classrooms there were examples of choral dialogue, which is the subject of Module 2 of

EIA Secondary Teacher Guide. In this technique, each half of the class takes on one role in the dialogue, which is then enacted in chorus (CS 36, CS 55). Although there are no instances of choral dialogue in Primary classrooms, there are four Primary instances of this kind of organisation (CS 13, CS 31, CS 4, and CS 5). In each of the cases, individual students were required to ask questions of a member of the other group. In another Secondary case, the class moved from a question and answer activity (of the kind used in Primary classes) to practicing short dialogues to finally returning to an activity where members of one group take turns to ask questions of individual members of the other group.

In several cases, teachers provide a focus for interaction by giving students something tangible to discuss. This may be a printed resource, such as an EIA poster (CS 10) or an image in the textbook (CS 32) or some other text (CS 14), but may also be some kind of work done by the students themselves. Thus in two Primary cases, students check or compare a completed task (CS 11, CS 19) whilst in two more cases, students are given an additional pair work task to do once their writing or drawing is complete:

Now, ask the S next to you what he\she has drawn.
(CS32)

T: Please open your book page-20 and complete the sentences in the exercise.
(Ss do the work individually)
T: make pair and ask each other, true or false.
(Ss do accordingly)
(CS42)

The link between oral pair and group work is quite strong, especially in Secondary. For example, in one instance (CS 36), choral dialogue is used to prepare students for writing questions of their own, while group discussion of a text (CS 14) is a precursor to individual written work.

There were some examples of teachers' designing tasks specifically to encourage collaboration. In a Primary lesson (CS 31), groups of students were given sets of words to rearrange into sentences, while in a secondary class groups of students were asked to work together on the drafting of a set of five statements.

3.4.4 Expansion

Code definition and interpretation

The technique of expansion takes an example of language which has just been practised and recasts it into a different linguistic or semantic context, thus giving students the opportunity to practise the item or structure in question in a way which has not been directly taught. It is therefore an opportunity to exercise a degree of linguistic creativity. The code 'expansion' was broken into two sub-codes:

i) *personalisation*, by which students are asked to apply the language to themselves and,

ii) *development of task*, in which the language must be tried in a different context.

How much 'expansion' takes place?

The analysis of the coding of expansion is 'incident' based. The frequency of incidents is gauged by the number of items coded in the 'expansion' data field. Examples of expansion are not numerous, as Table 24 shows; of the 46 cases codes, 11 lessons contained expansion (7 Primary and 4 Secondary).

Table 24: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons in which 'expansion' occurs

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Personalisation	5	2
Development of task	2	2
Total	7	4

This means that expansion occurred in just under a quarter of Primary and Secondary lessons.

The number of incidents is higher (see Table 25), but this is largely a matter of a small number of lessons having a group of related incidents, rather than a number of genuinely separate occurrences.

Table 25: Number of incidents in which 'expansion' occurs in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Personalisation	10	4
Development of task	4	2
Total	14	6

What is the nature of 'expansion'?

There were three Primary lesson examples of task development which involved extending the reference of a language pattern. One teacher asked students to practise a preposition structure by introducing different nouns:

> Ss: a pen in a bag, a book in a bag.
> T. what is in my hand?
> Ss: Box.
> T. What is I put on the box and what will be?
> Ss: A fish on a box.
> T: Rokon(A S name) come here? When I put chalk on a box, what will be?
> Rokon: A chalk on a box.
> T: What is this?
> Ss: Bird...A bird on a box.
> (CS 77)

Finally extended it to:

> In a field I saw a cow .... in field I saw a goat ....
> (CS 77)

Another teacher followed a counting activity by asking students to count their own fingers.

There was just one example where the focus is solely on the student:

> T: Sadia, you stand up, where is Samia from?
> G: Samia from at Chowgacha.
> T: Where are you from?

G: I am from Chowgacha.
Continuing ....
T: What's your favourite colour?
B: Red
T: What's your hobby?
B: Gardening
Teacher asked the pupils about where they came from, their favourite colour, hobby etc. and Ss responded well to the teacher's questions.
(CS 28)

All the other examples of expansion were based on the *EfT* textbook. In Primary, this related to two lessons, one about a family:

After the hello song,
T: Thank you.
Then he started asking question to the Ss individually.
T: Meem, stand up. What's your mother's name?
G1: My mother's name is ....
T: Stand up (indicating a girl). What's your mother?
G2: My mother's name is …..........
G2 gave wrong answer. Teacher asked her the question again with loud voice.
T: What's your mother?
G2: My mother is a house wife.
Teacher asked above two questions to another 3 girls and 3 boys.
(CS 31)

and:

T: Can you say- have you any brother?
[…]
T: Can you say- have you any sister?
[…]
T: We have a family like Mita. Can you tell me - who are there in our family? Tell me in English (In Bangla)
Ss: Mother, Father, Sister, Brother.
(CS 32)

The other lesson was about 'Kamal's bedroom' and also involves personalisation:

T calls a student (Nayon) to say what are the things available in his bedroom.
Nayon says the name of the things. T says everybody to clap him.
(CS 5)

In the second example of this, students were in the questioning role:

G: Is there a table in your house?
G: Yes.
[…]

Joty: Is there a bed in your house?
G: Yes.
[…]
G: There is a door in your house?
G: Yes, there is.
T: Yes, there is. Fine (Ss clap)
T: Billal stand up. Question her.
Billal: There is a bed in your house?
(CS 30)

This teacher took the personalisation a step further by suggesting students 'play this game at home'.

All of the four Secondary lessons take a major element of *EfT* as the basis for a new development. In the two examples of personalisation, students were required to write their own biography (CS 14) and diary (CS 36) following, respectively the lessons on Mother Theresa's biography and the diary of Anne Frank. In one example of development of task, students, after reading a story about a kitchen fire, for homework had to write a paragraph about a new cooker (CS 70); in another, a textbook chapter about 'Eskimos' was followed by writing about a different group of tribal people (CS 60).

Expansion is a strategy which is not used widely and most of the incidences seemed to be planned. It may be that some examples (e.g. 'There is a bed in your house' (CS 30)) arise from a teacher's spontaneous skill, but evidence for this is not firm. The Secondary examples are interesting in the way they illustrated a teaching strategy in which students are asked to apply knowledge acquired in the context of a particular textbook lessons to a slightly different context.

3.4.5 Individual work

Code definition and interpretation

A wide range of classroom activities might be construed as 'individual work'. These might include individual students being called to the front of a class to read or do a task on the board, a student reading aloud to a teacher or even a whole class listening to the EIA audio 'as individuals'. Each of these examples involves some social engagement which may or may not include interaction and most of such activities come under some other code. Here the term individual work is used only to refer to independent work undertaken by students without direct support of, or interaction with, the teacher or other students. The code 'individual work' has been broken into two sub-codes: i) *reading* and ii) *writing*.

How much 'individual work' takes place?

By this strict definition, incidences of individual working were not high, as Table 26 shows.

Table 26: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'Individual work' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Reading	2	2**
Writing	6	3
Total	8	4*

*One Secondary lesson featured reading and writing in a linked activity.

**One Secondary lesson included two separate reading incidents. Otherwise the lessons noted included a single incident each.

What is the nature of the 'individual work'?

- **Reading**

In Primary lessons the reading appears to be simply a matter of students reading from their textbook (CS 29, CS 55). No purpose for the reading is noted. One Secondary incident seemed, similarly, to be reading 'for its own sake', but in the other lesson the teacher focused the reading to some extent by asking students to be prepared to answer questions. In the same lesson students were set to read a list of adjectives before using them in a writing task, so it does appear that this teacher had some idea of giving purpose to reading tasks.

- **Writing**

There were only two writing incidents in Secondary lessons: in one (CS 42) students simply did an exercise from *EfT*, but in the other (CS 12) the task is based on students' immediately preceding listening to an EIA audio. Of the six Primary incidents it is perhaps surprising that only one (CS 38) is simply a matter of copying from the board. All the others required dealing with meaning at some level. At the lowest level this may just be a matter of memorisation, as is the case where students were asked to list the furniture in Kamal's Bedroom (CS 19), or name objects on a poster (CS 26). More complex thinking is required when students were asked to write a text based on a reading from the textbook (CS 53), or answer questions written on the board (CS 28). It is worth noting that although most of the tasks were at a fairly low level, there was only one case of simple copy writing and that in all the other Primary and Secondary incidents students are engaging with the meaning of what they are writing.

3.4.6 Reflection on student-focused activity

Although most of these activities are instanced in only a quarter or so of lessons, there are some examples of a shift in teacher outlook from what might have been expected before involvement in EIA (the Baseline studies reported the lack of interaction by students and their passivity). While expansion and individual work are instanced in only a few lessons, it is encouraging that there are several signs of teachers using English at the level of textual understanding. The application of learning in new contexts, instanced particularly by secondary teachers, could not be achieved by repetition and rote learning: it relies on students' understanding and willingness to be creative. Many of the examples of individual work, in a similar way, depend on teachers' expectation that students' will be able to transfer meaning from one medium (e.g. listening to the audio) into writing.

The two least represented codes are student presentation and student initiative. It is not surprising that the latter is not strongly present, since studies of conventional practice (EIA 2009a & b) show students having virtually no opportunity to speak at all in lessons. In the present study, it is those interactive activities that leave the teacher in control which are most commonly found.

Students taking initiative in interactions is perhaps something to look out for in future studies; when it starts to occur regularly it will be a strong indicator that the dynamic of classrooms has changed. Student presentation, on the other hand is a relatively simple strategy for teachers to manage, and one with some potential for increasing interactivity within a lesson in a 'safe' way.

It may be that student presentation is an under-represented strategy because it has received relatively little attention in the training materials and face-to-face sessions, a hypothesis which gets some support from the relatively strong showing of pair and group work. These feature prominently in most elements

of EIA and, between them, they were observed in around half of all lessons. As with other codes in this subsection, the use of strategies which take group and pair work into the realms of meaningful language use is an encouraging sign.

3.5 Responding to learning

Checking understanding, monitoring, dealing with errors, feedback

A focus on the learning of individual students is essential to a communicative approach to language teaching. Adopting strategies which enable the teacher to assess students' understanding and respond to their contributions in a way which meets their learning needs whilst being supportive and encouraging will facilitate the kind of language learning that allows students to engage communicatively with others. However, it must be acknowledged that such approaches are very different from those associated with a grammar/translation approach to language teaching.

3.5.1 Checking student understanding

Code definition and interpretation

The code, 'checking student understanding', relates to the actions that teachers undertake to check that their students' have understood something that they have just said or taught. The code 'checking student understanding' was broken into two sub-codes:

a) *tokenism*, which is asking general questions like 'do you understand?' (to class or individuals) (to which students generally reply 'yes'), and

b) *real check*, which can be asking a student to translate/summarise something, checking pronunciation or checking concepts, all with a degree of interaction with students (e.g. no student response, student response and teacher confirms, student response and teacher probes further). Only in this sub-code does the teacher receive believable confirmation that the student or students have understood.

'Tokenism' implies the words to check student understanding are used, but there is no apparent interaction that would enable the teacher to judge this. It is not interpreted as a bad thing *per se*, as teachers may use it as way of moving on, having been satisfied through earlier interactions with students that they understand. It is also possible that the teacher is scanning the class for expressions of students to see who understands before moving on and so on. However, often the moving on is so quick, or the tone so perfunctory, that this is an unlikely explanation. A 'real check' takes place when the teacher engages students collectively or individually to try to see if they can, for example, answer a specific question that may review the work of the lesson (or a previous one).

How much 'checking' takes place?

As each coding element is an incident, then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Of the 46 cases (28 Primary and 18 Secondary) used in the coding, 12 Primary lessons and 9 Secondary contained incidents of 'checking understanding' (see Table 27). This indicates that about a third of all Primary lessons and half of all Secondary lessons sampled had some form of checking of students' understanding. Further, less than a sixth of all Primary lessons, and less than a third of all

Secondary lessons observed included real checking. A lesson can, of course, include both kinds and three Primary and four Secondary lessons fell into this category. Interestingly five Primary lessons had incidents of real checking only, compared with two Secondary lessons.

Table 27: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons (i.e teachers) with 'checking' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Tokenism only	4	3
Real checking only	5	2
Tokenism and real checking	3	4
Total	12	9

The breakdown of incidents of 'tokenism' and 'real checking' are shown in Table 28.

Table 28: Number of incidents of 'checking' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Tokenism	11	11
Real checking	12	6
Total	23	17

What is the nature of the 'checking'?

- **Tokenism**

Many of the incidents of tokenistic checking were addressed to the whole class, for example in Primary:

> T: Ae khelata kivabe khelte hobe bujhte parso? (Do you understand how to play the game?)
> S: Ji sir (Yes sir)
> (CS 13)

Some incidents in Primary lessons were addressed to individual students, but despite this there was no specific interaction with the student:

> Then she asked one student, 'do you face any problem? Do you understand?' (CS 1)

In Secondary lessons similar incidents occurred, for example:

> After the reading, the Teacher said 'Ok?'
> Ss said 'yes sir'
> (CS 59)

In another case the teacher checked several times, but in a sense is likely to be working on the volume of response to indicate understanding:

> Do you know about the parts of the body?
> Students said 'yes'.
> T: All clear to you?
> Ss: Yes

T: Do you understand?
Ss: Yes
T: Can you understand?
Ss: Yes.
(CS 15)

One incident of checking in Secondary classrooms was used before students completed a task, after listening to the audio, but the teacher did not ask specifically if there are any problems to encourage a response, moving them quickly on to complete the task:

T plays the audio again.
Ss listen to the audio.
T moves around the classroom and sees what the students are doing.
T stops the audio: 'Do you understand it?'
Ss: 'yes'.
T: 'now complete it.'
(CS 60)

At times the checking directed at specific students was typically by students being called upon to answer a question in a routine way, as the observation notes of a Secondary classroom indicate:

T calls one S to read the question written on the board and answer the question.
The S answers the question correctly.
T asks students to clap, and thanks student for the correct answer.
T instructs two more students to do the same task.
(CS 6)

It is, of course, possible to argue that in this case the feedback on the answer (that it is correct) constitutes a form of interaction that is tending towards real checking. This can only really be judged in the context of individual lessons where, for example, the choice of which students are called upon to answer may be restricted to those who the teacher thinks knows the answer (but there is no evidence of what would happen if a student gave an incorrect answer). In some cases the use of Bangla can undermine the checking of understanding, as in this case of an audio extract in a Primary lesson:

The teacher started asking questions from the audio lesson:
T: Where is the bed? Look at your book and check it. Where is the bed? Anybody?
B: There is a bed near the window.
T: Where is the bed? Etar bangla ki? (what is the Bangla meaning of this question?) Bichanati kuthay? (Where is the bed?) Ekhon ekahane dekhe uttor dao. (Now give the answer from the text-book picture.)
Paicho? (Have you found it?) K k parbe? (Who can say?)
Raise your hand.
(CS 56)

In general the nature of these tokenistic checks is less surprising than the fact that so few Primary teachers used any kind of checking (Table 27). Secondary teachers did a little better.

- **Real checking**

There were no incidents of sustained checking of students understanding, but there were clear examples where the teacher would be able to judge understanding from a student response. In the following Primary lesson, however, the teacher relied on a whole-class response that may hide individual students' lack of understanding:

> The teacher played a lesson on a zoo on the audio. Teacher was showing the poster with the description of a zoo played on the audio lesson. During playing the teacher paused the audio and asked a question in Bangla about the audio:
> T: 'Samina apar students ra kuthay jacche?' (Where are the students of Samina Madam going?)
> Ss: Chiriakhanay. (Zoo)
> (CS 61)

Examples of individual students being questioned were evident, for example in this Primary classroom:

> Now next question
> Teacher raised a question from the iPod (Where is the desk?)
> T: Where is the desk?
> T: Where is the desk?
> T: Joty, stand up, where is the desk?
> Joty: There is a desk in other corner.
> T: There is a desk in other corner.
> (CS 30)

Thus the student was specifically questioned about the audio. A more subtle questioning technique is for the teacher to ask slightly different questions (in a Primary lesson):

> T: What does Mina's father do?
> Ss: Her father is a postmaster.
> T: What does Mina's mother do?
> Ss: Her father is a school teacher.
> (CS 32)

The chorus response which is found so often in Primary lessons tends to undermine this somewhat, but it shows a variation of a standard question the students are learning (and, incidentally, illustrates the virtue of sometimes overlooking an error, discussed later in this subsection). The same teacher as in the last incident did this more extensively later in the lesson with a single student:

> T: You stand up (addressing a student). Who is this?
> S: This is Amin.
> T: Pointing to the picture - can you tell me who is this woman?
> S: This is Amin's teacher.
> T: Who is this man?
> S: This is Amin's father.
> T: Who is this girl?
> S: This is Amin's sister.
> T asks some other questions and then he sums up.
> (CS 32)

Checking can also be used in the context of pronunciation and, although it does not involve understanding in quite the same way, it nevertheless is directed at students' English competence, as this example from a Primary lesson indicates:

Then T checks some Ss pronunciation; some Ss were pronouncing 'Reed' [for 'red']. The T takes some time to get the Ss to pronounce in the proper way – 'red'. (CS 35)

As was evident in the examples of tokenistic checking, genuine checking of a number of students enabled real checking of the class' understanding to take place, again as seen in this Primary lesson:

Teacher was trying to do cross checking by asking same question to different students. Pointing to another number-
T: What is it?
Ss: 8
Teacher: Who can say? Raise your hand. You [pointing to a student].
B: 8
Teacher: What is it?
G: 8
T: Thank you, sit down. Now another one. What is it?
Ss: 9.
Don't say. Please raise your hand. You....
B: 9
Teacher: Thank you sit down. What is it? Is it 20? Yes or not.
B: Yes.
T: You will say....... this side [referring to a group on one side of the classroom].
T: Haat uthabe. (Raise your hand)
T: What is it?
B: 18
T: What is it? You...
B: 18
T: Thank you, sit down. Now, another group. Stand up, you say.....What is it?
Students raised their hands.
G: 10.
T-What is it?
G: 10
T: Thank you, sit down. Everybody clap them.
Students clap.
(CS 38)

The teacher evidently had to prevent the chorusing that is usual, to ensure that she could see which particular students and groups could answer her questions (as the observation notes say 'cross checking').

There were examples where the teachers involved the students more in the feedback on checking or in the processes of checking. In this Secondary lesson, the same kind of going round the class sequence is used slightly differently:

T: Now I told you a question. Read out the statement.
S: Read the statement.
T: It is true or false?
S: True.
Teacher went to another girl at the back bench and said: She said that the statement is true. Are you agree with her?
S: Yes.
The teacher told Sonya to read out the second statement. Sonya read this and teacher asked her whether it was true or false. The girl said 'false'. The teacher asked what is the correct answer? Sonya read out the correct statement.
Teacher continued this practice with two more students and thanked the students.
(CS 14)

In the Secondary lessons observed it was evident that this going round the classroom was used to check comprehension of a passage using 'true/false' statements about a the passage given in the textbook. At times the teacher called upon students to come to the front of the class and the teacher spoke a sentence in English and required students to write it down on the board, but without giving any feedback. This is similar to the example of tokenistic checking given above (CS 6); again, it is the choice of students which makes this 'real' or tokenism.

Another variation of including students is with some form of peer assessment, which is in our view an advanced pedagogical technique that has become an important part of the tools used by teachers who use an 'assessment for learning' approach (Black and Wiliam, 1998). There was only one example of this from the observed lessons, from a Primary lesson:

T: (In Bangla) Now check the khata in pairs.
Teacher involved Ss in checking khata in pairs. She also checked students' work generally.
(CS 53)

Although we get few details of this checking or how the teacher dealt with any errors, this is a promising start to developing peer assessment where every student can get some feedback on their learning.

There was one example of a Secondary student checking her own understanding, indicating at least a climate where this is acceptable:

One G: What is diary?
T: This is called diary. (T Shows the diary.)
T: Okay, understand?
A few Ss: Yes sir.
(CS 36)

This would have been a more powerful example of checking understanding if the teacher had directed his checking to the girl who asked the question rather than the class as a whole.

In general in a large proportion of Primary lessons sampled there was no record of checking of student understanding and, in an even smaller proportion, this constituted 'real checking' in as much as there was some interaction between the students and the teacher. Secondary lessons sampled did rather better than Primary. Where this was real checking it is neither sustained nor always systematic to enable a teacher to

see the extent of the understanding by the class. The incidents observed show almost exclusively students giving correct answers, reducing the amount of interaction they might think is necessary. However, the code 'dealing with errors' will give more insight into how teachers deal with incorrect answers.

The findings for checking understanding are closely linked to those for three other codes:

- *Monitoring* (Subsection 3.5.2): The results of the analysis of 'monitoring' incidents are similar to those of checking understanding in that there are few examples of interaction with students.

- *Feedback* (Subsection 3.5.4): Positive feedback deals with the situation where the teacher effectively assumes that the students understand as they are giving feedback on correct responses to questions, and so on.

- *Dealing with errors* (Subsection 3.5.3): This analysis indicates that apart from the strategy of ignoring an error, which in a communicative approach could be done to encourage fluency and use of language, there is insufficient attention to student learning, especially through interaction. Such interaction would of course be premised on a check on understanding, and the evidence presented above indicates that that there is little of this kind of interaction taking place.

3.5.2 Monitoring

Code definition and interpretation

The code 'monitoring' was broken into two sub-codes:

a) *supervision*, which entails going round the class to see that task is being can be completed by students and answering queries, and

b) *interacting with students through supporting activities*, by discussing with them issues arising in activity (not clarification of task), and facilitation.

Monitoring activities usually take place during student tasks, i.e. when students are answering a question written on the board or in textbook, or working in pairs or groups practising a dialogue or discussing. Monitoring as 'supervision' may also take place when audio is being listened to, and this is classroom management. There is a fine line between 'supervision' and 'interaction' depending upon the nature of the queries in the task supervision element so, although they have been separated here, they are in fact on a continuum. The distinction between the two ends of the continuum comes from the degree and nature of the interaction the teacher has with students. There is no implication that 'interaction' is more desirable than 'supervision' in any particular situation, although the complete lack of monitoring that does not include some interaction with students would indicate a less developed pedagogy. As noted in the general comments on methodology, there are issues about the degree of detail recorded by the observers; monitoring might possibly have been coded as more than supervisory, had the details been available.

How much 'monitoring' takes place?

As each coding element is an 'incident', then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Given the comments above on the distinctions between the two sub-codes of 'supervision' and 'interacting', consideration of the frequencies must be treated with caution.

Of the 46 lessons (28 Primary and 18 Secondary) used in the coding, more than half of Primary lessons (17), and two-thirds of Secondary lessons (13) included some kind of monitoring. The breakdown of the number of Primary and Secondary lessons that included the two kinds of monitoring is shown in Table 29. A lesson can of course include both kinds, and whether either one or both are used would reflect the particularities of the lesson.

Table 29: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons with 'monitoring' evident

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Supervision only	11	10
Interacting only	2	2
Supervision and interacting	4	1
Total	17	13

Of the Primary lessons that included some kind of monitoring, two-thirds involved supervision only; in Secondary lessons three-quarters involved supervision only. In Primary about an eighth of lessons involved 'interaction' and in Secondary around a sixth of lessons that involved this kind of monitoring. The number of incidents of monitoring in individual lessons is given in Table 30.

Table 30: Number of incidents of 'monitoring' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
Supervision	27	23
Interacting	9	4
Total	36	27

What is the nature of the 'monitoring'?

- **Supervision**

At its lowest level, this kind of monitoring involves the teacher just walking round the classroom, using his or her presence to ensure students are on task. This is most evident when the audio is playing, as is shown in this Secondary lesson:

> T: 'Listen to the dialogue.'
> She played the audio.
> She was walking round the classroom and told Ss to listen carefully to the audio.
> She asked Ss if they wanted to listen again.
> (CS 12)

The following example, from a Primary classroom is similar, but also included an element of supporting understanding, as the teacher's words helped students to focus attention on the core meaning of the audio:

> T gesturing to the students for be keep quiet, and was moving round the class. (Chuup!)
> Then she was telling the students "Let's see what was doing Rupa in her sleeping hour"

T: (Cholo too dekhi Rupa ghumate jaber somay ki korcillo)
in this time the audio was playing. The audio was on 'Sleepy head'.
Teacher now moving around the class for classroom management, telling one student 'Rumel seat down.'
(CS 1)

This type of monitoring is also found when students are reading or writing, and at times this involved actually looking at the writing being done by students, without any interaction. This enables the teacher to both monitor that the task is being done, but also ensure that it is being done in the way he or she intends.

Monitoring, as 'supervision' of tasks consists at its lowest level of repeating the task instructions as in this example from a Secondary lesson:

The teacher moved from group to group and said: You have to say what is true and what is false. There are many new words, vocabulary.
(CS 14)

A second example shows more specific targeting of monitoring of this kind.

T goes to the Ss who were not writing and clarified the [task] instructions.
(CS 24; Primary lesson)

Another type of supervisory monitoring is to ensure the students are working on the task, as the observation notes of this Primary lesson show:

Ss were opening their exercise books for write up. T was watching her watch. The task continues for about four minutes. In the mean time, T was walking around the class and supervising Ss' work. T was encouraging the Ss in their work.
(CS 26)

This supervision is in part to ensure that the task is completed on time. But it can be taken further to include checking the completion of work; this is evident in group work, as this Primary lesson example shows:

So they [students] went to show their work to the T. T was trying to check every group's work.
(CS 24)

There is no evidence here of any feedback, simply that the task has been completed. This also occurred in the Secondary classroom, though in this instance the sampling of student work was different:

Teacher checked one notebook from each bench.
(CS 59)

Such checking might also include asking questions:

T tries to go to the each pair, and asks questions on their reading of the dialogue. After checking most of the students… [moves on to another activity]
(CS 70; Secondary lesson)

There was one example of a teacher trying to check all the students' work and, with a large class (common in Bangladeshi Primary schools) this proves difficult. This following Primary teacher had set a task for students to write in their books the names of three colours (in English):

> Then T is going to the Ss and explaining what they have to do. One B did not bring a pencil. T ask someone who has two pencils to give him a pencil. Then T starts supervising Ss class work. After 2 minutes, a girl stands up and says that she has finished her work. Then T goes to her and checks her work. After a few seconds interval, more Ss were standing up to show their work. T is moving around the class and checking Ss' work. But after some time, it was very difficult for her to do, because many Ss were raising their hands. The T cannot see all of their work. (CS 35)

There was one other Primary example of this kind of checking of work when students had finished, but none in Secondary lessons. As indicated, in some accounts there was no evidence of interaction, though there was one Primary lesson where a teacher helped students with the task, which moved in this direction without there being any evidence of follow-up:

> Teacher helped the Ss to open their notebooks for drawing. Some Ss were confused about what they had to write. The teacher helped them to do their tasks. Students were drawing a picture though it was a noisy classroom climate. The teacher didn't check students' notebooks. (CS 52)

- **Monitoring with interaction**

The relative lack of this kind of monitoring inevitably restricts the range of kinds of interaction initiated between teacher and students. For an observer (in a fixed position) it is difficult to give details of such interactions, but in one Primary lesson there was evidence of a teacher 'helping' and in another, 'asking questions':

> Ss, in groups, were asking each other questions about their name, age, residence, hobby, favourite colour etc., and the teacher was walking around the classroom and observing Ss, helping them if necessary. (CS 28)

> She [teacher] went to students and looked at their khata and asked questions about the picture's colour that they had drawn. (CS 10)

The first example (CS 28) is much like the final example under 'supervision' (CS 52), though as the teacher did not check the students' books, it appears at a lower level to the one above (CS 28).

In another Primary lesson the teacher 'was moving around the classroom to *facilitate* the Ss doing their task perfectly' (emphasis added). There was only one Secondary lesson with such monitoring, which scaffolds the task more than the examples in the 'supervision' sub-code:

> Teacher moved from group to group and helped them to write. He said "What do your father do? What do your mother do? How many brother sister?" (CS 14)

A Primary lesson indicated a similar reference to 'helping', which is evidently part of a supportive environment:

> T: 'Everybody start writing. Lekhsona keno.'
> The teacher was walking, watching, helping and praising Ss.
> T: 'Quickly …... Likhso?' [Have you written?]
> Some students finished writing and the teacher was looking at their khata one by one, making necessary corrections.
> T: 'Thank you ...... Have you finished your writing?'
> Students were standing and one by one showing their khatas [to the teacher].
> T: 'Excellent, fine, Very nice, Thank you very much, Sit down.
> T: 'Thank you everybody, now look at blackboard. Who can not write this, I can help you. What is it?'
> Students gave the answers in chorus and the teacher wrote the answers on the board.
> (CS 38)

In the Primary lesson extract below, the earlier examples of checking student work (under 'supervision'; CS 24, CS 59, CS 70) was extended with evidence of feedback to students (though the nature of this is not recorded):

> The teacher wrote some questions on the blackboard, to assess Ss, and Ss wrote the answers in their khata. The teacher was moving around the whole class and was observing students' writing. The students who already finished their task checked their khata with the teacher. The teacher was checking khata and was giving feedback, while moving around the classroom. Ss were too interested in checking their khata with the teacher.
> (CS 28)

The final example of interaction is quite different. This Secondary lesson shows a teacher who was concerned with how the group work was conducted and included a number of features to support the groups, one of which was to monitor and encourage participation as part of a communicative approach:

> T: Now I will divide the class into four groups. (repeated.)
> Before doing that I will change the dialogue. You are Mr. Brown (Indicating to the Ss on the right side.) and you are Mrs. Brown. (Indicating to the right side Ss. The T said this several times.)
> Okay, Mr. Brown, (Then Ss starts the dialogue.)
> T: Edike takate hobe (You should look at one another.)
> When you speak to a person you have to be in front of her or move to her.
> (Then the T practiced the dialogue with the Ss for another two times.)
> T: Now, I will divide the class into four groups.
> (T organises the Ss into four groups A, B, C and D.)
> Now, suppose you are Mr. Brown (Group A)
> You are Mrs. Brown (Group B)
> You are Mr. Brown (Group C)
> You are Mrs. Brown (Group D)
> Okay? Now all Mr. Browns act with the all Mrs. Browns. (Indicates to Group C and D.)
> Move with them. (Indicating to Group C to look at Group D.)
> Mr. Brown ...... Mr. Brown ...... (T indicates to Group C, then Groups C and D start their dialogue.

At the same time the T was directing Groups A and B to practice the dialogue. Then the whole class started dialogue. At this time, the T was moving around the class to supervise trying to ensure all of the Ss' participation. T was encouraging all the Ss to speak loudly. Dialogue practice continues for about three minutes and repeated many times.
(CS 36)

The strength of this approach is not just in the teacher ensuring that they all know what they should be doing (by modelling the dialogue), but also to see a dialogue as a communication process that includes looking at people and moving towards them.

The data show a preponderance of low-level monitoring, which includes some level of interaction between the teachers and students. It was always the teacher that initiated this interaction (e.g. no student is recorded as asking a question when a teacher is moving round the classroom). This is compounded by the very low number of lessons, and indeed instances, where monitoring includes interaction, especially in Secondary lessons. There were few detailed interactions recorded, which may reflect both the relative shortness of them as well as the lack of detailed information recorded by the observers. However, there is one example where a teacher used monitoring in a way that supported a communicative approach and there were a number of examples where teachers helped students (though there are few details).

3.5.3 Dealing with errors

Code definition and interpretation

This code deals with the strategies teachers adopt in response to students' errors. It has been broken into five sub-codes: ignoring the error; correcting the error (but no modelling of the correct response); explaining the error; working with the student/other students to identify the error and help correct it; reframing the question (scaffolding the task). These sub-codes indicate a spectrum from ignoring to fruitful interaction with the student and hence a focus on his or her learning. It is likely that 'working with the student' on the error is an alternative to 'reframing question' and would reflect a teacher making a decision about what is most appropriate for the particular student (i.e. they are not in any hierarchical relationship to each other).

How much 'dealing with errors' takes place?

This is not an easy question to answer with five sub-codes as there were many possible combinations of sub-codes. The surprising finding is that there was little evidence recorded by observers of dealing with errors. It would have been assumed that in every lesson where students offered some form of response to a teacher question or activity there would have at the very least been a record of 'ignoring error'. However, out of the 46 lessons, only 9 (6 Primary and 3 Secondary) contained any record of 'dealing with errors' of any particular sub-code (low proportions of the total numbers of lessons sampled; in both sectors less than a fifth).

To understand what this means, it was necessary to see this category along with the complementary category of '(positive) feedback'. Dealing with errors only occurs when students make a mistake, hence a low number is as likely to reflect the degree to which students are stretched in a lesson as well as whether the particular lesson observed is a revision or a new area for the student. There is evidence that the revision lessons are indeed frequently occurring. But, if positive 'feedback' is taken along with 'dealing with errors', then the number of lessons where positive and negative feedback is evident is 28

(19 Primary and 9 Secondary; two-thirds of Primary and half of Secondary lessons sampled).[3] This means that there are large proportions of lessons in which no feedback of any kind (even one that essentially ignores that there is an error) is evident (or recorded).

While it may be the case that feedback is simply infrequent, it must be at least possible that the incidence has been under-reported by the observers: 'not responding' (i.e. nothing is said or done) counts as an incident, while other responses (e.g. turning to another student, or saying 'no' or 'well done') may have been judged as natural personal responses, rather than as a pedagogic strategy.

The simplest way of showing the extent is to look at the incidents recorded in each of the five sub-codes for both Primary and Secondary lessons (Table 31).

Table 31: Number of incidents of different types of 'dealing with errors' in Primary and Secondary lessons

Ignore error		Correct error		Explain error		Work on error		Reframe question	
Pri.	Sec.	Pri.	Sec.	Pri.	Sec.	Pri.	Sec.	Pri.	Sec.
5	1	5	4	1	1	4	0	1	1
15				8					

If the sub-codes are grouped to show where learning is a focus, by combining 'ignore error' and 'correct error' (no focus on learning) and combining 'explain error', 'work on error' and 'reframe question', then it is possible to look at how the nine lessons use one or other of the two general strategies of focusing or not on learning (Table 32).

Table 32: Number of Primary and Secondary lessons that focus or not on learning in dealing with errors

Sub-code	Primary	Secondary
No focus on learning (only)	2	1
Focus on learning (only)	1	0
Both	3	3

Given the small numbers, this does not give much guidance on the overall likelihood of what is happening with the overall proportions of EIA teachers in relation to dealing with errors. In both Primary and Secondary there were more incidents where there was no focus on the students' learning than those where there was such a focus (this can be seen indirectly in Table 27).

What is the nature of 'dealing with errors'?

- **Ignoring error**

Not surprisingly, this approach results in the teacher passing over the student response. At times the teacher simply ignores the student's mistake ('Ss made mistakes in asking questions but the teacher didn't correct them'; CS 24, primary); at other times the teacher may simply call upon another student and this may or may not embarrass the student:

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[3] *Of the 16 Primary lessons that showed evidence of positive feedback, 3 also had evidence of 'dealing with errors' an additional 3 (not in the 16) had only 'dealing with errors'; of the 8 Secondary lessons that showed evidence of positive feedback 2 also had evidence of 'dealing with errors' and 1 (not in the 8) had only 'dealing with errors'.*

Teacher showed a poster hanging on the wall.
T: Look at the poster please.
Teacher called a girl to come front and asked her a question indicating a animal on the poster.
T: What is this?
G: 1- ….........
Teacher called another boy and asked the same question, 'what is this?'
The boy gave the correct answer.
Then the teacher asked the whole class indicating a animal on the poster.
(CS 61, primary)

The communicative stance on error correction is that it should not inhibit fluency, so ignoring mistakes is a matter of pedagogical judgment and not in itself a 'failure' of the teachers' English or their teaching. There was one Secondary lesson, however, where the teacher indicated dissatisfaction but effectively ignores it:

The teacher said "Rafik great great grandfather who Rafik great great grandfather?".
The girl replied in Bangla "parina" (I can't).
The teacher moved her head and had an expression in such way that showed dissatisfaction.
The boy who most participated in the lesson said the name but it was not understandable.
The teacher said "Thank you".
(CS 74)

In a Primary lesson there was an element of humiliation inflicted on the student, even if that was not the teacher's intention:

This time one student failed to answer a question showing the ball, then the teacher took the ball from her hand and gave it to another S for questioning. Ss laughed seeing this occurrence.
(CS 30)

Showing dissatisfaction or humiliating a student is not helpful, even if ignoring the student's error is a deliberate and helpful approach. Finally, one Primary lesson example seemed to reflect a general lack of concern by the teacher to monitor student activity:

In the audio there was an instruction to cut the number '12' in the book. But Ss did not do this. Teacher also did not give any instruction about this. Then audio tells to cut the numbers 4, 1 and 20 one by one. But Ss did not do this. The audio was still playing, and the Teacher was stand at the front of the table. She was not supervising whether the Ss can follow the instructions of the audio. T was moving a little bit in front of the class, but did not go to the back of the class.
(CS 24)

Here there is an overlap with the 'monitoring' category, but it is evident that the lack of student understanding is not being supported by corrective action.

- **Teacher corrects but with no focus on student learning**

This common approach to errors results in teachers giving a correct answer to a question they have asked and then moving on. This is shown again by the teacher in CS 74, where it is clear that the correct answer is given by another student:

The boy gave the wrong answer. The teacher moved her head in such way that indicated that his answer was wrong.

Teacher told him in Bangla "boso" (sit down).

Then teacher asked another student on the same bench "who Rafik grandfather?" the student said "Mr. khaibur is Rafik grandfather".

(CS 74, secondary)

In that Secondary lesson example the teacher does not directly give the correct answer, but in the following Primary example, the teacher does at least correct the student's answer:

T: Tulika, What is this? (T is showing some flowers.)

G: This's a red.

T: This is not a red. Its colour is red.

(CS 35)

In Subsection 3.5.1 (on checking understanding) there was an example of a teacher asking a slightly different question in an effort to really check the students' understanding following an answer (CS 39), where the teacher would need to go beyond giving the correct answer to the question.

An explanation of the error would help the student learn from their mistake, the next kind of treatment of errors. However, as with ignoring a mistake, it may be that teachers do not want to inhibit students' use of language, but do not want to allow errors to go uncorrected. The study of student and teacher perceptions of English language teaching (EIA 2011c) indicated a strong attachment on the part of students and teachers to correcting errors.

- **Teacher explains the error**

There were only two such instances in the coded lessons, one from Primary and one from Secondary, so we have little by way of illustration of how teachers do this. The Primary lesson example interestingly arised from a class response to the teacher's greeting at the start of class:

T: Good afternoon class.

Ss: Good morning sir.

T: If someone says 'good afternoon', you will also say 'good afternoon'.

T: Ok everybody sit down…..

(CS 32)

It may be a minimal explanation, but at least it gives a rule for this use and is concerned with its communicative purpose, unlike many of the greetings examined earlier (Subsection 3.2.1). The Secondary example was less instructive as the observer does not give the details of the teacher's response to the student, except to say that the teacher tried to make the student understand the correct answer.

- **Teacher works on the error**

There are of course many ways a teacher can help the student to understand something that they have done wrong, such as giving the wrong answer to a question, perhaps because they do not really understand the question. In this Primary lesson the teacher translated almost all her English into Bangla, trying to get at the correct pronunciation of a word:

T to all the Ss: This is a Leaf. Accha, Leaf er colour ki? Eng. te bolbe. (What is the colour of this leaf?)

Ss: Green. (One B was saying SOBUJ)

T indicating to that boy: Tumi Sobuj keno bolcho? (Why you are saying SOBUJ?)

Green. Ami jokhon boli (When I ask you), 'What is this?' tokhon tomra bolo (Then you say) 'Geen, Geen, Geen.' Etar colourto green na. Etar colour ki rokom? (It's colour is not geen. What is the colour?)

Ss: Green.

T: 'Green' naki 'Geen'? (Green or Geen?)

(One B was saying 'Blue', but the T did not pay any attention to him.)

T: Green, Green. (Pay attention to the proper pronunciation.)

Amra spelling ta dekhe nei. (Let's see the spelling.)

Amar mukhe mukhe bolo... (Say with me.)

(T starts writing on the blackboard)

G .... R .... E .... E .... N, Green.

(Both T and Ss pronounce and spell GREEN)

(CS 35)

The work with the individual student was not extensive, but the teacher was going a little further than just correcting the student though; as the observer notes, another student who is wrong is not dealt with. It is important to note that this was a class of 49 students! Shortly after this incident, the same problem with pronunciation occurred when the teacher used flashcards (she had explained what students were to do when she showed the cards):

T indicating to a B: Alomgir stand up.

T showing a flash card of Green colour to the B: Ki colour? (What is the colour?)

B: Nil

T: Nil? (Some Ss were saying 'GREEN .... GREEN')

Correct vabe k bolte parbe? (Who can say correctly?)

T: Indicating to a G: Jinuk, jore bolo. (Jinuk, Speak loudly.)

G: Geen.

T: Geen? Correct vabe k bolte parbe? (Who can say correctly?)

Many Ss were pronouncing 'GREEN', but T selects a B to say: Tareq bolo. (Say Tareq)

B: Green.

T: Green, right, Green.

(CS 35)

This implies that there is still more work on pronunciation for this teacher to do with her students.

- **Teacher re-phrases/scaffolds question or task**

In this Primary lesson example, the teacher used scaffolding:

T: Where is the bed? Who can say? Raise your hand.

All Ss raised their hands.

T: Ratri (G), you say where is the bed?

T: Where is the bed?

Ratri: This is Kamal's Bedroom.

T: Again.

Ratri: This is Kamal's Bedroom.

Because she answered the wrong question the teacher uttered the first part of the correct answer, and pointed to the window.

T: Near the_____?

Ratri: Window.

T: Yes, near the_____?

Ss: Window (chorus).

T: Very good, make a clap.

Ss: (Clapping)

(CS 30)

It is debatable whether this is in fact scaffolding as the student is directed to the physical point. Her problem may not with being able to utter the answer, but rather in understanding the question ('Where is the bed?'). This in turn relates to the category 'checking student understanding' in that the teacher has to be sure he or she understands the student's problem. In a similar Secondary example, a teacher wrote up the day's topic 'people' and asks a student to draw a picture from the textbook related to this:

Teacher told the whole class to look at the picture. Students looked.

Teacher: What is this?

The girls didn't reply.

Teacher again asked the question and this time teacher indicated the word "people" written in the board.

Students replied: People.

(CS 15, Grade 6)

Again this scaffolding is done without knowledge of the students' problem with this, but he wanted them to be able to recognise 'people' from the picture, and failing this assumed they could read it. In terms of the frequency of dealing with errors it is evident that little is recorded by observers, even when taking into account the combination with positive feedback. In judging the amount of dealing with errors, and the fact that rather more positive feedback is evident (see Subsection 2.5.4), there is an issue of the teacher giving a performance for the observer. In addition it is likely that the teachers would take a pride in students understanding their teaching and being disappointed that students 'let them down'. That may be compounded by the students feeling shame at a 'failure' to answer correctly. There is no easy way of being sure quite which of these is at work, though any focus on 'performance' for whatever reason, will result in less concern for student learning.

Therefore it is not surprising that what is recorded by way of 'dealing with errors' is biased towards a lack of focus on the students' learning from these errors. Where there is evidence of a concern for the students' learning this does not result in much work with students either as individuals or collectively. It was noted above that ignoring errors can be a useful strategy in a communicative approach, yet the study of teachers' and students' perceptions of classroom behaviour indicated that they both thought it was important to correct errors (EIA, 2011c). Nevertheless, if teachers are going to deal with errors it is likely that they should be focusing on student learning from these errors. But this requires a different attitude on the part of both students and teachers to this strategy.

3.5.4 Feedback (positive)

Code definition and interpretation

The term feedback is commonly used in education. It is generally associated with the teacher response regarding a learner's action in the classroom and so would embrace much of the evidence reported above as 'dealing with errors'. The concern of this subsection, then, is feedback to students who are performing as expected: positive feedback. This term has been used in language learning for a long time with some longstanding issues such as whether corrective feedback is really helpful or not (e.g. see Ferris 2006; Truscott & Hsu 2008 for discussions). The current study employs this term to refer to any verbal or physical response a teacher makes as a result of students' actions during a language lesson. It also includes any form of praise or encouragement shown by the teacher in relation to the student activity.

How much 'feedback' takes place?

As each coding element is an incident, then frequency can be gauged by the number of such incidents recorded. Of the 46 cases (28 Primary and 18 Secondary) used in the coding, 24 English language lessons - 16 Primary (over half) and 8 Secondary (almost half) - seemed to have some form of teacher feedback in them. Altogether there were 69 instances that were coded as positive feedback .

What is the nature of the 'checking'?

In this study, two types of teacher feedback were found: *confirmation* and *repetition.* These types were not identified during the data coding process but afterwards during the second-level analysis. Each of these is defined and illustrated by drawing on the data below.

- **Confirmation**

The teacher often gave feedback by confirming what students said or did. The teacher tended to use expressions such as 'yes', 'right answer' and 'OK' as shown in the excerpt from a Primary classroom below:

> Students keep reading.
> T: "Stop reading now."
> T: "What is this?" (Indicating the window asks a student)
> S: "This is a window."
> T: "<u>Right answer</u>. Everybody clap for him."
> (CS 5)

or, in the example from a Secondary classroom below:

> T: Ok Thank you.
> Thank you very much.
> (CS 59)

Confirmation often has a strong affective element: as well as confirming the correctness of a student's response, it (implicitly or explicitly) praises his or her efforts and can be expected to build confidence and encourage future participation.

In fact, the majority of the feedback coded has an affective dimension. This type of feedback was provided both verbally and physically. The verbal affective feedback tended to include words such as 'thank you' and 'excellent' after the student response. In addition, the feedback was often followed by an invited physical response such as clapping. The two excerpts from Primary classrooms indicate the type of confirmation feedback provided to students:

> T: Very good, Ferjana you say to stand here.
> (Ferjana tomi akhane dariya bolo)
> Clap please.
> Mousumi clap.
> S: She done well the recitation of the sleepy head rhyme.
> (CS 1)

> T: Now read your number, which is this numbers......speak loudly.
> B: 7, 6, 12, 15
> T: Thank you, everybody clap him.
> (CS 38)

Similar examples were observed in Secondary classrooms:

> After completing reading about Mother Teresa by the girl teacher said "thank you" and uttered "clap".
> The girls clapped.
> (CS 14)

> T calls one S to read the question written on board and answer the question.
> The S answers the question correctly.
> T says students to clap, and thanks student for the correct answer.
> (CS 6)

As shown by the excerpts above, the teachers used confirmation feedback to encourage or praise students in the lesson. This kind of feedback may be motivating to students. This, in turn, could have a positive impact on student learning.

- **Repetition**

The teachers in this study also employed repetition as a means of feedback. The teacher repeated what the student said. Unlike in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, the teacher was not repeating a wrong response given by the student. Instead, they were repeating the correct response. The purpose may have been to reinforce vocabulary or a structure in question. For example, the excerpt from a Primary lesson below focuses on vocabulary (i.e. window):

> G: This is *window*.
> T: Yes, this is …...*window*.
> T: Thank you, make a clap.
> Teacher appreciated the girl for correct answering.
> (CS 30)

Likewise, in the excerpt from a Secondary lesson below, the teacher repeats the structure (i.e. present perfect) after the student:

G: I have closed my umbrella.
T: I have closed my umbrella. This kind of sentence you can make this way.
(CS 36)

Rather than focusing on errors, the teacher concentrated on the appropriate response from students. Such feedback may create a positive learning environment in the classroom.

The data support the perception that positive teacher feedback makes the classroom learning environment conducive to learning, although other aspects of the lesson may also have played a crucial role. More detailed observation evidence, which focuses on the words spoken, would enable a judgment to be made as to the effectiveness of the feedback as a support for language learning.

3.5.5 Reflection on responding to learning

The pedagogical strategies dealt with in this subsection are probably the most demanding of teachers whose background and experience lie in a traditional approach to teaching in general and a grammar-translation approach to language teaching. It is not surprising then that the incidence of most of these teaching elements is low or very low.

However, given that a focus on the learning of individual students is essential to a CLT approach, it is encouraging to see that such pedagogies are beginning to emerge in both primary and secondary classrooms. Understanding how well students are learning is essential to a *student-centred* approach: an approach which takes each individual's current level of attainment as the starting point for their learning. This is achieved through planned monitoring and questions that explicitly check understanding, asked by teachers who know how to interpret unexpected answers and turn them into teaching opportunities.

Teachers' and students' attitudes to errors are fundamental to language teaching and learning. Over-attention to accuracy will always be an enemy of fluency, while tolerance of errors will encourage *interaction* and *participation*. In the long run, the benefits are felt in terms not only of increased language use, but also, of accuracy. Perhaps the most significant finding in this subsection is the negative one: that, contrary to teachers' expressed opinion that error correction is a very important part of their teaching, the incidence of attention to students' errors is low. It would have been remarkable indeed, if after only a few months of working with CLT methods the teachers in this study had shown frequent use of these relatively advanced techniques of assessment and feedback. The fact that the practices are beginning to take root in some classrooms is a hopeful sign.

4. Conclusions

The findings of this study must be seen in the wider context of Bangladeshi primary and secondary education. The situation prior to the EIA intervention is set out in an EIA Baseline Study 3 (EIA 2009a), which found that most teaching 'did not encourage a communicative approach to learning English' (p. 7). Teachers dominated the lessons, doing almost all of the talking. In two thirds of lessons observed the majority of language spoken was Bangla, opportunities for students to participate were low and very few students spoke in English during a lesson. In most classes students were 'not interactive at all' (EIA 2009a, p. 8).

While the findings of the present study do not signify a revolution in English teaching, they do provide evidence of some important changes across a sizeable number of classrooms, with some form of ELT aspect being evident in most of the sampled lessons. It is hardly surprising that the areas in which there has been the greatest degree of change are those where teachers are likely to feel safest (lesson structure, teacher-led activities and use of EIA materials), because they remain very much in control of the classroom activities. But this is not to say that more student-focused activities are not in evidence at all; some, notably pair and group work are strongly represented. And it may well be that the 'safe' strategies will be a stepping-stone into more communicative practices for many teachers.

The EIA programme is helping some teachers to give the learning of individual students a more prominent place in their classroom regime. The instances of monitoring, checking understanding, dealing with errors and feedback all show a concern for student learning which reveals the underlying understanding that effective teaching is not simply a matter of transmitting the right information, but depends on a degree of interaction between student and teacher. It is unfortunate that some of the observation evidence does not shed as much light as hoped on this element of teaching (by giving insufficient detail about such interactions), but it will certainly be important to support the development of this aspect of teachers' repertoire as the project develops.

At present, a great deal of interaction is at the level of teachers relating to whole classes, or communicating with individuals in a whole-class context, but there are several episodes where there is a progression from this to group and pair activities, which both increase participation and give each student much greater experience of speaking English.

Another factor in increasing participation is the motivating qualities of EIA resources. Many observations record students listening attentively to spoken audio, and the levels of physical and vocal participation show clearly that songs and rhymes are a popular feature of English lessons. Even more important, perhaps, is the evidence that teachers are using the resources in ways which promote meaningful use of language by providing both context and ways into interactive activities. Songs are one way in which EIA-endorsed practices have become embedded in classroom routines, and the use of English in regular and predictable lesson structures shows English employed with communicative purpose. It is also noteworthy that teachers are not allowing what could be seen as ready-made audio lessons to take control away from them. That they are using the audios for their own teaching purposes can be seen from the ways in which they are integrated with other activities into a full lesson.

Although not specifically sought in the coding process, such ELT-specific strategies as grammar in context and integration of written and oral skills are in evidence. In most lessons where writing is reported there

is some preparation in another mode, be it reading from the textbook, listening to the EIA audio or a classroom discussion or presentation. This use of writing as a way of shaping and expressing meaning is a good indicator of authentic and purposeful use of language.

Some elements of EIA are already widespread in use and firmly embedded in the practice of many teachers (e.g. pair work), while other elements are being adopted more warily and selectively (e.g. eliciting). This is to be expected, but there can be no doubt that EIA is making a difference to the teaching and learning in these classrooms.

It is worth reiterating a weakness of the methodology in that, if an aspect of pedagogy is *not* noted, it cannot be taken as evidence that it did not appear in the lesson. For example, relatively few observers mentioned the use of the government textbook (*EfT*), even though teachers are expected to use it in every lesson. In this case observers may simply have felt its presence to be a matter of course, and literally un-noteworthy. As the focus was on additional material used in the classroom, this particular issue was not taken as problematic. However, it is evident that, for example, when pair work was undertaken few observers recorded the detail of how that work took place. This along with the sampling has meant that it is important to be cautious in interpreting the frequency of incidents of ELT practices that are reported.

5. Recommendations

The findings of this study present a picture of teachers with a background in traditional pedagogies on the road towards a communicative approach to English teaching. EIA has clearly spurred them to take the first steps on this journey, but what can be done to support them as they continue? The following is an attempt to articulate just some of the ways in which the project can build on its success to date.

5.1 Strategic issues

Recognise and spread good practice. Teachers' effective 'new' practices should be disseminated across the project. This can be done, for example, through presentation and demonstration at workshops and cluster meetings, through the EIA teachers' newsletter and through the gathering and sharing of video evidence to be used on iPods or in meetings and workshops. This strategy will have the additional benefit of stressing the status of teachers as responsible and innovative professionals.

Build on secure practice. Some communicative practices build on practices in which many teachers are already secure. Teachers used to presenting information to classes, for example, can develop a more interactive style of communication and they can be shown how to develop open questioning from closed questioning. Teacher Facilitators, in particular, have a role to play in spotting opportunities which arise to make lessons more communicative. e.g. where answering in chorus is observed, teachers can be guided towards introducing choral dialogue, and those already using choral dialogue can be encouraged to use the experience as preparation for independent pair work.

Explicitly address desired changes. There is some evidence that areas which have received explicit attention from EIA (e.g. pair work), are better represented in project classrooms. Areas which are considered important to develop further (e.g. a greater focus on learning through assessment strategies) are likely to benefit from explicit attention both in EIA materials and in workshops and cluster meetings.

5.2 Teacher-focused issues

Continue to provide and develop activities which help structure lessons. These support lesson coherence and provide opportunities for students to use English purposefully in safe, predictable contexts. They provide opportunities for purposeful English language use and the conventional routines such as taking attendance registers, greetings in English and singing songs at the beginning and end of lessons, are well employed by teachers. A focus on continuity of learning can be encouraged by including further routines for reviewing and links to the previous and following lessons.

Develop teachers' questioning skills. Lessons are now more interactive, in part because teachers are asking more questions, and doing so in English. The next stage must be to supply them with effective and manageable open questioning strategies which require students to give longer, more complex responses and make choices over language and content.

5.3 Student focus/ responding to learning

Encourage ways of shifting the initiative to students. This might be achieved, for example, by teachers' showing interest in what students have to say, developing more open questioning, use of personalization in questioning and greater use of work not directly supervised by the teacher (e.g. pair work).

Support teacher engagement with individual students. Asking questions of individuals, rather than the whole class can emphasise a focus on learning and support formative assessment and feedback. Purposeful individual work also provides opportunities for teachers to engage with individual students. This needs to be done in a way that recognises that mistakes can be used as learning opportunities. Teachers also need strategies for doing this with large classes.

Encourage wider use of student presentation. This is a relatively low-risk way of introducing a degree of student initiative into a teacher-led classroom. It gives students some freedom over their use of English and provides a focus for unsupervised activities.

Build on current approaches to group and pair work. Group and pair work are quite well established. Teachers now need strategies to make the activities more interactive and independent.

Help teachers develop a focus on learning through building on strategies for assessment. Checking that students have understood shows an understanding of the importance of students' learning.

Develop teachers' skills in giving feedback. Feedback of all kinds is not well represented in this study. As part of 'engaging with individual students' (above), in particular, teachers appear to need to develop constructive ways of dealing with errors. This is likely to entail fostering greater understanding of the balance to be struck between accuracy and fluency and of affective and motivational factors. There are also links to be made with strategies such as modelling, task extension and personalisation.

Support the purposeful use of literacy. There are encouraging examples of reading and writing for a purpose and of the integration of reading and writing skills within tasks. It will be helpful to secondary teachers to develop communicative in-class writing activities which support homework writing tasks.

5.4 Resources

Maintain the use of audio and visual resources in primary schools. Audio is popular and widely used in primary lessons. Posters, flashcards and figurines are used to support the meaning of the language heard. Increased training and guidance in related communicative teaching strategies (e.g. to make more of the songs; setting up pre- and post-listening tasks and the use of pause to check understanding) would increase the effectiveness of these resources further.

Promote audio use in Secondary schools. Audio resources for secondary classes are similarly well-used by teachers. (Though the value of songs to teaching and learning needs to emphasised, in materials and training, in view of evidence from another EIA study (2011a) that students do not value them.)

Promote the use of games. There are a few examples of the EIA word and picture cards being used by small groups for playing games. This practice might be supported by more explicit attention in cluster meetings and workshops, and by redesigning the resources to make them more manageable. The use of other kinds of language-learning games is also an area for development.

Encourage teachers to use and develop their own resources. There are several examples of realia and other teachers own resources being used, especially in secondary lessons. Ideas could be shared at cluster meetings.

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Acknowledgements

Appendix 1: Observer's instructions

EIA Classroom Observation (2b, part 2): Observer's instructions

Your role as a researcher

Remember you are a researcher, and in this classroom observation task you are required to give an account of the classroom activity and talk. You are not an inspector, nor an evaluator. You are not there to make judgements on the teacher, the students or the school. Any comments you make on the observation record must minimise the inference level of the judgements you make, and any comments to those in the school (or indeed those outside) should not be critical of the teacher.

The aim is to find out how much the methods of EIA are being used in the classroom in order to help the people who are working on EIA. It is not to test the teachers or their students in any way at all.

Meet head teacher and teacher

You are expected to introduce yourself to the head teacher if he or she is available, and explain what you are doing and your role (as above). If the head teacher asks you to see him or her again after the observations in the school, and asks you for an opinion of the teachers' performances say you 'were very pleased with what you saw'.

Similarly, introduce yourself to the teacher before you start observing and explain what you are doing and your role:

- You are not there to judge the teacher (or his or her students) at all, and it is not like a normal classroom observation (inspection).

- You are simply there to record what happens.

- The form that you are filling in is only for the use of the EIA project people and will not be seen or used by anyone in authority over the teachers (including the head teacher).

- The video and photos that you are taking will only be used for research purposes and will not be shared.

- The lesson should go ahead as if you are not in the classroom at all.

- You are not judging the content of the lesson – just systematically recording what the teacher is actually doing.

Further to this it is of course important to be polite and respectful of the teacher, recognising that you are 'a peer' that is a guest in their classroom. Agree with them where you should sit to be as unobtrusive as possible but to enable you to see the whole classroom and to position the video appropriately. Also agree with them what the teacher will say to the student about your presence: essentially conveying the information above.

Setting up in classroom

Sit where you will not get in the way, but can see the whole class. You may have to put the video-camera up a little higher than a desk or table to maximise the view of the class. The video recording is a back up for you to check on the observations recorded. Try and set it up to get a wide shot of the classroom but

also make sure you include the teacher. You do not need to operate the camera or move it, simply switch it on at the beginning of the lesson. Nor do you need to move about during the lesson (though if students are doing group or pair work, you might need to move closer to them to hear what the say).

Complete first page of observation sheet (General information).

Make a note of anything written on the board by the teacher at the start of the lesson (or before lesson started).

When lesson starts, start the video recorder with time code set at zero, along with the timer provided and use the latter to complete the 'Time' column in the observation sheet.

Observing

Recording activity and talk

On the observation sheet make notes on all the classroom activity and talk. This is the primary source of data and you must note down exactly what is being said. Please include gestures (pointing, etc.) if they are part of the communication you observe. Include what the teacher and students are doing, and include as much of the dialogue as you can. If the teacher talks in Bangla, write it down in Bangla; if they talk in English, write down in English. Use 'T' for teacher talk, and 'B' or 'G' for boy or girl student talk. If the class is chorusing use 'Ss'. For example:

> T: পূর্বের পাঠে আমরা শিখেছিলাম .... সম্পর্কে
> The teacher revises that lesson by pointing to a poster, asking questions of students. [Poster 1]
> T: What is this?
> Ss: This is a …
> T: Ahmed, what is this?
> B: This is a …

(Make sure that after the lesson you photograph such posters and label them as above.)

If teacher addresses questions, etc. to the whole class or to individual students, note this (if you can).

If particular students are usually chosen to answer, note this, e.g. by using a number for each student, for example:

> B1: This is a …
> G3: This is a …

You can write down the activity in either English or Bangla, but you must record any English spoken and note when Bangla and English are spoken by either students or teacher. (The write up of your notes will require you to translate Bangla into English, but don't attempt to do this while you observe.)

If the class work in pairs or groups, observe the group nearest to you and try to note down their activity and talk. If they use any materials, take photographs of these at the end of the lesson. Note also what the teacher does, for example:

> T walks round and listens to each pair/group

Note whether or not he or she intervenes by asking questions, keeping them on task, etc. If you can hear any teacher or student talk, then note this.

When materials are used (audio or visual) note down what these are, particularly when it is EIA material. If you cannot identify it, then ask teacher what it was after the lesson in the interview.

If teacher writes on board make sure you capture this and mark in notes:

Blackboard: Today's vocabulary was….

Try not to comment on the teacher or the student activity in your observations, but put this on the side in the appropriate column, for example:

T: *Where is the bird in the poster?*
S: no replies   Ss look confused

You may also want to comment in this right-hand side column whether students are paying attention. For example:

A group of four students at back of the class are talking while teacher is talking and are apparently not paying attention.

If there is period of silence, for example, when students are reading, then note this showing either the period or by time codes at start and end:

0:32-0:45 Students read in silence

Note down what they are reading and photograph relevant page(s) later if you can.

Feel free to use your own short ways of writing things, for example:

T points to P1 and asks: What is this…..
(To indicate Poster 1)
T switches on A
(To indicate audio)

In each of the above cases, note which poster (P) and which audio (A) is being used.

Mark clearly anything you are unsure about, including any materials, by using say a '?' and check at end of lesson for these so you ask the teacher (or a student).

Try to capture the flow of the lesson, and how the teacher is structuring the activity. For example, by indicating a sense of tasks being presented and explained, students doing the tasks and teachers and students reviewing the completed work. You might indicate these phases in the 'Comment' column. For example:

Time	Observed activity and talk	Comment
		T introduces task T explains task Ss complete task in pairs T reviews task with Ss

Recording time

As noted earlier, start the recording counter on the video-recorder at zero when you start recording, and similarly set the timer to zero. Start both simultaneously when the class begins (even if the teacher has not said anything).

Note the time given on the timer at the start of an activity, and when it finishes (see the example above). If an activity goes on for more than 5 minutes (e.g. if students are reading), then indicate the new time write: 'Same activity continues'.

Close of the lesson

Although the record of what is happening will be the same, pay attention to any talk that is recapping what is learned or looking forward to next time. (Note any homework that is set.)

After the lesson

You will have to interview the teacher but if that is not immediately after the lesson, make sure you take all the photographs you need (textbook, student work, posters etc.). Note anything you are unsure about or that seems unusual to ask the teacher.

Check your notes for any questions you need to ask the teacher either immediately or in the interview.

See the separate schedule and guidance for the interview.

Typing up observation notes

After you have done the observation you will need to write up the notes in an electronic version (in *Word* or other program). Use the electronic version of the observation record (which is provided) to enter the notes you made.

Enter all the general information, notes on context and then observed activity and talk, along with time codes.

Translate all Bangla into English, but indicate this by putting it in square brackets [...]. For example, if you have noted both activity and teacher/student talk in Bangla:

ই.আই.এ-র মূল ব্যাপারটাই হচ্ছে শ্রেণীকক্ষ পর্যায়ে এই পরিবর্তনগুলো উপলব্ধি করা ঃ ক্লাস রুমে শিক্ষক এবং শিক্ষার্থীর মনোভাব, আচরণ, দক্ষতা ইত্যাদি

[T: Today I want you to listen to this audio and to think about....]

Obviously if the talk is in English, record this. Do not try to correct the English, but try to note it down in as literal a way as you can.

If you are unsure how to translate accurately anything, then do write it as you think it should be and put the Bangla alongside it.

Use the video to check anything which is unclear in your notes. You are not expected to record it word for word, but check through the whole video against your record, correcting or adding to the record of talk you have made.

Photograph the classroom sketch you made and include it in the Photograph file.

File management

You will have several electronic files that hold the data for this observation:

1. The file of the observation record in *Word* or other program.
2. The file of the video recording.
3. The files of the (still) photographs you took. (Please provide an electronic list for each photograph file, numbering the photographs and with a brief description of each.)
4. The file for the interview (this may be an audio file or a video file).

Put these in folders as follows:
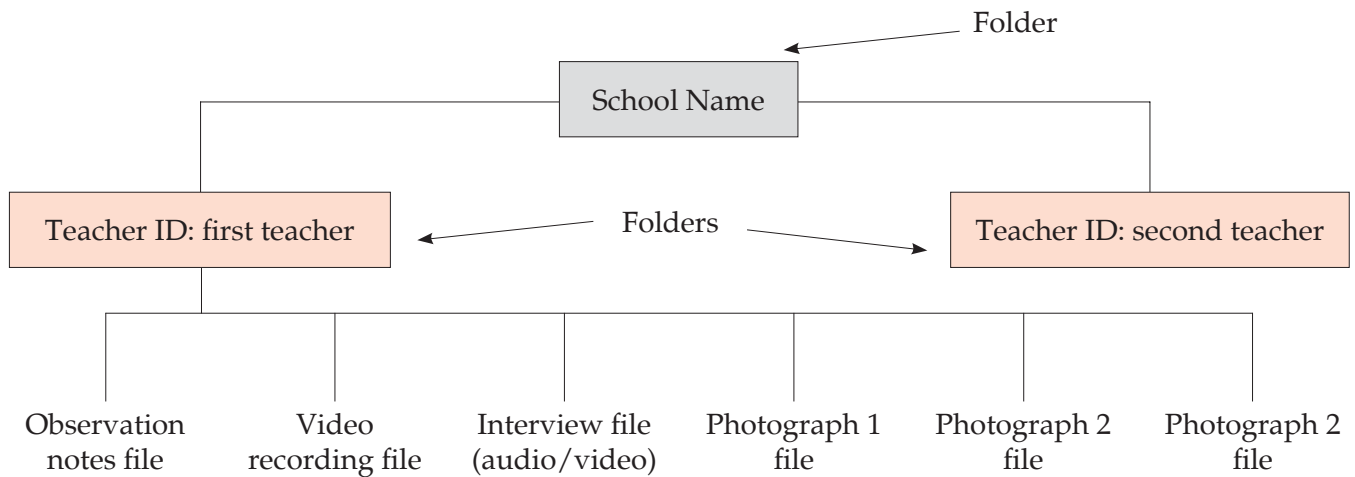
Appendix 2: Observation schedule

EIA Teachers: Observation schedule (2b, part 2)

General information

	Primary/Secondary (circle one)
Primary / Secondary	
Class	
Date	
Upazila	
School name	
Teacher name	
Observer name	
Time of lesson start	
Time of lesson finish	
No. in class and absent	
No. of girls and boys	

Researcher identifier_____

Notes on context:

Photographs of the external setting of the school: take one towards the school to show its general arrangement and one away from the school to show the surrounds of the school
(File names:_____)

Photographs of classroom, including board, wall displays (including student work), evidence of English materials and EIA materials
(File names:_____)

Also include any notes about classroom's physical atmosphere (e.g. bright, dull, bare, external noise from other classes, traffic)

Any other comments on the school and classroom appearance:

Observation Notes

Start of lesson:

Time	Observed activity and talk	Comments

Middle of lesson:

Time	Observed activity and talk	Comments

End of lesson:

Time	Observed activity and talk	Comments

After the observation:

In general, the Teacher:	Circle one
Seemed motivated	YES/NO
Engaged the students	YES/NO
Mostly spoke in English	YES/NO
Seemed prepared	YES/NO
Moved around the classroom	YES/NO
Seemed in control of class	YES/NO

Comments:

In general, the Students:	Circle one
Seemed to enjoy the lesson	YES/NO
Were willing to participate in activities	YES/NO
Mostly spoke in English	YES/NO
Seemed to be following the lesson	YES/NO

Comments:

Notes about the lesson:

What resources (esp. ELT resources) were used? (Supplement this with photos.)

What was the arrangement of girls and boys?

Did the teacher try to engage with the students generally? (Was there a focus on any particular groups of students?)

What was the teacher–student relationship like? (e.g. authoritarian teacher, collaborative with students, encouraged student risk-taking with English)

Were there any distractions? (e.g. external disturbance, power cut, classroom visitor, audio not working)

Electronic files

Video file name (TID):

Class room artifacts (e.g. close-ups of classroom displays, work on blackboard, student work of adjacent pupils, textbooks/materials used by students):

Photographs of these artefacts have been stored under the following file name(s) (TDI 1, 2, 3 etc.)	Description of photograph

Sketch of classroom (show board, teacher desk/table, students' desks/tables door(s), student arrangement, speaker location, windows, displays, etc.)

Describe the space in the classroom to enable the teacher to move around and for the students to work comfortably at their desks/tables.

Appendix 3: IER researcher training schedule

October 11th, Day 1: 10.00 -17.00

10.00 – 10.20	**1. Introduction to the study and its purpose**
1.20 - 10.50	**2. Overview of the data collection**
1.50 – 11.20	**3. Observation record and notes**
11.20 – 11.40	Tea
1.40 – 12.30	**4. Observing the secondary video; using the observation record**
1.30 – 13.00	**5. Looking at the ELT 'aspects to look out for'**
13.10 – 14.10	Lunch
1.10 – 16.00	**6. Observing the primary video; using the observation record**
16.00 - 16.20	Tea
1.20 – 17.00	**7. Arrangements - the school visit and trial run**
Homework	Jobs to be done to prepare for tomorrow e.g. equipment check; reading through the schedule and instructions as well as the guidance.

October 12th, Day 2: 10.00-17.00

10.00- 12.00	**1. In schools collecting data**
12.00-14.00	Lunch
14.00– 15.00	**2. Reflecting on the data collection**
15.00 – 15.30	**3. Plenary**
15.30 – 15.45	**4. Trainers' presentation**
15.45 – 16.15	Tea
16.15 – 17.00	**5. Practicalities**
Homework	- IER researchers to reflect and bring back to Day 3 any queries, concerns etc. re recording observations and data collection. - Read and consider ELT guidance in light of the day's experiences.

October 13th, Day 3: 10.00-17.00

10.00– 11.00	**1. ELT reflections**
11.00 –11.15	Tea
1.15 – 12.15	**2. General reflections on the trial**
12.15 – 12.45	**3. File management**
12.45 – 13.45	Lunch
13.45 – 15.30	**4. Interviews**
14.30 – 15.30	**5. Interview role play**
15.30 – 15.45	Tea
15.45 – 16 .15	**6. Observation notes – good practice**

Appendix 4: ELT aspects

Classroom observation: ELT aspects to look out for[4]

Activities at the beginning of the lesson	
Activity	*Example*
T states the learning outcomes of the lesson for the day	• *Class, today we are going to …*
T refers back to or reviewed the last lesson	• *In the last lesson, we learned about…*
T does a 'warm-up' activity	• The Ss sing a song; • Ss chorus an answer to the Ts questions: (e.g. *How are you today?*)
Activities in the main part of the lesson	
Using flash cards	
T uses flashcards with whole class, to teach or revise vocabulary	• T holds up card to elicit the word from the class (e.g. *What is this?*); the class responds in chorus (e.g. a full sentence: *It's an egg* or a single word: *egg*) • T holds up card to elicit the word from individual Ss
T uses flashcards with whole class to scaffold grammatical structures	• e.g. T: *What do you like?* the class/S responds, e.g. *I like apples.*
Flashcards used as focus for group or pair activity	• Ss are organized in groups/pairs to play a matching game to develop knowledge of the alphabet and sounds (e.g. *B; bat*; *C; cat*) • Ss are organized in groups/pairs to play sorting games with associated questions and answers (e.g. S1: *Do you have something red?* S2: *Yes, here is a red top*) • Ss in pairs use cards to prompt use of sentences (e.g. *Please give me two lemons*)
Songs and rhymes	
Ss sing/speak in chorus	• Ss repeat lines after T • Ss say whole rhyme/sing whole song in chorus • Song/rhyme practiced in groups • A group of Ss performs the song/rhyme to the class
Games	
Whole class games	• T leads a whole-class game • S takes lead role in whole-class game
Group/pair games	• T organizes Ss to play games in groups [specify any resources]

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[4] *This list is not exclusive and there are several other things that you may observe and are important to record.*

English in Action Research Report

Using posters	
T uses the poster to introduce the audio story	• Draws Ss' attention to the main characters (e.g. by asking their names) • Asks Ss (in Bangla or English) what they think is happening/what will happen next • Introduces or revises vocabulary key to understanding the audio (e.g. *What's an X in Bangla?*; *Who knows what X is?*)
T uses poster to revise known vocabulary or structures	• T asks questions to elicit vocabulary • T asks questions to elicit a specified grammatical structure (e.g. T: *Is this green?* S: *No, it is red*)
T uses poster to teach new vocabulary	• T identifies the word through the poster • T identifies the word through the poster and confirms the meaning in Bangla
T uses poster to teach new grammatical structures	• T models the structure (e.g. *The boy* eats *the mango; the girls* eat *mangoes*) • T uses examples from the poster to elicit a variety of sentences (e.g. *This is a tree; the tree is green. This is a cat; the cat is black*)
Playing audio	
T plays the audio for Ss to listen	• T settles class and ensures all Ss are listening before starting the audio • T plays the whole audio without pausing it
T prepares Ss to understand the audio [this may be supported by use of a poster]	• T explains what Ss are going to listen to (e.g. *This is a story about …*) • T outlines elements of the story (e.g. *In the first part of the story, you will hear …*) • T rehearses key vocabulary (e.g. *Do you know what an elephant is?*) • T asks 'active listening' questions (e.g. *What is the boy's name?*; *How many mangoes does each child buy?*) • T writes questions on the board that Ss should listen for answers to
Playing audio, cont.	
T pauses audio as directed by the narrator.	• T pauses audio when signaled by the pause music • T pauses audio as directed by the narrator and carries out activity specified • T (of own volition) stops audio to check/ensure understanding. (Asks class/ individual Ss to answer question(s)) • T pauses audio and has Ss repeat what was said
T plays a section of the audio to ensure understanding	

T asks questions after listening	• Tasks class/individuals to answer 'active listening' questions • Tasks class/individuals 'new' questions to check understanding
T asks Ss to complete an activity about the listening passage (this may be from the textbook)	• The Ss complete this activity on their own/in pairs/in groups
T models language from the audio	• T models pronunciation of individual sounds (e.g. *K… K….K… – kite*) • T models pronunciation of word (e.g. *chicken*; *sew*, etc.) • T models a phrase/sentence • Ss repeat
T practices structures from the audio with the whole class or individuals	• T models the structure (e.g. *I'd rather be a tortoise than a hare*); Ss repeat in chorus • T models and asks individual Ss to repeat • T asks Ss questions designed to elicit the specified structure (e.g. T: *What would you rather be?* S: *I'd rather be a …*)
Pairs/groups role-play all or part of the audio story (verbatim)	• T works with S(s) to model dialogue to the class (the T may call one or two Ss to the front of the class to model) • Ss practice dialogue as groups/pairs • Pairs/groups present their work to the class
Pairs/groups use the audio as the basis of role play	(See above) • T suggests possible variations (e.g. buying something different) • Ss create 'new' sentences (note these)
Textbook	
T reads aloud from the textbook	• T reads to the class without explanation • T prepares Ss for listening (e.g. identifying new vocabulary, asks orienting question(s))
Ss repeat what the T reads from the textbook	• S(s) repeat words • S(s) repeat a phrase/sentences • Focus is on pronunciation /understanding • Ss translate the passage into Bangla
Ss do textbook written activity	• Ss work individually • Ss work in pairs (one/both members writing)
Ss read from the textbook	• Ss read aloud in chorus • Ss read individually
Ss do oral activity based on textbook	• T organises choral dialogue based on textbook dialogue (e.g. half of the class reads one part and the other half responds) • T organises pairs to use textbook as the basis of a dialogue (e.g. as a question and answer game) • Ss work together to solve a problem (e.g. gapfill exercise)

Patterns of interaction	
Blackboard	• T uses drawing to introduce vocabulary • T uses blackboard to demonstrate writing • T uses blackboard to teach spelling • T uses blackboard to record vocabulary • T uses blackboard as a focus for a game • Ss use blackboard to demonstrate understanding/learning (e.g. S2 must say the name of a fruit, S1 must draw it) • S uses blackboard as part of a game
Listening and responding	• T tells Ss what to do (e.g. *Put your hands on your head*; *Turn you book to page 61*) • Ss are expected not only to listen, but also to do something according to the T's directions.
Student Modelling	• T calls 1 or 2 Ss to the front of the class or asks Ss to stand up. Gets them to ask each other questions to demonstrate what the whole class will do in the activity.
Teacher modelling	• T says/repeats a sound/word/phrase/ sentence so that Ss are able to copy it
Teacher demonstrating	• T shows (by writing on the blackboard, or in the air) how a letter should be written. • T shows (by doing or miming) how a game should be played
Eliciting	• T is asking questions or eliciting information which is known by the T. Ss are expected to respond verbally. (e.g. T is asking questions or eliciting information which is known by the T. Ss are expected to respond verbally) • T allows time for Ss to answer questions • Ss volunteer answers • T calls on various Ss for answers (note if these are particular Ss e.g. boys/girls, the more able, the ones who volunteer, the ones at the front)
Using mime or gesture	• T uses mime to indicate a word (e.g. peeling a <u>banana</u>) • T uses gesture to encourage a response (e.g. hand gesture, smiling, nodding head) • Ss use mime as part of a game • Ss use mime as part of role play (e.g. as shopkeeper, 'handing over' fruit to a customer
Physical response	• S(s) follows T's instruction (e.g. *come to the front*, *stand up*, *open your book*) • Ss perform actions associated with a song or rhyme
Open questions	• T asks an open question (e.g. *What do you like to eat?*)
Closed questions	• T asks a closed question (e.g. *Do you like eggs?*) • T asks a closed question to elicit a counter-statement (e.g. *Is this red? No, it's green*)

Supporting responses	• T encourages a response (e.g. hand gesture, smiling, nodding head, *'yes….'*, supplies a word that enables S to continue a sentence)
	• T pauses to give S time to answer a question
Checking understanding	• e.g. *Ss, do you understand what 'tall' means?*
	• T asks the Ss to summarise what he/she just said
	• T asks for a translation
	(e.g. *Mahruf, can you tell the class in Bangla what we're supposed to do next?*)
Dealing with errors	• T corrects Ss grammar/pronunciation
	(e.g. *It's not duck, it's dog; It's not 'he go' but 'he goes'.*)
	• T gets feedback from class about correctness
	(e.g. *Class, was that right?*)
	• Response is encouraging, while correcting. T may model correct answer
	(e.g. *Yes,' home'. Now listen, 'He goes home'*)
Feedback	• The T is responding to something Ss have said or done, and evaluating or commenting on it
	• T is positive about Ss work
	• T encourages a S to respond
	(e.g. *Yes, that's correct*;
	Not quite right. You need to use past tense;
	Well done, Ss.)
	• T responds negatively. (e.g. *No, that's wrong; No, it's 'fish'.*)

Activities at the end of the lesson	
T recaps what the lesson has covered	*Today we learned about …*
T provides feedback on what Ss have covered in the lesson	*You did very well on the activity today; Maybe next time, you will remember…*
T sets homework assignment	*For homework, I would like you to…*
T asks Ss if they have any questions about the lesson	*Do you have any questions about X?*
T asks Ss what they thought of lesson	*What did you find difficult?; Do you feel you can do what I said we were to learn?*
Ss respond to above	

Appendix 5: Coding frame descriptive notes

2b2 qualitative analysis of lesson observation notes: coding frame 5

Guiding question: What is the nature of ELT in the classroom?

Warm-up activity: variety of ways to start the lesson: greetings (English); classroom routines: take attendance, write date, number of pupils etc.; song.

Scene setting: (a) lesson level: statement of what today's lesson is; review/reference back to last lesson; lesson outcomes for this lesson; **(b)** for each activity (set up for learning). For both cases, code 'none' if appropriate (e.g. Teacher enters, Good morning, today's lesson is….)

Eliciting: asking questions of students verbally (in English), giving time to answer, student volunteers answers; various students chosen to respond (teacher may/may not know the answer to question); verbal/non-verbal; progressive questioning; includes gestures. Students must answer in English or respond in Bangla to an English question etc.

Monitoring: **(a)** supervision: going round class to see that task is being can be completed by students and answering queries; **(b)** interacting with students through: supporting activity, discussing with them issues arising in activity (not clarification of task), and facilitation.

Checking that students understand: **(a)** tokenism: asking general questions 'do you understand' (to class or individuals); **(b)** 'real check': asking student to translate/summarise, checking pronunciation, checking concepts, all with a degree of interaction with students (e.g. no student response, student response and teacher confirms, student response and teacher probes further).

Using material in classroom: EIA or not; nature of material (poster, visual aids, audio, textbook etc.) to create English language work (e.g. asking questions about picture; game using the visual; stopping audio to ask questions).

Body language and gesture: eye contact, smiles to encourage and make meaningful interaction; communicative purpose.

Pair/group work: **(a)** where it simply organises students (no student interaction); **(b)** evidence of student interaction, enables interaction in English and completion of task (collaboration of some form).

Open v closed questions: open when a variety of answers are valid; teachers encourages alternative answers; verbal/non-verbal.

Instructions from teacher: **(a)** Task instruction: in English or Bangla, students respond in way to show know what they are doing or not; **(b)** to manage class: in English, note from student response their understanding.

Feedback (positive): telling student done something correctly or praising (e.g. class to clap student).

Dealing with errors: ignoring error and opportunities to learn; correcting error (not T modelling); explaining error; working with student/other students to identify error and help correct; reframing question (scaffolding the task).

Modelling language: intention is for student to reproduce; note what the element of language being modelled.

Expansion: (a) personalisation of activity/question/task by taking subject lesson or task and asking students to put it in their own context (e.g. writing a biography of famous person they read about and then writing their own); **(b)** development of the questions, etc., that are not driven by the immediate context of lesson (including linking to previous work).

Student presentation: reading, talking about their work after an activity (could be individual, pair or group).

Student initiative: (a) cognitive: asking a question, making comment (unsolicited); **(b)** peer support **(**affect) (e.g. helping with a word)

Repetition: (a) by individual student; **(b)** by the class (chorus).

Individual work: **(a)** reading; **(b)** writing.

Teacher presenting: (a) reading; **(b)** talking.

Ending lesson (cooling down): some way of bringing lesson to close (not just walking out); review of lesson; homework task; link to next lesson.

Instructions for coding

Assigning codes to selections of text of lesson observation notes should record which of the above sets (codes) are used (e.g. eliciting), and also add a note of any possible free nodes (sub-codes) (e.g. that capture how the eliciting is done), using the elaboration in the codes overleaf. When we come to use NVIVO then we will add any more details through the memo. You will see that the code report has the sets in first column, free nodes in second column and the third column is where you can note any possible memo entries (some are suggested).

Include sufficient in the text associated with the code to interpret the quote if taken out of context of lesson.

Some elements are evidently routines that may run through a variety of codes (e.g. forming groups, using posters, instructions that are used), and this can be noted.

Multiple codings of text should be encouraged.

Case summaries

The following categories may help in summarising a case:

Activities are linked: speaking, reading, writing etc. (tasks not isolated and without connection), as part of a sequence.

Active learning: degree to which most students are evidently doing things that help learning (could include pair/group work; games; writing and reading activities).

Teacher-centred: lesson led by teacher ideas and dominated by his or her activity and talk, with minimal single word responses from students (collectively or individually).

Student-centred: lesson builds on students' ideas and responses, including their learning needs and interests.

ENGLISH in ACTION

English in Action (EIA) is a nine-year English language education programme implemented through a partnership between the UK Government and the Government of Bangladesh. The goal of EIA is to contribute to the economic growth of Bangladesh by providing English language as a tool for better access to the world economy. EIA works to reach a total of 25 million primary and secondary students and adult learners through communicative language learning techniques and the use of ICT, textbooks and supplementary materials in an innovative way.

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