

Action Research Final Report 2025

Fostering Communicative Competence in First-Year Junior High School Students with Focus-on-Form Instruction and Performance Tests

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Introduction

In Japan, English education begins in the third grade of elementary school, and many students continue studying English in order to advance to junior high and high school. However, given the length of this learning period, I wonder how many of those who study English in Japan can actually communicate fluently in English. Before I studied at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies (NUFS), I used the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) to teach English. Simply put, I always translated the English in textbooks into Japanese and had students read it repeatedly. According to Lightbown and Spada (2021), “the degree of imitation among children varies...they don't just repeat what they hear, but use the language creatively” (p. 17). My Action Research (AR) aims to develop students' communicative competence (CC) by incorporating focus-on-form instruction (FFI) into the classroom and conducting performance tests including speaking and writing tests. In addition, I place emphasis on developing interactional competence (IC).

Literature review

Communicative Language Teaching

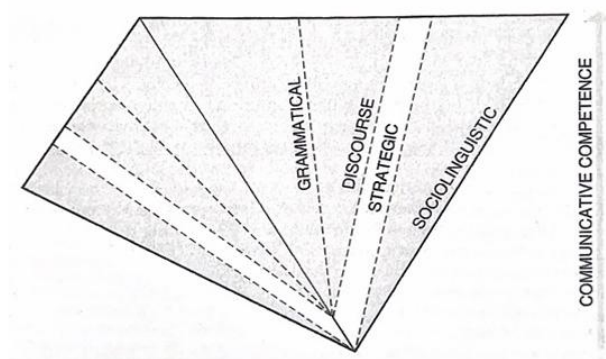
English education in Japan has been criticized for placing emphasis on reading, writing, and grammar, and has been improving communication skills. As globalization progresses in society, the need for English has been increasing. In response to that, the Japan Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT) revised the curriculum guidelines in 2017. The changes are specifically designed, “[t]o develop students' basic communication abilities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, deepening their understanding of language and culture and fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages” (p. 1, Junior high school curriculum guidelines on foreign language chapter 2, section 9, 2017). The new foreign language curriculum guidelines place emphasis on developing communication skills, which has been based on CLT.

Definition of Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative competence (CC) was proposed by Hymes (1972), who analyzed how language functions as a communicative event in sociocultural contexts. He focused on the social aspect, saying that when we speak, we do not just need to produce grammatical sentences, but also to make appropriate statements that are appropriate to the situation. Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) defined it including four communicative competences: (1) grammatical competence, (2) discourse competence, (3) sociolinguistic competence, and (4) strategic linguistic competence. This framework had a major influence on language education curriculum development until the mid-1990s. Similarly, Savignon (1997) shows in the diagram a possible relationship between grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence and how these competences interactive with one another as overall communicative competence increases.

Figure 1

The components of Communicative Competence (Savignon, 1997)



According to Savignon (1997), grammatical competence refers to the mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences. Sociolinguistic competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used (p. 41). Discourse competence refers to the ability to interpret a series of sentences or utterances in order to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context (p. 44). At the stage when

communicative competence is not mature, grammatical competence and discourse competence have not yet developed. A certain level of maturity is required to obtain grammatical competence and discourse competence. On the other hand, sociolinguistic competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction (p. 41). The fourth component of Savignon's CC definition is strategic competence. Strategic competence refers to the ability to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur (pp. 44-45). Particularly noteworthy is how a measure of sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence allows a measure of communicative competence even before the acquisition of any grammatical competence (Savignon, 1997, p. 49). Sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence are also seen in the early stages of CC development. Interestingly, sociolinguistic competence increases with CC development, but strategic competence has no relationship to CC development. According to Canale and Swain (1980), the component of strategic competence is "verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication" (p. 30). Therefore, strategic competence exists at all levels and fosters communication. Furthermore, Savignon (1997) claimed that "[c]ommunication is the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning; and communicative competence is always context specific, requiring the simultaneous, integrated use of grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence" (p. 225). In addition, Long (1983) argued that modified interaction is the necessary such as interacting with other speakers, working together through negotiation for meaning (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2021, p. 118). When we interact with other people, we can learn a lot from them. In short, CC includes the aspects of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally.

Definition of Communicative Language Teaching

CLT is an approach that represents a significant shift from traditional language teaching methods to a focus on communicative competence. CLT emerged in the 1970s as a reaction to previous teaching methods, such as the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) and the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). In ALM, language habits were formed by memorizing dialogues and practicing sentence patterns, usually through drills that

required learners to imitate and repeat (Lee & VanPatten, p. 9, 1995). Lightbown (1983) investigated the effect of ALM on interlanguage development. These findings suggest a different developmental stage than learners in more natural learning environments. Furthermore, Lightbown and Spada (2021) state that when the same forms of drill practice were no longer being practiced, “many students appeared to revert to an earlier stage in their development and did not use tense marking at all ... repetition and drill of decontextualized did not seem to favor the development of comprehension, fluency or communicative abilities either” (p. 170). Thus, the emergence of CLT can be seen as a response to the limitations of ALM, which was the dominant method.

Lightbown and Spada (2021) defined CLT as “[a]n approach to L2 teaching based on the premise that successful L2 learning involves not only a knowledge of structures and forms of a language but also the functions and purposes that a language serves in different communicative settings” (p. 235). According to Savignon (2002), “[t]he essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence” (p. 22). Furthermore, “CLT is properly seen as an approach, grounded in a theory of intercultural communicative competence, that can be used to develop materials and methods appropriate to a given context of learning” (pp. 22-23). In short, CLT is an approach that focuses on meaningful communication to develop learners’ communicative competence rather than linguistic forms. Brown (2007) claimed that classroom goals are focused on all of the components of CC and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence. He gives the following list of characteristics of CLT:

- (1) Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of CC and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence.
- (2) Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
- (3) Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.

(4) In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts. (p. 241)

With the advent of CLT, teaching methods have gradually been changed by using Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and introducing smaller class sizes. In short, CLT should be student-centered, not teacher-centered and emphasizes real-life communication and practical language use, enabling learners to speak in authentic contexts.

Communication Strategies

CSs are classified under strategic competence, one of the essential components of communicative competence (CC). Savignon (1997) states that one of the four fundamental components of communicative competence (CC) is strategic competence. Strategic competence remains largely unchanged from the early stages of language acquisition (see Figure 1, p. 2) through to advanced learners. According to Savignon (2002), “the effective use of coping strategies is important for communicative competence in all contexts and distinguishes highly effective communicators from those who are less so” (p. 10). Brown (2007) described strategies as “[t]hey are the moment-by-moment techniques that we employ to solve ‘problems’ posed by second language input and output” (p. 132). In short, CSs are specific strategies for maintaining and regulating communication and successfully negotiating meaning.

Definition of Communication Strategies

Communication strategies (CSs) have evolved progressively with the broader development of second language acquisition (SLA) research (e.g., Corder, 1967, Selinker, 1972). Ellis (2008) states that “it wasn’t until the 1980s that interest in communication strategies really took off” (p. 502), and CSs rapidly gained attention and became established as an independent research field. The field of SLA has distinguished between two types of strategy: (1) learning strategies relate to input (e.g., processing, storage, and retrieval), and (2) CSs pertain to output (Brown, 2007, p. 132). Brown (2007) states that CSs “pertain to the employment of verbal or nonverbal, mechanisms for the productive communication of information” (p.137). According to Canale and Swain (1980), strategic competence is described as “verbal and non-verbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication” (p. 30). This indicates that non-verbal means such as mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound

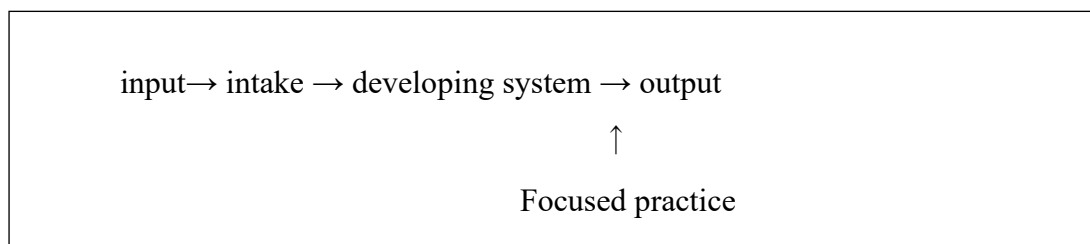
imitation (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 58) play an essential role in negotiating meaning and mutual understanding. Corder (1982) states CSs are “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his [or her] meaning when faced with some difficulty” (p. 103). In short, CSs help sustain interaction when learners encounter communication breakdowns. Moreover, according to Dörnyei (1995), the reason why teachers teach CSs is “they provide the learners with a sense of security in the L2 by allowing them room to maneuver in times of difficulty” (p. 80). CSs are generally recognized as valuable resources that aid learners in managing communication breakdowns and enhancing their sense of ease during interaction.

Grammar Teaching within Communicative Language Teaching

According to Savignon (2002), “the essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence” (p. 22). Communicative teaching and grammar teaching tend to be seen as completely separate things. However, Savignon (1997) states that “grammar is not taught in isolation but is integrated with the four skills and presented in a meaningful context (p. 9), and CC “is always context specific, requiring the simultaneous, integrated use of grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence” (p. 225). In sum, grammar is a part of CC, and grammar instruction should be given in a meaningful context. However, in current pedagogical practice, grammar instruction is often characterized by a predominant focus on memorization. Brown (2002) states that “[g]rammar is not merely a collection of forms to be learned and memorized. It is a system of meaningful structures used in appropriate contexts” (p. 362). In terms of the processes involved in language acquisition, Lee and VanPatten (2003) argue that “a coherent grammar lesson is one that takes students from processing grammatical features in the input to accessing those features from their developing systems and producing output” (p. 181). Figure 2 shows traditional grammar practice, meaning that learners are only given instructions and then guided to output practice. (Lee and VanPatten, 2003 p. 133). Therefore, traditional grammar practice does not lead to the stage of producing output because it does not adequately provide input-based practice.

Figure 2

Traditional practice in grammar (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 133)



In addition, Lee and VanPatten (2003) state that “input is necessary for creating a system, input is not sufficient for developing the ability to use language in a communicative context” (p. 168). Therefore, it is necessary to practice both input and output. However, as mentioned above, grammar instruction should be taught within a meaningful context (Savignon, 1997, p. 19). Long (1991) proposed the concept of Focus on Form (FonF), which entails drawing learners’ attention to grammatical features only when such attention is warranted within meaning-focused communicative activities. Moreover, Ellis (2006) examined the effectiveness of grammar instruction from the perspective of SLA and emphasized the importance of Focus on Form (FonF). ***Definition of Focus on Forms (FonFs), Focus on Meaning (FonM), and Focus-on-Form (FonF)***

Long (1991) defined three approaches based on SLA:(1) Focus on Forms (FonFs), (2) Focus on Meaning (FonM), and (3) Focus on Form (FonF). FonFs is a pedagogical approach that emphasizes the explicit instruction of multiple discrete linguistic features, typically following a syllabus centered on grammar and vocabulary. Ellis (2006) stated that “a traditional approach to teaching grammar based on explicit explanations and drill-like practice is unlikely to result in the acquisition of the implicit knowledge needed for fluent and accurate communication” (p. 102). In contrast, FonM places exclusive emphasis on communicative effectiveness and the negotiation of meaning, with little to no attention given to the explicit instruction of grammatical forms or vocabulary (Long, 1991). Ellis (2006) distinguishes between explicit and implicit knowledge, and they have different aspects of language including grammar. Explicit knowledge is held consciously, learnable, and verbalizable. Implicit knowledge is procedural, and is held unconsciously (p. 95). According to Ellis (2006), “explicit

knowledge of grammatical structure makes it more likely that learners will attend to the structure in the input and carry out the cognitive comparison between what they observe in the input and their own output” (p. 97). FonM alone may not facilitate the development of explicit grammatical knowledge, therefore, it is necessary to direct learners’ attention to grammatical features (Ellis, 2006, pp. 95-98). Long (1991) defined FonF as “overtly draws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication” (p. 45-46). In addition, Spada (1997) defined FFI as “any instructional effort used to implicitly or explicitly draw learners’ attention to linguistic forms” (p. 73). That is, an explicit focus on language is more likely to facilitate learners’ development on communication.

Planned and Incidental Focus on Form

Ellis (2006) considered three broad types of form-focused instruction (FFI). Table 1 shows types of FFI. Although FonFs has already been mentioned above, FonFs is characterized by a structured approach that emphasizes the explicit teaching of grammatical rules and sentence patterns (p. 100). Thus, students primarily learn grammar and vocabulary. Planned focus on form and incidental focus on form are based on meanings. Lee and VanPatten (2003) affirm that “learners who are engaged in meaningful or meaning-based approaches to grammar (called focus on form) do as well as or better than those who are engaged in activities that are nonmeaningful or not part of some communicative intent” (p.123).

Table 1

Types of Form-Focused Instruction

| Type | Primary Focus | Distribution |
|-----------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1. Focus on forms | Form | Intensive |
| 2. Planned focus on form | Meaning | Intensive |
| 3. Incidental focus on form | Meaning | Extensive |

Note. This table is adapted from Ellis (2001, p. 17)

Ellis (2006) describes planned focus on form as “[t]his approach, then, involves teaching grammar in a series of separate lessons. Focus on form entails a focus on meaning with attention to form arising out of the communicative activity. This focus

can be planned, where a focused task is required to elicit occasions for using a predetermined grammatical structure” (p. 100) Lee & VanPatten (2003) state that “[b]y being pushed to process form and meaning simultaneously, they not only could process better but also access their newfound knowledge to produce a structure they never produced during the treatment phase (p. 148). In junior high school, new grammatical items are systematically introduced in each unit. This structured progression allows teachers to adopt planned focus on form when presenting new grammar, thereby facilitating learner understanding through meaningful input.

Incidental focus on form pays learners’ attention to linguistic items as they arise spontaneously without prior planning in meaning-focused interaction. By focusing on specific topics after completing a unit, learners are provided with opportunities to reflect on and consolidate their understanding of the content. Ellis (2006) mentioned that “[a]n incidental focus-on-form approach is of special value because it affords an opportunity for extensive treatment of grammatical problems (in contrast to the intensive treatment afforded by a focus on-forms approach)” (p. 102). In essence, incidental form-focused instruction can be effectively utilized in oral assessments in real-world contexts. According to Lee & VanPatten (2003), “[i]f the content of the oral test is overtly tied to classroom activities then learners are provided a stronger motivation for participating in the activities” (p. 101). This is called washback effect (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), which refers to “relationship between what happens in class and how learners are tested” (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 183). In other words, incidental Focus on Form (FonF) offers greater opportunities for authentic communication compared to planned FonF. This approach enables learners to develop their ability to use language in real-world contexts and enhances their communicative competence by fostering more effective self-expression.

Interactional Competence

A common observation in classrooms is that some students with very high English proficiency struggle to convey even simple meanings, while others with relatively low English proficiency are very good at communicating with peers. This can also occur outside the classroom. CC is becoming increasingly important in learning a second or foreign language. Traditional concepts such as CC and pragmatic competence are based on the implicit assumption that competence is simply the knowledge and

skills possessed by an individual. However, Hall and Pekarek Doehler (2011) point out two weaknesses in CC research: (1) The various components of CC have been treated as static cognitive characteristics of individuals, and (2) The focus of research has been on speaking ability, not interaction ability (p. 4, as cited in Sato & Crane, 2023, p. 14). Young (2011) states that the fundamental difference between IC and CC is that “IC is not what one knows, but what one does with others” (p. 432). In short, being able to have a conversation depends not only on whether you have the knowledge and skills, but also on how well you can build a relationship with peers during the interaction.

Definition of Interactional Competence

In the 1980s, the communicative approach became increasingly popular, and the proficiency movement reached its height, as evidenced by the publication of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Proficiency Guidelines in 1986, which was a measure of language proficiency, or how well an individual could use a language. Kramsch (1986) challenged traditional assumptions in language teaching. Kramsch (1986) first proposed the concept of IC, and further discusses it, stating:

Whether it is a face-to-face interaction between two or several speakers, or the interaction between a reader and a written text, successful interaction presupposes not only a shared knowledge of the world, the reference to a common external context of communication, but also the construction of a shared internal context or “sphere of inter-subjectivity” that is built through the collaborative efforts of the interactional partners. (p. 367, as cited in Young, 2011, p. 427)

In other words, it is more important for interaction to understand each other’s meanings, to negotiate meanings, to support, to clarify than to be fluent in one individual. Young (2011) further states that “IC is not the knowledge or the possession of an individual person, but is co-constructed by all participants in a discursive practice” (p. 428). Young (2008) indicated that IC includes the following seven resources that participants bring to an interaction.

Table 2*Seven resources of Interactional Competence (Young, 2008, p, 71)*

| Categories | Resources of IC |
|-------------------------|--|
| Identity resources | <i>Participation framework</i> : the identities of all participants in an interaction, present or not, official or unofficial, ratified or unratified, and their footing or identities in the interaction. |
| Linguistic resources | <i>Register</i> : the features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar that typify a practice. <i>Modes of meaning</i> : the ways in which participants construct interpersonal, experiential, and textual meanings in a practice. |
| Interactional resources | <i>Speech acts</i> : the selection of acts in a practice and their sequential organization. <i>Turn-taking</i> : how participants select the next speaker and how participants know when to end one turn and when to begin the next. <i>Repair</i> : the ways in which participants respond to interactional trouble in a given practice. <i>Boundaries</i> : the opening and closing acts of a practice that serve to distinguish a given practice from adjacent talk. |

Note. Cited in Young, 2011, pp. 429-430.

Knowing these seven resources allows us to analyze learners' interactions, which means we can treat IC as an assessable framework. I now turn to the ways in which these resources can be assessed and further developed.

Conversation Analysis

CA is a unique method for analyzing language and social interactions that originated in the 1960s (Wong and Waring, 2021, p. 3). According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), the distinctive methodological feature is "CA gathers its data of naturally-occurring interactions as they unfold in real time using video-or audio-recording technology ... allowing for detailed analysis of the design, exchange, and

coordination of behaviors in social interactions” (p. 1). Moreover, CA is applied to a wide variety of forms of conversation, ranging from ordinary telephone conversations to doctor's office consultations, from family dinner conversations to communications between airline pilots and ground crew, from job interviews to television interviews with celebrities and politicians (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 1). Wong and Waring (2021) introduce the principles of CA in three broad categories: (1) collecting data, (2) transcribing data, and (3) analyzing data (p. 4). Collecting data refers to actual occurrences of social interaction must be audio or video-recorded. Transcribing data refers to the process of converting audio or video recordings of interaction into a written, analyzable format. Analyzing data refers to the systematic examination of transcribed interactional records in order to identify patterns, practices, and structures that participants use to accomplish social actions (Wong & Waring, 2021, pp. 4-7). What Wong and Waring (2021) focus on here is CA analysts approach the data from an emic perspective (i.e., “a way of looking at language and social interaction from an ‘insider’s’ perspective” (Wong & Waring, 2021, p. 6). That is, “the insider’s perspective is not obtained by interviewing the speakers, but by examining how the participants treat each other’s talk in the details of interaction” (Wong & Waring, 2021, p. 6). In short, a CA-based transcription should not include an outsider’s perspective.

Interactional Practices

Wong and Waring (2021) define interactional practices (IP) as “the systematic verbal and nonverbal methods participants use to engage in social interaction” (p. 8).

There are various IP as follows:

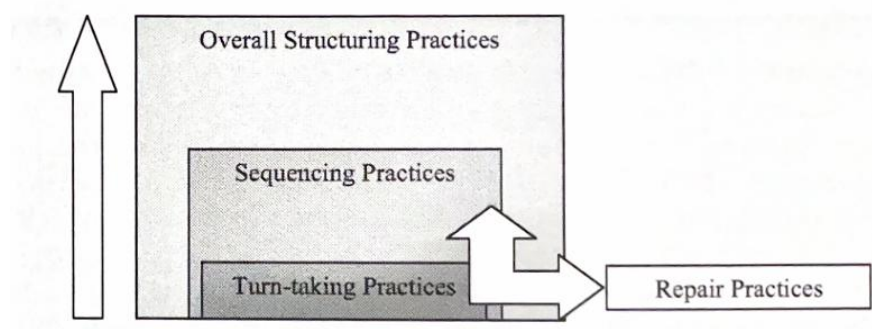
- (1) Turn-taking practices: Ways of constructing a turn and allocating a turn.
- (2) Sequencing practices: Ways of initiating and responding to talk while performing actions such as requesting, inviting, story-telling, or topic initiation.
- (3) Overall structuring practices: Ways of organizing a conversation as a whole as in openings and closings.
- (4) Repair practices: Ways of addressing problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding of the talk. (Wong and Waring, 2021, p. 8)

Figure 2 shows that IP’s basic model illustrating the relationship between the conversation structure and repair. According to Sacks et al. (1974), “[t]urn-taking is

used for the ordering of moves in games, for allocating political office, for regulating traffic at intersections, for serving customers at business establishments, and for talking in interviews, meetings, debates, ceremonies, conversation” (p. 696). Wong and Waring (2021) define turn-taking practices as “ways to constructing a turn and allocating a turn” (p. 20). We do not consciously monitor or regulate the precise moments at which conversations begin or end. However, for language learners, not knowing about turn-taking might mean missing opportunities to speak or lost them. Therefore, knowing how to participate in turn-taking is given learners opportunities for speaking (Wong and Waring, 2021, p. 9).

Figure 3

Model of Interactional Practices (Wong & Waring, 2021, p. 9)



According to Sacks et al. (1974), the basic unit of a turn is a turn-constructive unit (TCU) (i.e., “a word, a phrase, a clause, a sentence, or a gesture that completes a communicative act” (Wong & Waring, 2021, p. 22), and as each TCU deploys, it reaches a possible completion point (PCP) which may be a place for speaker transition. By using different types of TCU, you can broaden the conversation such as syntax, phonetics, pragmatics, or embodied conduct (Wong & Waring, 2021, pp. 47-48). In addition, making learners aware of TCU enables them to plan for better turn completion and expansion. Sequencing practices are “participants’ ways of connecting two or more turns, for example, in making and responding to a request, telling a story or managing a topic” (Wong and Waring, 2021, p. 9). Wong and Waring (2021) define the generic sequencing practices as “adjacency pairs, preference, response tokens, and responses to questions” (p. 80). Among these, the basic sequencing practice is adjacency pairs (AP), which consists a sequence of two turns “produced by different speakers and ordered as

first pair-part (FPP) and second pair-part (SPP), where a particular type of FPP requires a particular type of SPP” (Wong & Waring, 2021, p. 80). These are two utterances that appear as a paired series in an interaction, where the production of the first utterance conditionally relates to the second utterance, making it normatively expected. Therefore, through sequencing practices, learners can solve problems such as what to say and how to say what needs to be said. Overall structuring practices refer to “ways of organizing interaction as a whole, which includes orientation to openings and closings” (Wong & Waring, 2021, p. 222). Repair practices are the ways of dealing with troubles in speaking, hearing, or understanding during interaction. (Hayashi et al., 2013; Sacks et al., 1974; Schegloff et al., 1977; Sveenevig, 2008; Wong & Waring, 2021). The concepts of trouble source treated as problematic by participants and repair segment which is the interactional space expanding from repair initiation to repair completion arise when a situation requiring repairs occurs during interaction (Wong & Waring, 2021, pp. 314-317). In short, the trouble source is where the problem occurred, and repair segment is the utterance to deal with the problem. Moreover, repair can be initiated and resolved by either participant, and there are four main types of repairs: (1) self-initiated self-repair, (2) self-initiated other-repair, (3) other-initiated self-repair, and (4) other-initiated other-repair. For example, when speakers engage in self-correction (i.e., same-turn repair and replacing), this can be characterized as self-initiated self-repair. When the interlocutor responds with expressions such as “What?” or “Pardon?”, these are utterances function as forms of other-initiated repair (Wong & Waring, 2021, pp. 318-333). In previous research on IC, Baraha-Rohan (2011) demonstrated that learners’ IC are developed through turn-taking, adjacency pair, repair, and co-construction and forth (p. 499). Sato and Crane (2023) further demonstrated how discursive practice in EFL classrooms develops various qualities of IC, such as turn-taking, repair, action formation and sequencing (p. 20). IP makes it possible to visualize, cultivate, and evaluate the ability to establish effective communication. Hale et al. (2018) suggest integrating CA into AR because “CA is a natural fit for action research as it can provide teachers with a powerful analytic lens through which to view language use in their classrooms ... in order to make pedagogical changes that can enhance learning” (p. 54). Incorporating IP through the lens of CA enables a productive

integration of pedagogical practice and research, thereby leading to improvements in the quality of classroom interaction.

Performance Tests for Assessment

Tests and assessments are crucial in English language education. As cited in Earl (2007), Stiggins (1993) said,

If you want to appear accountable, test your students. If you want to improve schools, teach teachers to assess their students. If you want to maximize learning, teach students to assess themselves. Students need to become their own best assessors. (p. 96)

Tests are necessary for students in terms of making students aware of their own responsibility. Teachers give students a chance to prepare themselves and demonstrate what they have learned in class. Recently, performance tests have become more common in junior high school, high school, and university. According to Shohamy (1998), [p]erformance tests are most appropriate for a clientele with certain shared second language needs ... [p]erformance tests are generally assessed with the aid of rating scales that describe what a person can do in the language in a specific situation and contexts (p. 241). For example, a specific situation and contexts are often based on textbooks, but what we need to be careful about is whether the context is realistic or familiar to students. Tests always involve assessment, and Wiggins (1998) makes the most convincing case yet that school-based assessment should aim mainly to improve, rather than to audit, student performance.

Research Questions and Class Goals

The students are energetic and engage in all English activities. However, there are a few low proficiency students who are not able to read and write in English. Therefore, this class has a wide range of academic abilities, which makes teaching difficult. My research questions are blow:

- (1) How does focus-on-form instruction (FFI) together with performance tests improve students' speaking and writing abilities?
- (2) How does using communication strategies (CSs) affect students' speaking abilities?
- (3) How does the development of interactional competence (IC) affect students' communicative competence (CC) (especially their speaking abilities)?

In addition to these, the class goals 2025 are as follows:

- (1) By March, 80% of students can continue a conversation in English using conversation strategies (CSs) for two minutes and a half.
- (2) By March, 80% of students can write in English more than 60 words.
- (3) In the final survey, 80% of students will answer that they like English very much or they like English.

Method

Research Context

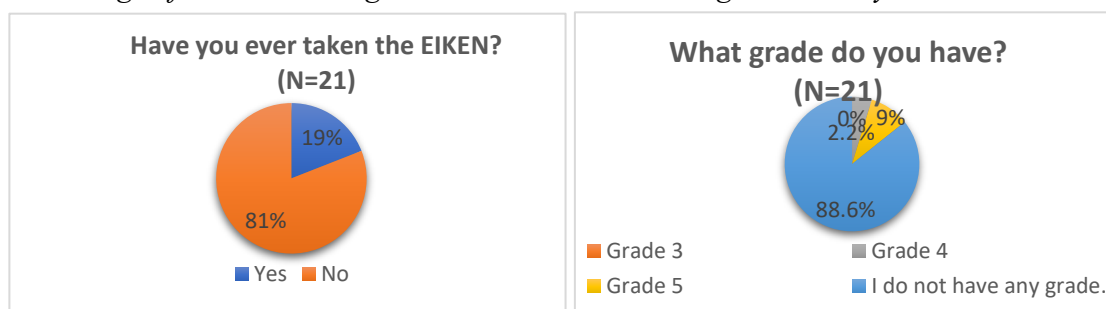
The research aims for developing students' CC through interactional practices based on FFI and performance tests. FFI was implemented for each grammar item based on the procedures described in Sato, Fukumoto, Ishibashi, and Morioka (2012). Since April 2025, I have conducted four speaking and writing tests. Conversation cards were used in the last two speaking tests.

Participants

The participants were first-year students at a public junior high school, aged 12 to 13. There were 23 students, and the study was based on the textbook *Here we go I*, published by *Mitsumura*. They have English lessons for fifty minutes four times a week. Their level of English was not so high. Only 19% of students have taken the Eiken (see Figure 4) in the survey in May.

Figure 4

Percentage of students taking the EIKEN and students' grade in May



Note. Two students were absent.

Figure 5 shows that all students answered that they need English for the future, and half of students encounter English even outside of class. For example, they talk with peers in English and play games with people all over the world.

Figure 5

Percentage of students' English needs and using outside of class



Note. Three students were absent.

To gain a detailed understanding of changes in their English proficiency, three students were randomly selected and interviewed in July and March. Their characteristics are as follows:

Table 3

Targeted students' characteristics

| Learner | Level |
|---------|--------------|
| Rika | Low |
| Masa | Intermediate |
| Teru | High |

Note. All names are pseudonyms.

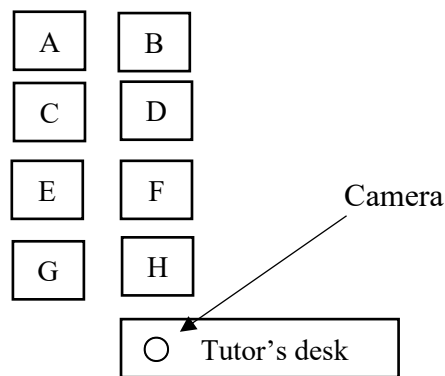
Data Collection and Analysis

Multiple data were collected and analyzed using a variety of methods such as: (1) video recordings (2) transcription, (3) action logs, (4) questionnaires, and (5) interviews. Video recording allowed for the recording of real-time interactions, providing an objective perspective on classroom activities. In addition, video recording was conducted during the speaking tests, and students' interactions were later

transcribed to evaluate and analyze students' language abilities and CSs usage. Regarding class observation, I asked my colleague for help and observed the class with the video recording. I determined how to carry out the investigation based on the list of questions in advance (Burns, 2009 p. 59). I told my colleague who I wanted to observe in particular, and asked him to take a note about the following points when observing:(1) How do the targeted students interact with peers? and (2) How do they accomplish the task? The targeted students are E and H (see Figure 6).

Figure 6

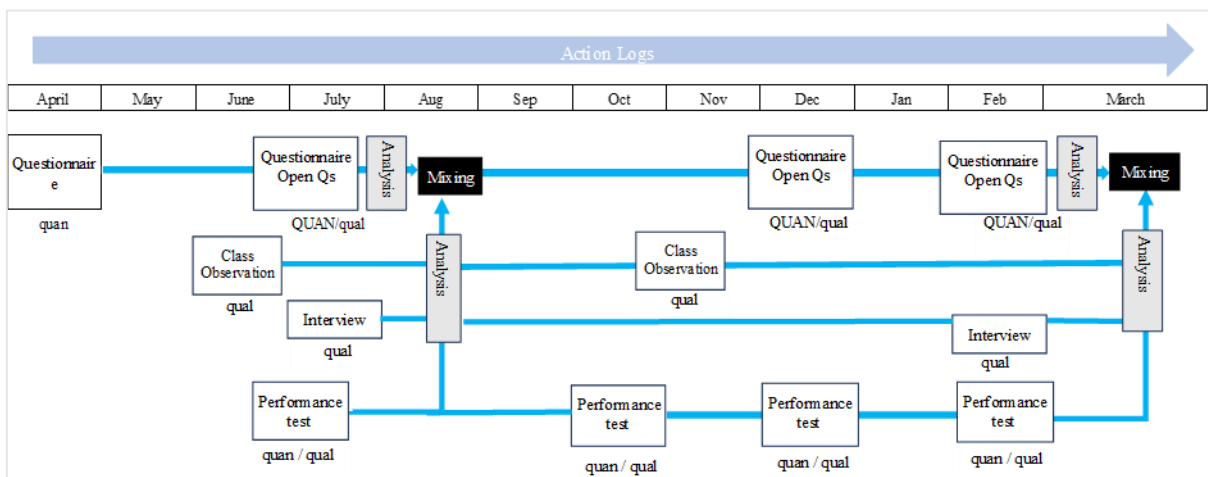
Classroom video recording set-up focusing on the targeted students



Research map was designed for a process for better understanding the environment (see Figure 7). As for action logs, students were given a reflection sheet after each lesson.

Figure 7

Research design map from April to March



The questionnaires were conducted by Google form in April, July, and March and after each speaking test. The questionnaires primarily focused on four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and also included the levels of understanding, enjoyment, and interest. The four skills were measured using a five-point Likert scale, while understanding, enjoyment, and interest were assessed using a four-point Likert scale. Because it encourages learners to choose either positive or negative, minimizing the possibility of neutral responses.

Results

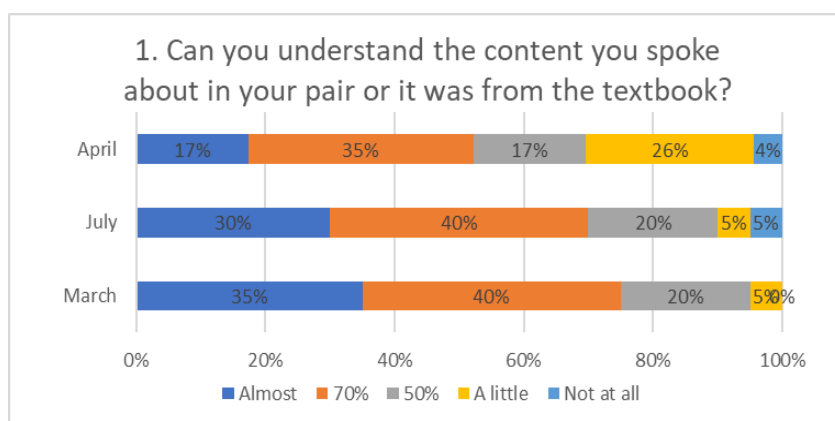
The findings were examined in terms of the research questions based on collecting data from April to March.

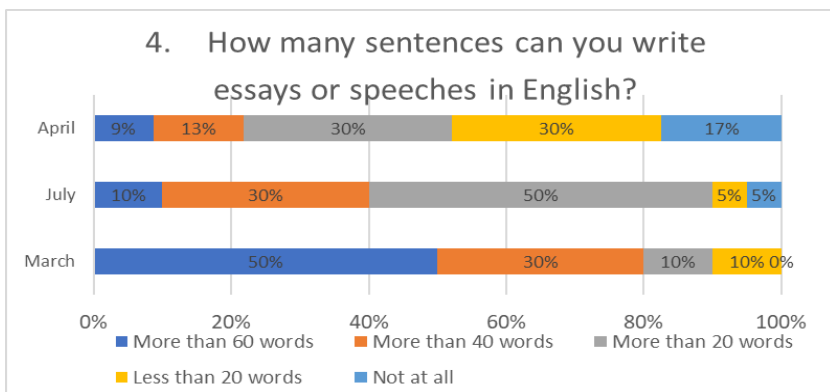
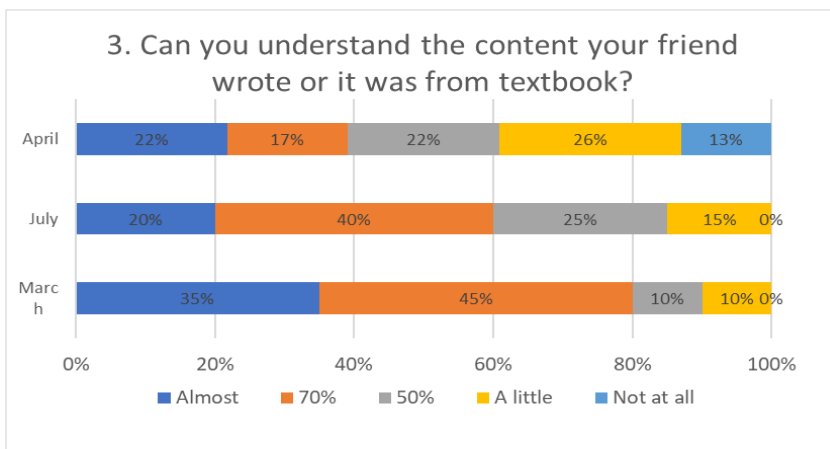
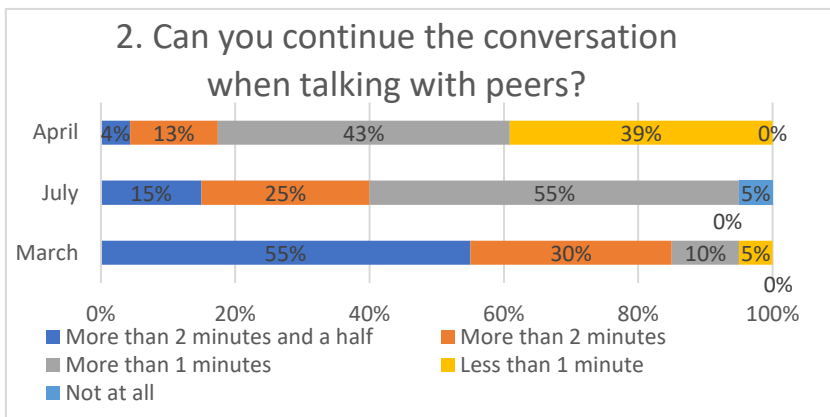
Research Question 1: How does FFI together with performance tests improve students' speaking and writing abilities?

When teaching new grammar items, I used planned FFI and created individual worksheets for each lesson. For the speaking tests, I used incidental FFI (Appendix 2B-A). Four speaking and writing tests were conducted, with the last two speaking tests using conversation cards. Figure 8 shows the result of questionnaires conducted in April, July, and March regarding four English language skills.

Figure 8

Students' questionnaire results for listening, speaking, reading, and writing





In Figure 8, the students' speaking and the writing skills have dramatically improved. In April, only 17% of students reported being able to speak for two minutes. In March, 85% of students reported being able to speak for two minutes or more. Furthermore, regarding the writing skill, 9% of students reported being able to write more than 60 words in English. In March, 50% of students reported being able to write more than 60 words in English. Throughout the year, they reflected on their learning experience as follows:

Table 4

Majority of students' comments in March

| Category | Comments |
|------------|--|
| Fun | <i>We were able to help each other as a pair and understand each other. (2)</i> <i>The lesson was enjoyable because it focused more on conversation than grammar. (2)</i> |
| Growth | <i>My speaking skills have improved. (9)</i> <i>I've become really good at writing in English. (6)</i> <i>I've become able to react. (2)</i> |
| Motivation | <i>I could not understand English at first, but I've gotten better at it. (8)</i> <i>I've gained confidence from speaking English a lot. (5)</i> |
| Difficulty | <i>I'm still not good at writing. (3)</i> |

Note. The reflections from the students above are translated from Japanese by the author.

At the beginning of the year, some students said they felt incapable or anxious, but many students felt they had grown throughout the year. There were particularly many comments about their speaking and writing skills.

In the interview, I asked, “How has your English changed since April?” The students replied:

- I'm starting to understand what the ALT is saying, and I'm getting better at reading it, which is making it fun. (Rika)*
- At first, I couldn't even write my name properly, but now I've grown so much. (Masa)*
- I was anxious at the beginning of junior high school, but I've developed my ability to apply English. (Teru)*

The interviews from the students above were translated from Japanese by the author. Italic indicates that they were translated.

The results about the writing abilities of the three selected students throughout the year are as follows:

Table 5

Total number of words written by the targeted students: Rika, Masa, Teru

| Student name | Rika | Masa | Teru |
|-----------------|------------|--------------|------------|
| Level | Low | Intermediate | High |
| | June/March | June/March | June/March |
| Number of words | 21/38 | 34/65 | 58/199 |

Note. Spelling mistakes are not counted.

The students did not look at anything on the day of the writing test. Masa achieved amazing results (see Appendix 2B-B), even though Masa could not even write his name in April.

Research Question 2: How does using CSs affect students' speaking abilities?

At the beginning of each lesson and throughout the lesson, students had at least three timed conversations with different partners using CSs. The following are the results of the questionnaires on the use of CSs after the speaking tests conducted in June and March.

Figure 9

Percentage of students' CSs use in June

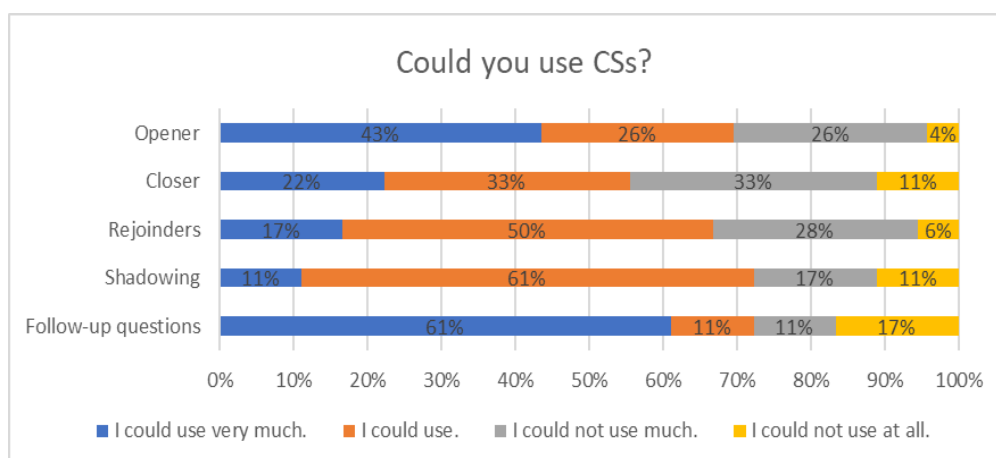
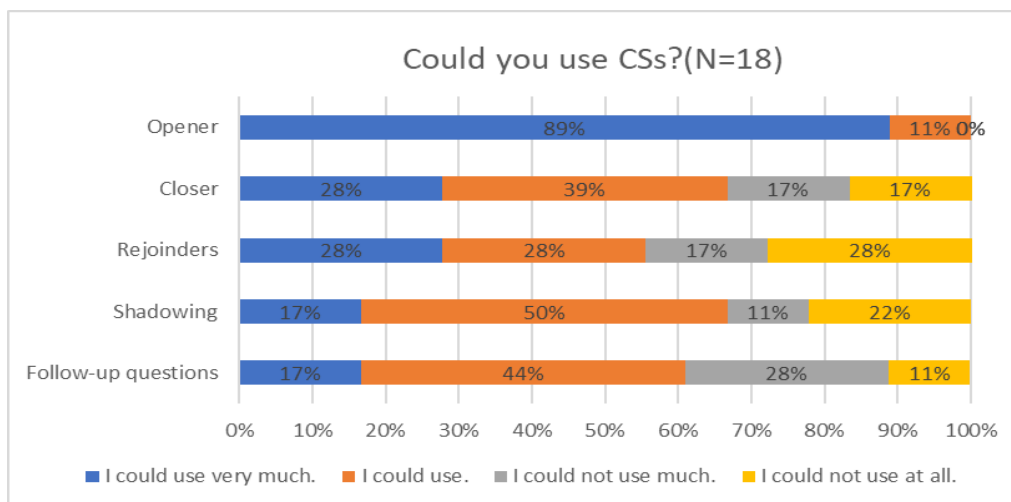


Figure 10

Percentage of students' CSs use in March



According to Figure 10, 100% of students were able to use Opener. Unfortunately, there is been an increase in students who could not use rejoinders and shadowing. However, the students who answered they could speak for more than two minutes increased from 45% in July to 85% in March. (see Figure 8). Therefore, it may be possible that the increased complexity of the learning material allowed students to dedicate more attentional resources to the content itself. The following transcript is an analysis of the speaking tests in June and March using InqScribe to examine CSs in more detail. In excerpt 1, Kaho used rejoinders, shadowing, and follow-up questions fluently. Riho could use rejoinders, shadowing, and follow-up questions prepared in advance, but she could not use follow-up questions that she had thought up herself. Therefore, she relied on memorization and was unable to speak fluently.

Excerpt 1: Kaho and Rika (Topic – My weekends; June, 2025)

rejoinders shadowing follow-up questions prepared in advance
follow-up questions

01 Kaho hello::
02 Rika hello::
03 Kaho あー {a::, well} how are you?
04 Rika I'm tired how are you?
05 Kaho I:m:: (.) happy
05 Rika oh (.) happy

06 Kaho yes

07 Rika what do you do on weekends? [00:00:09.26]

08 Kaho I like dancing [00:00:11.01]

09 Rika dancing| (1.0) do you like dancing?
| ((R gestures))

10 Kaho yes I do

11 Rika why?

12 Kaho u:: I'm a music fan. are you a music fan?

13 Rika あー {a::, well} (3.0) あー {a::, well} yes I do.

14 Kaho yes (0.3) me too | I:: (0.3) I can dance:: well
| ((both laugh))

15 Rika oh nice

16 Kaho yes (..) what do you on weekends? [00:00:34.26]

17 Rika I go:: I go swimming (0.2) |on the weekends
[00:00:40.00]
| ((R grabs clothes))

18 Kaho swimming? [00:00:41.01]

In excerpt 2, Rika asked *where* (Excerpt 2, Line 18) in addition to the questions prepared in advance. She responded well by mixing rejoinders and shadowing.

Excerpt 2: Kaho and Rika (Topic-My winter vacation; March, 2026)

rejoinders shadowing follow-up questions prepared in advance
follow-up questions

12 Mami i went to movie theater with my friend (.)
e:: I ate popcorn. e:: popcorn was delicious. e::
(3.0)

13 Rika how was it?

14 Mami e:: I was fun. e:: did you watch:: a movie?

15 Rika no::no::

16 Mami ok

17 Rika a:: where?

18 Mami where? u:: e: >AEON AEON<

19 Rika ok ok (.)°AEON ok°

Table 6

Total number of communication Strategy used by the targeted students: Rika, Masa, Teru

| Student name Level | Rika Low | Masa Intermediate | Teru High |
|------------------------------------|-------------|----------------------|--------------|
| | June/March | June/March | June/March |
| 1. Opener (Hello/ How are you?) | 1/1 | 1/1 | 1/1 |
| 2. Closer (Nice talking with you.) | 0/0 | 1/0 | 1/1 |
| 3. Shadowing | 2/1 | 1/4 | 4/4 |
| 4. Rejoinders (Nice. / Good.) | 1/2 | 5/5 | 2/7 |
| 5. Follow up questions | 0/1 | 2/3 | 2/6 |

Note. Follow-up questions written in the worksheet based on the incidental FFI (see Appendix 2B-A) are not counted.

Table 6 shows that Masa dramatically increased the number of shadowing. Teru increased the number of rejoinders and follow-up questions. In the interview, I asked, “Was it useful to practice conversation using rejoinders, shadowing, and follow-up questions?”. The students replied:

- When it happens the conversation breakdown, I can use CSs. I also want to know how to let the other person know when I don't understand something.

(Rika)

-Asking questions about the topic expands the conversation and makes peers feel more comfortable. (Masa)

-Even if you understand the grammar, it won't be exciting without reactions. It's good because it feels like a real conversation. (Teru)

Teru realized the importance of reactions on his own and was able to use them effectively in the speaking tests.

Research Question 3: How does the development of IC affect students' CC, especially their speaking abilities?

To foster the development of students' IC, particularly its cognitive components, the teaching design incorporated extensive interactional practices and explicit training in CSs. All speaking tests were systematically recorded, and some conversations were later subjected to CA. Based on the CA in the students' speaking tests, I extracted conversations about "sequence organization" within IP. Excerpt 3 showed Kaho (high-level) and Rika (low-level) talking about their weekends in June.

Excerpt 3: Kaho and Rika (Topic - My weekends; June, 2025)

20 Kaho [nice u:m:: (.)do you like (...) swimming?
21 Rika yes I do
22 Kaho why?
23 Rika |because I'm: Im a swim (.) swimmer
24 Kaho swimmer
25 Rika | I ° always ° (1.0) swim (2.0) swim i always (2.0) run
to run to swim
26 Kaho really?
27 Rika yes
28 Kaho |あー {a::, well} u:m:: (1.0) do you like animals?

Kaho tried to continue the conversation by asking a question do you like animals?, but it is completely unrelated to the topic. Beginners often fail to anticipate the next action that their partner's prior turn creates, and suddenly start a new sequence. In other words, they do not understand the continuity of the sequence. Excerpt 4 showed Mami (high-level) and Rika (low-level) talking about their winter vacation in March.

Excerpt 4: Mami and Rika (Topic-My winter vacation; March, 2026)

17 Rika a:: where?
18 Mami where? u:: e: >AEON AEON<
19 Rika ok ok(.)°AEON ok°
20 Mami e:: u:: (.)by the way e:: u:: do you watch::kouhaku
(2.0)kouhaku utagassenn?

In line 20, the conversation breakdown happened. Mami used *by the way* to cleverly rephrase the question, and the content was relevant to winter vacation. Mami performed a disjunctive topic shift and used a disjunctive marker (Crow, 1983, pp. 141-143). Next, I extracted conversations about “repair” within IP. Excerpt 3 continues the conversation between Mami and Rika. In line 5, Rika does not usually react much, but she corrected her own mistake (self-initiated self-repair).

Excerpt 5: Mami and Rika (Topic-My winter vacation; March, 2026)

01 Mami hello::
02 Rika |hello::
03 Mami how are you?
04 Rika I:m:: (.)good how are (.) you?
05 Mami I’m sleepy えー {e::, well} what did you do during the winter vacation?
06 Rika i went to (..) swimminG every day(..) ah sorry sorry (.)
i (.)e:: swimming with my brother

In Excerpt 7, Yuki (low level) and Sho (intermediate level) talking about their families in December.

Excerpt 7: Sho and Yuki (Topic – Introduce your family; December, 2025)

23 Yuki her birthday is(.) August ten
24 Sho oh:: August ten.
25 Yuki >あつまちがえた {ah, I was wrong} < October ten.
26 Sho >oh October ok<

In line 25, Yuki corrected her own mistake (self-initiated self-repair)), while Sho repeated it again to confirm the correct answer. Sho was dominating the conversation, but the situation changed suddenly. In line 33, he was a loss of words. Then Yuki asked him a good question “how old?”. Sho asked the same question promptly. In excerpt 4, line 38, Riri could not say “years old”. Sho repaired (self-initiated other-repair) and told her naturally.

Excerpt 4: Sho and Yuki (Topic-Introduce your family; December, 2025)

33 Sho oh(.) ah[h
34 Yuki [how old?
35 Sho ah(1.0) oh (1.0) eleven [(0.2) years old.
36 [Sho coughs
37 Sho oh how old?
38 Yuki ele::eleven (0.2) °eleven° year,
39 Sho eleven years old. oh
40 Yuki does does (2.0) he °like°

In the interview, I asked, “What do you think about speaking activities in pair work and group work?”. The students replied:

- *If I do not understand something, I can ask the other person, and I can learn from what they say.* (Rika)
- *Speaking English with peers while standing increased my interactions with them.* (Masa)
- *Speaking practice helps me understand English. Grammar alone does not make me find my words.* (Teru)

All three expressed positive opinions, and it was obvious that the interactional practices, which are pair work and group work activities, had a significant impact on IC. Furthermore, Table 7 shows the results of re-evaluating four speaking tests conducted in June, December, and February by three of the target students, using the evaluation criteria used in the final speaking test (see Appendix 2B-A). Since the speaking time differed for each test, the fluency item in the rubric was evaluated only for whether or not there were long pauses. Teru’s improvement in CC was immediately apparent in the results. He didn't use rejoinders very well in June, but he used them effectively in the speaking tests in December and February. Masa’s speaking ability was gradually improving. Rika’s score showed an improvement in her speaking ability dramatically from June to December. However, since the content and grammar items has become more difficult and the partners have changed each time, a longer period of observation is needed to increase the reliability of the results.

Table 7*Changes in students' speaking tests scores: Teru, Masa, Rika*

| Teru | June (1:30) | December (2:00) | February (2:30) |
|---------------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Accuracy (3 points) | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Content (7 points) | 7 | 7 | 7 |
| Fluency (5 points) | 5 | 7 | 5 |
| CSs (5 points) | 3 | 5 | 5 |
| Total (20 points) | 18 | 20 | 20 |
| Masa | June (1:30) | December (2:00) | February (2:30) |
| Accuracy (3 points) | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| Content (7 points) | 5 | 6 | 6 |
| Fluency (5 points) | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| CSs (5 points) | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Total (20 points) | 13 | 15 | 18 |
| Rika | June (1:30) | December (2:00) | February (2:30) |
| Accuracy (3 points) | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Content (7 points) | 3 | 5 | 5 |
| Fluency (5 points) | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| CSs (5 points) | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Total (20 points) | 11 | 14 | 14 |

Note. The topics for the performance test were as follows: my weekends (June), my family (December), and winter vacation (February). The parentheses indicate the test time.

Research Class Goal 1: By March, 80% of students can continue a conversation in English using CSs for two minutes and a half.

In the final speaking test, most students were able to speak for two minutes and a half, and in the survey results (see Figure 8), 55% of students reported being able to speak for two minutes and a half. Therefore, it can be said that the goal was almost achieved.

Research Class Goal 2: By March, 80% of students can write in English more than 60 words.

The survey results (see Figure 8) showed that 50% of students answered that they could write in English more than 60 words. In Table 7, 70% of students wrote in English more than 60 words. Therefore, it can be said that the goal was almost achieved.

Table 8

Number of words in fun essays in March (N=19)

| Number of sentences | Number of students |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| More than 60 words | 13 |
| More than 50 words | 3 |
| More than 30 words | 1 |
| More than 20 words | 0 |
| Less than 20 words | 2 |

Research Class Goal 3: In the final survey, 80% students will answer that they like English very much or they like English.

Regarding their level of understanding, enjoyment, and interest, unlike the four skills' questions, four options were given, and students were asked to select the option they thought was most appropriate on a four-point scale. Figure 11 and 12 shows that students' understanding and enjoyment have increased. In addition, Figure 13 shows that 95% of students answered that they like English very much or they like English. Therefore, it can be said that the goal was fully achieved.

Figure 11

Students' perception of their level of understanding and enjoyment

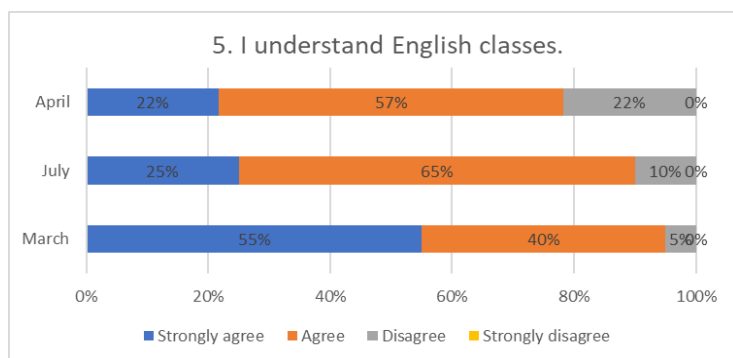


Figure 12

Students' perception of their level of understanding and enjoyment

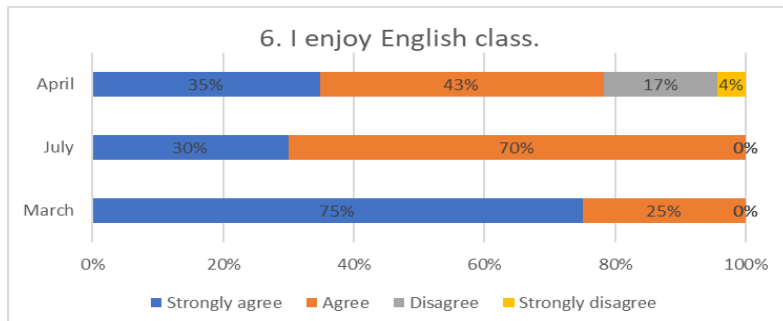
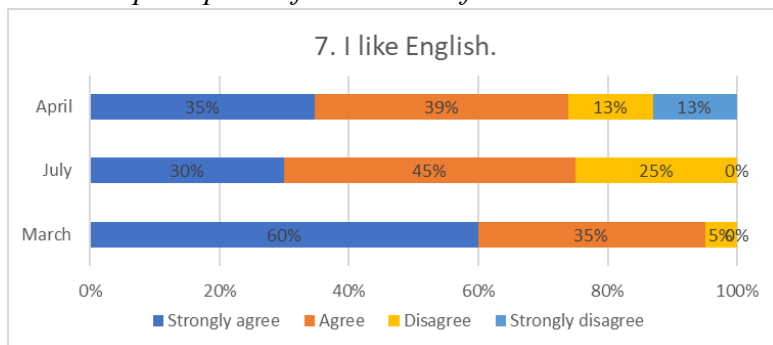


Figure 13

Students' perception of their level of interest



Discussion

Research Question 1: How does FFI together with performance tests improve students' speaking and writing abilities?

Throughout the year, I consistently implemented worksheets based on FFI and conducted four speaking and writing tests. Each speaking test was immediately followed by a corresponding writing test. In Figure 8, all English skill areas showed improvement from March to April. In their final questionnaire, many students reported enhanced speaking proficiency, and further reported improvements in their writing ability. These results indicate that integrating FFI with performance tests was effective in promoting the development of both speaking and writing skills.

Research Question 2: How does using CSs affect students' speaking abilities?

As shown in Table 3, Rika, Masa, and Teru could use CSs. In the interview, Rika said that using CSs makes it easier to communicate with others, and Masa said that

using CSs broadens the conversation and makes the other person feel comfortable. In addition, the video recording showed that they enjoyed talking with peers naturally using CSs. Even when the conversation seemed to happen the conversation breakdown, they were trying to keep the conversation going using CSs. Thus, instructing CSs was effective to develop their speaking abilities.

Research Question 3: How does the development of IC affect students' CC, especially their speaking abilities?

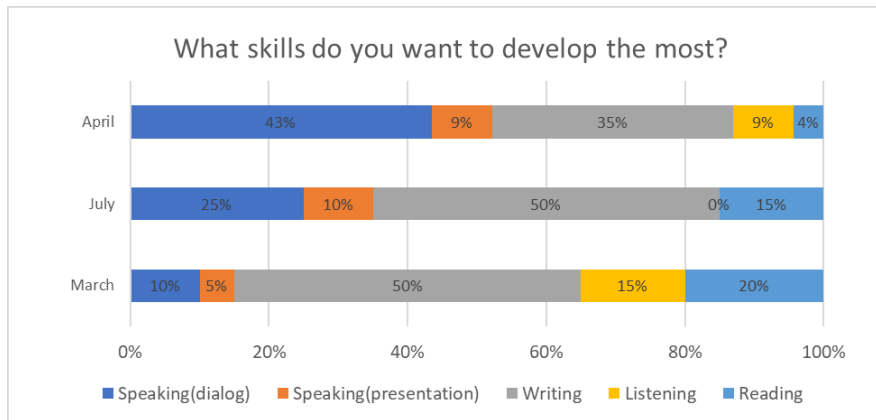
Through CA, I certainly observed an improvement in students' IC. While Rika's speaking test results did not change much, she was able to use follow-up questions and showed self-initiated self-repair during the speaking test. Mami used the topic shift to broaden the conversation and offered example answers when Rika was struggling to continue the conversation. Sho corrected Yuki's mistakes, and Yuki asked follow-up questions when the conversation breakdown happened. They engaged in co-constructive practices that supported each other's participation. This research offers only a preliminary account of learners' IC based on CA, and its analytical depth remains limited. To address this limitation, next year's research project will involve more specific investigations based on CA.

Conclusion

This research was conducted over one year with first-year junior high school students. Initially, they could not even write their own names. While they had some listening and speaking experience from elementary school, their vocabulary and grammar were completely insufficient. Starting in April, when they were anxious about what learning English at junior high school would be like. A year later, this AR showed improvement in their English skills. Furthermore, they were filled with confidence and motivation through CLT. Finally, in response to the question of what they would like to improve, they gave the following answer.

Figure 14

Students' perception of what skills they want to develop



In the other class, the most common response was that students wanted to improve their speaking skills. Therefore, since the classes will be mixed next year, I want to continue focusing on speaking and writing. In reflecting on my instruction for writing, I have emphasized writing tests rather than fun essays throughout the past year. Next year, I plan to incorporate fun essays. The research has been conducted over a relatively short period, some uncertainties persist. Therefore, I plan to re-examine my teaching approach for the coming year.

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Appendix 2A

Lesson Plan

| Time | Interaction T-Ss, S-S, S | Activity and Procedure |
|-----------|--------------------------------|---|
| 50 (5) | S-S | Greeting Small talk (Talk about their family) |
| 45 (5) | T-Ss | (Step1) The beginning of the class, I asked “How do you say 冬休みの間 in English. Then, I write down “during the winter vacation” on the board. I talk about the winter vacation. Students listen to teachers’ talk and fill in the blanks in Japanese. |
| (2) | S-S | Check the answers in pairs Check in whole class |
| (5) | S | (Step2) Circle the correct word students hear. |
| (2) | S-S | Check the answers in pairs Check in whole class |
| (5) | T-Ss | (Step3) Explain about “past tense (過去形)” (Step4) See through a lie. |
| (9) | S | Have students write three sentences about their winter vacation in English, but they have to write a lie in the one of the three sentences. |
| (12) | S-S | Talk with peers about their winter vacation. |
| (5) | S | (Step5) Write about their winter vacation using past tense. |

S-S: 21 minutes

S: 19 minutes

T-Ss: 10minutes

Total Time: 50 minutes

Appendix 2B-A

Worksheets



Planned FFI sample 1 (page 1)

冬休みの思い出は？



Class: 1 - ____ No. ____ Name: _____

Step 1 会話を聞いてわかったことを表に入れよう！

| | | 冬休みにしたこと |
|----------|---|----------|
| Ms Kaji | | |
| Doraemon |  | |
| Chikawa |  | |

Step 2 正しいほうを選ぼう。

1. I (play / played) Jinsei game during the winter vacation.
2. I (watch / watched) comedy shows during the winter vacation.
3. I (eat / ate) butamen during the winter vacation.

Step 3 文法の説明

I played Jinsei game. 訳： _____

過去の出来事をいうときは、play や like などの動詞の後に () を置く。しかし変化する動詞もある。

例えば；

eat 食べる → () go 行く → () have 持つ・食べる → ()



Planned FFI sample 1 (page 2)

Step 4 冬休みの思い出について3つの文を書こう。

※ただし、一つだけうそを書くこと。(教科書 p.142~を参考にしよう。)

例:

1. I played taikono tatsujin during the winter vacation.
2. I went to Tokyo during the winter vacation.
3. I ate mochi during the winter vacation.

1.

2.

3.

友達のうそを見破ろう!!

チャンスは1回。当てれば1ポイントゲット!何ポイントゲットできたかな?多くゲット

できた人は、新年初シールゲット!

ポイント



会話例:

A: Hello. How are you?

B: I am hungry. How about you?

A: I am good. Tell me about your winter vacation.

B: Ok. I.../I.../I...(3文いう)

A: I see. The answer is ()!

B: 正解なら That's right./不正解なら No. 答えを伝えてあげよう。

A: Nice talking with you.

B: You too.


Step 5 うそをついた文を正しくしよう。

冬休みの思い出は？ Part 2



Class: 1 - ____ No. ____ Name: _____

Step 1 会話を聞いて、わかったことを表に書こう。

| | | 冬休みにしたこと |
|----------|---|----------|
| Ms Kaji | | |
| Doraemon |  | |

Step 2 正しいほうを選ぼう。

(1) A: Hi Ms Kaji! (Did / Do) you go to Tokyo during the winter vacation?

B: (Yes, I did. / No, I didn't). I went to Kyoto during the winter vacation.

(2) A: Hi Doraemon! (Did / Do) you eat *osechi* during the winter vacation?

B: (Yes, I did / No, I didn't). I ate dorayaki. I (didn't / don't) eat *osechi*.

Step 3 文法の説明

Did you go to Kyoto? 意味()

★答える時 Yes, I did. / No, I didn't.

I didn't eat *osechi*. 意味()

★過去の出来事をたずねるときは、() を一番前に置きます。否定するとき

は、() を動詞の前に置きます。動詞は原形に戻しましょう。



Step 4 Let's play Bingo! 冬休みにしたかどうか聞いてみよう。じゃんけんをして勝ったら、相手にできるかどうか2つ質問してみよう。もし Yes と答えたらチェックしよう。次は負けた人が2つ質問しよう。

会話例：

A: Hello. How are you?

B: I am hungry. How about you?

A: I am good. Did you ~during the winter vacation?

B: Yes, I did./ No, I didn't.

A: Did you~ during the winter vacation?

B: Yes, I did./ No, I didn't. 2つ質問する。

A: Nice talking with you.

B: You too.

| | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
|  eat natto |  do kendo |  speak English |  run fast |
|  draw |  play games |  cook |  play tennis |
|  use computers |  dance |  play the piano |  eat broccoli |
|  play basketball |  swim |  do judo |  sing |

Step 5 Ms Kaji に冬休みについて聞いてみよう。

Unit 7

My Winter Vacation <<スピーキングテストに向けて>>

Class: 1 - ____ No. ____ Name: _____

Step 1 会話を聞いて、わかったことを表に書こう。

| | 行ったところ | したこと | 感想 |
|---------|--------|------|----|
| Ms Kaji | | | |
| 相手 | | | |

Step 2 あなた自身について、考えてみよう。

(1) What did you do during the winter vacation?

A:

A:

(2) How was it?

A:



使える表現

Where? (どこで) When? (いつ) With who? (誰と) How many? (いくつ)

What did you do there? (そこで何をしたの)

Tell me more. (もっと教えて) Did you~? (~しましたか?)

※必ずリアクションをしましょう!

Rubric for the Speaking and Writing Tests (March)

| 1st Grade (Speaking test) | | My Winter Vacation | ≪評価シート≫ |
|------------------------------------|--|--------------------|---------|
| Class: _____ No. _____ Name: _____ | | | |
| | | | |
| Categories (項目) | Criteria(評価基準) | Points (得点) | |
| Accuracy | There were a few vocabulary and grammar mistakes. | 3 | |
| | There were some vocabulary and grammar mistakes. | 2 | |
| | There were many vocabulary and grammar mistakes. | 1 | |
| Content | I could talk about my winter vacation and answer the questions very much. | 7 | |
| | I could talk about my winter vacation and answer the questions. | 5 | |
| | I could talk about my my winter vacation and answer the questions a little. | 3 | |
| | I could not talk about my winter vacation and answer the questions at all. | 1 | |
| Fluency | I could talk with peers for 2 minutes and a half without long pauses. | 5 | |
| | I could talk with peers for 2 minutes and a half. | 3 | |
| | I could not talk with peers at all. | 1 | |
| Communication strategies | I could use opener, closer, reactions, shadowing, and ask follow-up questions to keep the conversation. | 5 | |
| | I could use opener, closer, reactions, shadowing, but I could not ask follow-up questions much to keep the conversation. | 3 | |
| | I could not do anything. | 1 | |
| | | | / 20 |

| 1rd Grade (Writing test) | | My Winter Vacation | |
|---------------------------------------|---|--------------------|------|
| Class: 1- _____ No. _____ Name: _____ | | | |
| | | | |
| Categories (項目) | Criteria (評価基準) | Points (得点) | |
| Accuracy | There were a few spelling and grammar mistakes . | 5 | |
| | There were some spelling and grammar mistakes . | 4 | |
| | There were many spelling and grammar mistakes . | 3 | |
| Contents | I could dig deeper into my family topic, and write sencentes as long as possible. | 5 | |
| | I could write about my family. | 4 | |
| | I could write about my family but there is a little uncertainty. | 3 | |
| | I could not write about my family much. | 1 | |
| The number of words | More than 60 words | 5 | |
| | More than 50 words | 4 | |
| | More than 30 words | 3 | |
| | More than 20 words | 2 | |
| | Less than 20 words | 1 | |
| | | | / 15 |

Students' worksheets

Writing test (June)

Hello I will tell about weekends.
I usually play soccer.
First I like soccer very much.
This is a big fan of soccer.
So I want to go to summer festival.
It is fun.
I want to go to an amusement park.

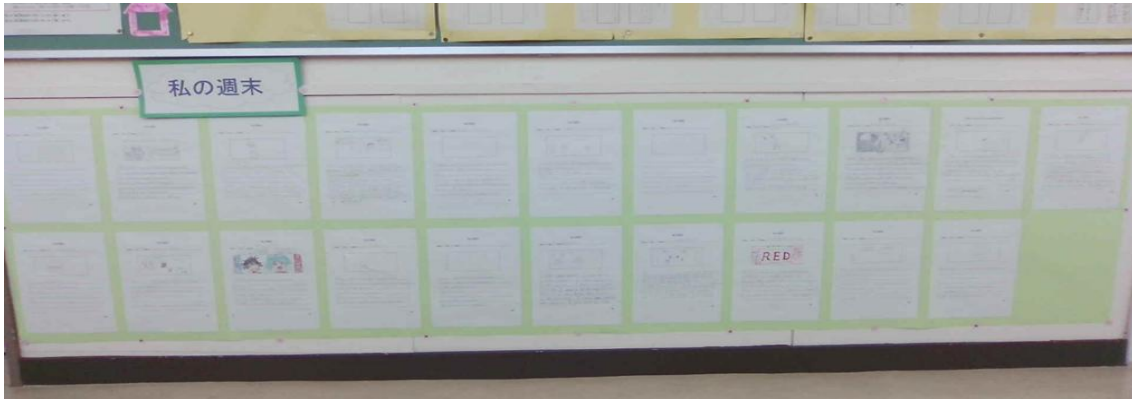
Writing test (March)

Hello How are you?
I will tell me about winter vacation.
I went to my grandma's house.
I played games with my cousin.
I played e-football and Brawl Stars.
I went to Honmarutei. Honmarutei is a ramen shop. I ate tonkotsu ramen. It was very delicious. I went to a tatami room. I ate tsukisima sashimi.
I played soccer with my cousin.
It was fun. My cousin is very cool.
I went to Round Wan.
I played Spochan.

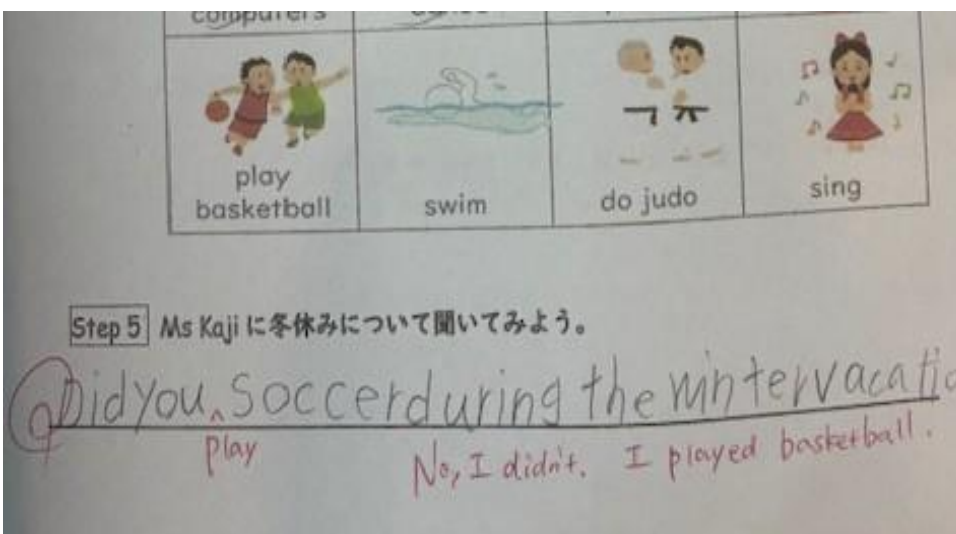
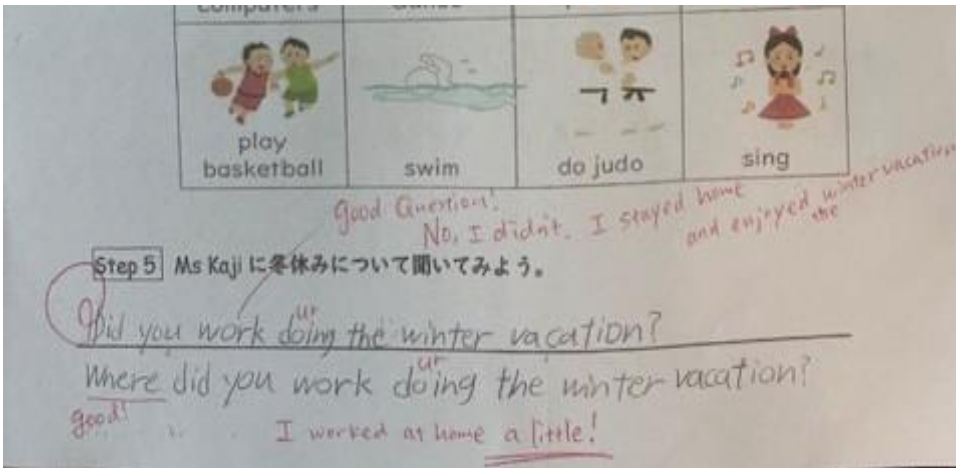
Writing test (March)

I will tell you about my winter vacation. First, I went to Yokohama. I visited Chinatown. The Chinatown was really beautiful and great. I ate a lot of Chinese food. It was really delicious. I like ramen very much. I ate ramen there. Second, I also went to Yokohama Landmark Tower. It was very tall and cool. I saw the view of Yokohama and the sea. It was very beautiful. I went to Yokohama Marine Tower. I saw the night view of Yokohama. It was very beautiful and wonderful. Third, I also went to Yokosuka. I saw a really big war ship. It was very cool and interesting. I ate Yokosuka navy curry and rice. It was very delicious. I visited Dobuita street. It was fun. I like American food very much. I ate a very big Yokosuka navy burger. It was very delicious and exciting. Fourth, I also went to Enoshima. I saw a really beautiful sea. It was wonderful. I visited Enoshima shrine. It was very beautiful. I tried omikuji. I saw a lot of lights. It was exciting. By the way, I visited my grand parents house. I play karuta with my family. It was fun.

Hallway displays



Lesson's worksheets based on planned FFI (Step 5)



Appendix 2C
Questionnaire (March)

1. 聞く力について

(ペアで話した内容や教科書リスニング)

1. ほぼわかる
2. 7割ぐらいわかる
3. 半分ぐらいわかる
4. 少しわかる
5. ほとんどわからない

2. 話す力について

(ペアやグループで話す)

1. 2分間30分以上話が続ける
2. 2分間以上話が続ける
3. 1分間以上話が続ける
4. 1分間未満である
5. 全く話せない

3. 読む力

(友達を書いた内容や教科書の本文)

1. ほぼわかる
2. 7割ぐらいわかる
3. 半分ぐらいわかる
4. 少しわかる
5. ほとんどわからない

4. 書く力

(まとまりがある作文やスピーチなど)

1. 60語以上
2. 40語以上
3. 20語以上
4. 20語未満
5. 全くわからない

5. 話す（一人でスピーチなど）、話す（対話）、読む、聞く、書く、それぞれの力が伸びたと思いますか（一つ選ぶ）

1. 話す力（スピーチ）
2. 話す力（対話）
3. 聞く力
4. 読む力
5. 書く力

6. それはなぜですか？

7. 2年生になったら、話す（一人でスピーチなど）、話す（対話）、読む、聞く、書く、それぞれどの力を伸ばしたいですか？（一つ選ぶ）

1. 話す力（スピーチ）
2. 話す力（対話）
3. 聞く力
4. 読む力
5. 書く力

8. 英語の授業はわかる

1. とてもそう思う
2. そう思う
3. そう思わない
4. 全く思わない

9. 英語の授業は楽しい

1. とてもそう思う
2. そう思う
3. そう思わない
4. 全く思わない

10. 英語は好き

1. とてもそう思う
2. そう思う
3. そう思わない
4. 全く思わない

11. 1年を振り返ってどうでしたか。印象に残ったことなど、具体的に書いてください。