Groping Feedback Types on Interactional Patterns via Storytelling among EFL Iranian Young learners

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Abstract

In this study, storytelling was surveyed with regard to the impact that it might have on student-teacher interactional patterns. For this aim, the researchers utilized an intact class with ten young students in a language institute in a north eastern part of the country. Four sessions of the class were transcribed after a full observational protocol. Two groups of Interactional patterns on student-led and teacher-led feedback types were codified via MAXQDA software after conducting thorough content analyses over student-teacher and student-student interactions. Findings revealed that among teacher-led interaction feedbacks involving clarification request, comprehension check, confirmation check, seeking students' feedback on the story, self-repetition and recast, comprehension check was the most frequent feedback type detected. Additional feedbacks that were found within the conversational pattern were students-led which consisted of peer correction, first language uses, response to teacher's question, students' enthusiasm for the story,

seeking the info. on the lesson practicum, students' sympathy with the story characters, socialization with the teacher, seeking the grammatical aspects, clarification seeking of the story plot, seeking the meaning of unfamiliar words, clarification requests, students' socialization with the teacher, initiation for storytelling, students' concerns, students' complaints, students' appraise of the story, students' predictions and socialization with the teachers' method. Among the student-led feedback types, students' appraise of the stories and seeking the meaning of unfamiliar words denoted that through focus on meaning, they might have most probably been much engaged in the meaning of the stories.

Keywords: Story telling; Feedback types; Young learners; Interactional Patterns.

Introduction

Stories have been thought as proper implements for young learners in their language learning (both first and second) and literacy practices through increasing motivation, stimulating imagination, and developing fluency in their language skills (Cremin, Flewitt, Mardell & Swann, 2016; Grugeon & Gardner, 2013; Staehr 2008, etc.). Belmonte and Verdugo (2007) stated that at an early stage of language acquisition, stories can be a valuable way for contextualizing and introducing new language, they can also make new language meaningful and memorable to the learners. In the same line, Niemann (2003) reported that with stories, children have an access to literature and culture.

Likewise, the importance of engaging children through stories has been recently shown by several other research studies illustrating the benefits of storytelling for children regarding development of personality and learning and communication skills in playful environments

(Benmayor, 2008; Liu et al., 2010; Malita & Martin, 2010; Mokhtar, Halim & Kamarulzaman, 2011; Yang & Wu, 2012).

In spite of all these potential benefits, there is insufficient research on how L2 (here, English) teachers develop conductive-to-learning patterns of interaction in their classroom among young students. In recent decades, communication through interaction in the classroom has received a critical attention because it underpins everything that goes on in classrooms (Matsumoto, 2011). It is central to teaching, to learning, to managing groups of people and the learning process, and to organizing the various tasks and activities that make up classroom practices. Traditional educational methods, such as translation, lectures and reading assignments engaged students to clarify ideas and depicted their understanding orally or in written form. These methods were teacher-centered, instructional and learning opportunities were lessened, so students were inactive in their learning processes (Dutra, 2013). Delaney (2012) elucidated that changing traditional strategies to active and interactive strategies like storytelling can promote deeper learning, decision making, problem solving, and critical thinking (p.576).

When one reflects on L2 classes either as teachers or learners, s/he quickly realizes that classroom communication is both highly complex and central to all classroom activity. In the rapid flow of classroom interaction, it is difficult to comprehend what is happening. Not only is the interaction very fast and involves many people, it has multiple foci and the language being used may be performing several functions at the same time such as seeking information, checking learning, offering advice, etc. In the surveyed literature, there seemed to be a gap as to finding relevant research studies in which the nature of this interaction for story telling aims had been focused upon.

One of the recent lines of enquiries in classroom interaction research has been teachers' interactional modification strategies for targeting specific cases when communication fails during instructional phases (Curenton, Craig, & Flanigan, 2008; Kang, 2008; Macaro, 2015; McNeil, 2012 etc.). In language learning settings, two general types of interaction are defined including interaction between 1) leaners and their teachers, and 2) learners themselves (Zhao & Bitchener, 2007).

In this study, the interactional turns between the teacher and students and students with their peer groups were analyzed to find out what types of feedback both learners and their teacher might provide in a story telling course. In Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research and L2 pedagogy, feedback is a general expression, which is mainly used for the information that a teacher provides in response to a learner's production. It can be spoken or written. Although, it is also most commonly related to the anomalous productions made by the learners (Ellis, 2009), in this study, any pieces of events that occurred during storytelling activities were considered as meaningful for the aims of this research and considered as a type of feedback or reaction on the part of both teachers and learners. In general, feedback can take either forms as 'implicit' and 'explicit'. During implicit feedback, individuals do not give overt information over an error, whereas in explicit feedback, such a hint is explicitly provided. There are different types of feedback such as 1) Clarification requests, 2) Confirmation checks, 3) Repetitions, 4) Recast, 5) Metalinguistic talk etc. that might be at work during any communicative interactions for a teacher (Macaro, 2010).

In this study, the researchers made an attempt in this regard to bring evidences from a case study on ten young learners' English language learning performance to see through how student-

led vs. teacher-led interactional patterns worked on some detected feedback types in their teaching context via story telling courses.

Storytelling, in its broadest sense, is the narrative used in an educational setting. Many scholars have worked on storytelling in sociolinguistics and discourse analysis studies (Ayometzi, 2007; Barber & Kudenko, 2008; Holmes & Marra, 2005; Norrick, 2000, 2005; Quasthoff & Becker, 2004; Terasaki & Lerner, 2004). In this study, through analyzing an educational context, storytelling was surveyed via exploring the classroom discourse. Accordingly, this study follows both trends above (Educational and Discourse Analysis) together to accomplish the intended purposes for this research. This was to insatiate how diverse feedback types through story telling might change the pattern of interaction (Student-led vs. Teacher-led) or vice versa. Initially, a brief review of the elated literature is given to instantiate the context.

Review of Literature

For thousands of years, societies have taught key principles pertained to education and ethics through storytelling (Beyea, Killen & Knox, 2006; Boltman, 2001; Fontijn, & Mendels, 2005; Mead, 2010). In some cultures, without a written language, storytelling was the only way to convey the culture of a society, its values, and history. Great teachers have mostly used instructional tools and supplementary materials like parables, legends, myths, fables, short stories and real life examples to convey main content and instruction for the sake of incorporating active learning goals. (Benmayor, 2008; Jordens, 2003; Niemann, 2003; White & Makki, 2016; Vygotsky, as cited in Gredler, 2009; Yang & Wu, 2012).

Regarding active learning through interaction, Vygotsky (1896–1934), as one pioneer within interactional studies, emphasized the role of social interaction in learning. He believed that

individuals' cognitive development and learning are affected by social interaction. Based on this belief, collaborative work was considered critically important in learning as it affected understanding and constructing new ideas. According to Vygotsky, learning is influenced by social interaction and occurs when individuals are engaged in solving problems with others. In this milieu, storytelling, as a form of collaborative problem solving, has been claimed to make up such a situation conductive to language learning (Alterio & McDrury, 2003). In fact, utilizing storytelling among young learners in EFL contexts can be a significant line of research to illustrate the nature of the positive reports to assist teachers to organize their speaking training procedures through ways by which learners can communicate in a stress-free situation.

How can storytelling be of help for language learning?

Researchers view storytelling as a function of its evaluative dimension that allows its teller to set scenes, actors, acts, roles, instruments, and goals into unique constellations that make sense of these elements. In effect, as a single activity, a story shows how a learner interprets a set of events (Hur & Suh, 2012).

Scholars in artificial intelligence look at storytelling as a window upon the cognitive processes by which individuals "chunk" or "package" information (Wheeler, Yeomans & Wheeler, 2008). Regarding this issue, Mossberg (2008) collaborated some experiences in which through storytelling, learners had collaboratively formed a particular interpretation of a set of events. The results showed that the level of collaboration necessarily differed with the type of storytelling. In a teller-dominated narrative, the story receivers participated with an evaluative interpretation of narrative events for their own evaluative uptake. By contrast, in more collaborative storytelling such as retellings, learners were more actively involved in it.

Karimi and Lim (2010) measured children's engagement in and enjoyment of digital narratives. The researchers developed a three-dimensional digital narrative environment that combined education, entertainment and social commitment and measured engagement based on time and the children's facial expressions.

Hyden (2011) identified that stories focus on fictional characters which had engaged students' attention, related to their personal experience. It had also allowed them to maintain a safe distance from any problems which might have been happening in their real lives. This enabled students to show up more securely on items which were significant to them because they remained at one and removed on other, so it had helped them to create appropriate, affective conditions for learning. According to Hyden, this was because stories are shared classroom events which take place in real time. They provided a tool for the teacher and students to be 'inter subjectively engaged', that is, in a state where 'participants were jointly focused on the activity and its goals, and they drew each other's attention in a common direction (p. 339).

Giddens (2006) reported students' comments as a group learning activity. The students indicated that they could clarify what they read or listened through group discussion and that joint discussion led to a deeper understanding of the content.

Sénéchal, Hill and Malette (2018) advocated oral narratives for enhancing students' written narrative composition. For instance, revising and planning had been associated with more cohesive and more linguistically productive texts produced by children in grade 4.

Taken together, apart from the facilitative impacts as reported above for storytelling activities and language learning, the crux of the matter could be to investigate the nature of interaction that is aligned with stories and in what channels storytelling could help language learners. Below, those

studies in which any aspect of interaction had been focused on through storytelling was checked in the existing, related literature.

The language teacher as a storyteller

It is true that to tell stories in a foreign language is different but in whatever situation a story is told, it should be done in a natural way. Telling stories from personal experience or imaginary stories is the basis of communication between people in that it is an everyday activity and is nothing out of the ordinary sense. This helps the process of storytelling to become accepted much more quickly than other activities, which manipulate language and have no real meaning. If storytelling is carefully set up by the teacher and carried out with conviction, it can become one of the best forms of language input (Krashen, 1985). Any teacher with an acceptable command of the language can tell stories in English; s/he may also use recorded cassettes and books for some of the stories told in class. That way, interested learners can hear or read stories whenever they want. The class should also try to maintain the relaxed atmosphere mentioned before when it is their turn to tell the story. As far as linguistic progress is concerned, getting the class to tell stories should be seen as a fluency-based rather than an accuracy-based activity and errors should be seen as an inevitable part of the learning process.

Recent issues on how interaction in an instructional setting by the teachers' intervention as such has been to elucidate how interactional feedback can help the enhancement of L2 development (Ellis, 1994; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami & Takashima, 2008; McDonough, 2005). The issue has long been to explicate if the effect of interaction through giving proper feedback is immediate or delayed. In Lyster and Ranta's study (1997) on the association between teacher feedback and learner uptake, for example, it became evident that 'recast' had been

the most frequent feedback type but the least useful since it was aligned with the least uptake among some French learners. In another study by Ammar and Spada (2006), the findings showed that with the interaction of proficiency, the efficacy of the utilized feedbacks (Prompts and Recast) could not be intertwined by the intervention of the teacher whether in immediate or delayed tests.

Peer groups as story tellers

Some scholars believed that stories enhance children's interaction and communication not only with their teacher but also with their peers (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008; Nolen, 2003; Philp, 2010). For instance, Mehisto et al believed that the use of stories in the classroom can encourage children to interact with each other and communicate their feelings, ideas and knowledge. According to Nolen (2003), reading or listening to a story related to a specific content can make students react to it verbally or non-verbally. This enables them to construct knowledge and express ideas, even with the very limited language. In fact, stories prove to be fantastic resources in context to provoke children's reactions to meaning, content and form. Stories provide learners with a reason to participate in the classroom, to repeat certain formulaic phrases, chunks or words, to role play part of a dialogue, or to express how they feel. In some recent research studies, this two-sided communication had been explored through robots by implementing expressive voices like humans to incorporate more emotion in the process for better achievements (Gordon, Spaulding, Kory Westlund, Lee, Plummer, Martinez, et al., 2016; Westlund, Jeong, Park, Ronfard, Adhikari, & Breazeal, 2017).

Ma, Anderson, Lin, Zhang, Morris, Nguyen-Jahiel, et al (2017) investigated the effect of instructional influences on English language learners' storytelling and designated that in collaborative groups, students were more cohesive and elaborate.

Synchronized, manifold instructional factors on interaction via storytelling

Within the existing literature, apart from the passage of instruction by storytelling to be student-led or teacher-led, some other aspects of instruction were prominent on the part of scholars focused on interactional models for language learning.

Some scholars in the prevailing literature had focused on attention to a variety of factors simultaneously. As an example, Heathfield (2011) advocated that regarding storytelling, some strategies could help comprehensibility of the language input such as using actions, mimes and gesture; repeating key phrases; having empathy for the characters in the story and displaying their expressions; modulating one's tone of voice; making good use of props, and interacting with the audience.

Lampropoulou (2011) accentuated that since speech representation is entailed with subjective contribution to the general public, it is inevitably a dynamic process. In her research, Lampropoulou introduced elements of such subjectivity as narrators' voice, their status, their gender, their represented addressees, status of represented addressee, gender of represented addressee: and finally represented interactions.

In another recent study, Chongruksa, Prinyapol, Wadeng & Padungpong (2010) linked the success in their research on storytelling among two ethnic groups in Thailand to a multitude of four factors including 1) appropriateness of the selected stories, 2) engaging students through introducing text-to-text, text-to-self and text-to-world connections, 3) inducing cooperative learning and tailoring the content of the stories to the desired learning as to cultural enrichment.

The present study is an attempt in this regard to illuminate the issue in more details to see how through interaction in a course with a group of children learning English as a foreign language, the

researchers found ground for the nature of interactional feedbacks in a storytelling course in which there was no focus on any grammatical structure except meaningful interaction between the teacher and learners. Accordingly, the researchers posed two research questions in line with the above-cited aims:

1. What feedback types are found in a story telling course among Iranian English language learners?
2. Are detected interactional patterns (Teacher-led vs. student-led) significantly linked with the emerged feedback types through story telling?

Method

Research Participants and context

This study occurred in an English institute in Khorasan Razavi. A class of teenagers that were ten students between nine to thirteen years old were selected as convenient cases in this study. A young learner is typically a learner aged between five and twelve years old (Philips, 1993). Young learners differ from older learners in many ways. Studies of young learners show learning changes across their language development.

In the context of the present research in a language institute, learners are characterized with three groups; kids, teenagers and adults. There is a placement test for new learners to sit in the right level. Classes are held three days a week. All classes last about ninety minutes with a break about three minutes in between. Approximately, between ten to twelve students are registered in each class. There is a TV and white board in all classes. Students sit in a circular form so that they can see each other and have more interactions.

Teachers use special books for every level as introduced by the manager of the institute. In the classes among young learners- the kids' Group- the researchers decided to have a different class with different materials for story telling aims.

For this research, one of the class scenes, which had occurred in the last summer, 2016 was selected. A class of teenagers that were ten students between nine to thirteen years old and selected as convenient cases in this survey was surveyed. The last level that all of them had passed was 'First friend 3'. Learners in this institute started to learn literacy from 'First Friend 1' book so in 'First Friend 3'. They had learned all the English alphabets and could read and write simple words and sentences also at this level. Learners' basic speaking skills was fully developed. Every lesson consisted of some new vocabulary items, a structure, a very short story with new words, values that taught good behavior and ethical themes like telling the truth, being good-mannered, etc.

Table 1 illustrates the participants in terms of their demographic information. For ethical reasons, names are all pseudonyms to hide the students' identity.

Table 1

Descriptive summary of the participants

Name	**Age**	**Gender**	**Background knowledge in English**[1]
Elina	11	F	She started English when she was 4.
Yashar	13	M	He started English from 6 terms ago.
Yasna	10	F	She has attended language schools for 8 terms.

[1] For privacy reasons, the name of language schools has been omitted.

Nazanin	12	F	Her mom is an English teacher. For 4 terms, she has studied English in a language institute.
Zahra	13	F	She is a very clever and hardworking student. For 5 terms she was in a language institute.
Hamid	12	M	He has been in a language institute for 4 terms.
Amin	10	M	He has been in a language institute for 4 terms
Sara	10	F	He has been in a language institute for 6 terms
Mina	11	F	She was one term here but for 5 terms, she was in another institute.
Samyar	10	M	He has been in a language institute institute for 4 terms

Note: F (Female), M (Male)

One semester before starting this course, all participants were in one class. But some of them were for three or four terms together. Their speaking level was at the same level approximately based on the in-house speaking tests taken by the supervisors of the institute. None of them had either any records for attending concurrent classes in other institutes or residence in English speaking countries.

Class procedures

Every session, the teacher-researcher (the first author) selected one story and narrated in the class. She made use of different styles for teaching. She had enriched the class context by selecting pictorial storybooks, drawing the character of story on the board, role playing, etc. For role playing, she used masks as characters of the story and through which she narrated the stories. The content

of stories were subjects like friendship, helping each other, kindness, telling the truth, honesty or some fun stories about animals, heroes, exotics, etc. Degree of linguistic difficulty of stories was controlled and secured. Stories were all selected based on the learners' proficiency level. Some stories which were acted out were ‘Gingerbread man’, 'little red riding hood’, 'Jack and magic beans’, ' three little pigs' and ' big great turnip' among many others. Meanwhile the teacher-researcher was narrating the stories, various language foci were in her mind to incorporate in the planned stories but no focused curriculum was followed. In so doing, students learned grammar and vocabulary indirectly.

Data Analysis

The teacher-researcher had the logged students' activities via recorded files after each session. She transcribed the scenes accordingly through ‘voice to text’ engines freely provided in **https://www.speechtexter.com** website. This website is an online speech recognition platform that has many facilities in this regard for both Persian and English voice commands. In all, four sessions were transcribed from the beginning, middle and end of the semester. It was thirty hours in sum that the researchers in this study recorded and transcribed eighteen hours in the whole semester. Seven types of feedback emerged during codification of the data from the class episodes through content analysis. Table 2 below displays the feedback type sheets along with example cases, which were in line with the previous studies such as Long (1983).

Table 2

Feedback types as a priori codes

No.	Codes	Instantiation of codes
1	Confirmation check	**Teacher attempts to confirm that s/he has understood an utterance via the (partial) paraphrase, which can simply be answered with Yes or No by students. Example: Teacher: did you mean this? Student: yes/no**
2	Comprehension check	**Teacher attempts to prompt other students to acknowledge that they have understood a particular utterance. Example: Teacher: Do you Understand? Students:…**
3	Clarification request	**An explicit demand by a teacher or a student for an elaboration or a reformulation of an idea, which "requires a rerun of the troublesome utterance" in question. Example: Teacher: What do you mean by X? Student:…. (explains what s/he means by anything. s/he has uttered)**
4	Self-repetition	**Teachers or students repeat in isolation, a part of or an entire correction after erroneous or otherwise problematic utterances by students are corrected.**

		Example: **Student: Where is the fan located? (*2)**
5	Recast	**Teacher reformulates a form-focused target-like utterance in all or part of an incorrect utterance.** **Example:** **Student: I live Iran.** **Teacher: Do you really live in Iran?**
6	Explicit metalinguistic correction	**Teacher explains the grammatical rules, lexical info. etc. overtly for the students.** **Example:** **Student: I have bought two breads.** **Teacher: In English, bread is uncountable. You should say two loaves of bread.**
7	First language uses	**Teacher resorts to the language that students can easily understand: their mother tongues** **Example:** **Student: what does "mug" mean?** **Teacher: Fenjan-e-dastedar and bolandi ke mamoolan estefadeh mikonid baraye ghahve nooshidan.**

Table 3 below also instantiates other codes as emergent feedback type codes, which the researchers realized in the datasets as a posteriori coding manual including 1) Prediction, 2) Teacher prompts, 3) Response to teacher's display questions, 4) Sympathy with the story characters, 5) Socialization with the teacher, 6) First language uses among some other less frequent

ones. The less frequent codes found in the processes of data collection and analyses included students' concerns, students' complaints, students' initiation for the story among others.

Table 3

Feedback types coded as posteriori in coding manual sheet

No	Codes	Information of codes
1	Prediction	Students predict the next part of story **Example**: Teacher: …the cookie met a fox. Student: oh, fox will eat the cookie.
2	Teacher prompts	Teacher stimulate students' attention to keep them involve in the story. **Example:** Students: wow, what are they? Teacher: they are masks…
3	Response to teachers' display questions	Teacher asks questions that know students will accept it eagerly. **Example**: Teacher: do you like to watch its animation?

		Students: yes hurray teacher
4	First language uses	Students in many situations use their first language.
5	Sympathy with the story characters	Students imagine their selves in the story so they show their feeling about characters. **Example:** Teacher: wolf come down from the chimney Student: oh, no. bad wolf
6	Socialization with the teacher	Students interact with teacher to tell their experience about that subject. **Example:** Teacher: name of story is red riding hood Student:wow,nice story. I saw its cartoon before.

Based on the teaching methods and activities, an attempt was made to perform an analysis over the observed episodes of the observed classes to see how the input given to the learners had provoked them to give different kinds of feedback. Two groups of Interactional patterns on student-led and teacher-led feedback types were codified via MAXQDA software after conducting thorough content analyses over student-teacher and student-student interactions.

Results and Discussion

In response to the first research question as to the type of emerged feedback types, findings revealed that among different interaction feedbacks pertained to teachers, comprehension check (42.5%) and recast (17.5%) were the most frequent feedback types detected. Table 4 below displays the overall assigned codes in the observed class transcriptions issued mainly by the teacher mapped on their percentage counts and rates.

Table 4

Overall assigned codes for teacher's feedback types in this study

Teacher's feedback	Frequency count	Frequency rate
1.Teacher prompts	6	15 %
2.Comprehension check	17	42.5 %
3.Clarification request	2	5 %
4.Confirmation check	4	10 %
5.Seeking students' feedback on the story	3	7.5 %
6.Self-repetition	1	2.5 %
7.Recast	7	17.5 %

Table 5 below displays the feedback types belonging to the students mapped on their percentage counts and rates in each case.

Table 5

Overall assigned codes for students' feedback types in this study

Students' feedback	Frequency count	Frequency rate
8.Peer correction	2	2.08 %
9.First language uses	24	25 %
10.Response to teacher's question	2	2.08 %
11.Students' enthusiasm for story	3	3.12 %
12.Seeking the info. On the lesson practicum	2	2.08 %
13.Students' sympathy with the characters	1	1.04 %
14.Socialization with the teacher	8	8.33 %
15.seeking the grammatical aspects	2	2.08 %
16.clarification seeking of the story plot	4	4.16 %
17.Seeking the meaning of unfamiliar words	9	9.37 %
18.Clarification requests	1	1.04 %
19.Students' socialization with the teacher	27	28.12 %
20.Initiation for story telling	1	1.04 %
21.Socialization with the teachers' method	4	4.16 %

22.Students' concerns	2	3.3 %
23.Students' complaints	2	3.3 %
24.Students' appraise of the story	12	20 %
25.Students' predictions	5	8.3 %

As evident in table 5, among the student-led feedback types, students' appraise of the stories (28.12%) and first language uses (25%) for different purposes such as seeking the meaning of unfamiliar words, and students' appraise of the story (20%) denoted the most frequently cited feedback types.

Comprehension Check

Among the most frequently cited codes for the feedback types as mainly emitted by the teacher was 'comprehension check'. The most important part in telling a story was for the students to be able to comprehend the story. The teacher of the course always asked some questions to check the students' understanding during various stages of the lesson. Story parts were connected to each other and if students didn't understand one part, sentence or even a word, they might miss the other parts of story, especially with shy students that might not have asked their problems. Sometimes this could be guessed even from the students' face that they didn't catch the meaning and the researcher had to rehearse it in another way. For example, in one story termed as "big turnip", the teacher-researcher told them that "the old man planted the seed and gave water to it so it grew and grew", but they just stared at the teacher.

Teacher-researcher's field notes: "It wasn't an unexpected outcome for me because 'plant' and 'grow' were new words and they didn't know the meanings. So, I drew some seeds on the board

and told them: 'chickens like to eat them' then pretended that I was digging the floor and took a seed from the ground and put it in the imagined hole then I pretended I was watering it and waiting to grow. On the board, I drew a small seedling that was becoming bigger and bigger for the meaning of "grow".

Then the teacher discussed this with students through giving some examples with "grow" and "growing" by asking some questions about trees and flowers and told them that humans grow them to have trees and flowers. Then, the teacher got sure that they had comprehended elaborations and example sentences by the teacher, then the teacher and students continued with the rest of the story.

Recast

The second more frequent feedback type in the teacher's category was 'recast'. It referred to those instances, in which the teacher rephrased an incorrect utterance with a corrected form, while maintaining the integrity of the original meaning. The teacher didn't directly correct their mistakes or blame them for using this form; instead, she encouraged them and retold their sentences in the right form. For example, some of the students always used 'in the bus/ in the farm' so the teacher used it in the right form and exaggerated the right forms by saying them louder with the corrective feedback "on the bus". The teacher repeated it in a rhythmic form in another sentence as well "the driver is on the bus, on the bus, on the bus," or "the cow is on the farm, on the farm, on the farm".

Teacher prompts

The third highly frequent feedback type in this category was teacher prompts. The teacher always stimulated her students to be involved in the meaning-making processes in the learning practices so that she could use some stimulators either as verbal or non-verbal based on the theme of the

story to activate them. In some cases, some group work or homework activities worked as teaching prompts.

Feedback types as student-led

The feedback types that had been initiated from learners were more diverse. The major sub-codes of the most frequently cited assigned codes for the students regarding socialization with the teacher' and 'first language uses by the students' were inspiring.

Socialization with the teacher

In the socialization sub-codes, when the teacher informed students that it was 'story time' or time for a game and role-plays, or even when the 'hero' in the story won, they shouted and clapped happily using some compliments. This showed their positive feeling and meant that they had already been actively involved in the story or were going to enjoy it most.

Knowing the meaning of unfamiliar words

The second more frequent code in the socialization code was the students' attempt to know the meaning of some unfamiliar words. The most important part in listening to a story is understanding it. As the teacher narrated any story in class, there were many new words and expressions that students had heard them for the first time. Students could also guess them from the context or find their meaning in the next scenes but some students were not creative or they hurriedly wanted to know its meaning. They sought the meaning of those words through the medium of Persian i.e., they asked the meaning in Persian to know what those new words meant. In such cases, the teacher sometimes waited deliberately so that other students instantly told the meaning or guessed it from context.

Response to the second research question

In the second stage and in line with the second research question to see how different feedback types had been probably enhanced by interactional patterns, through Maxqda instructions, coincidence commands were applied on the whole data to detect the arrangement and outline of the transcribed databank. The feedback types that were explained above in the observation sheets were in some cases coincident with one another in terms of their occurrence. Through intersections (or co-occurrences) commands of the selected codes with other codes, coincident feedbacks were precisely noted. For brevity reasons, only top most frequently cited feedback types were included in the analyses.

To begin with, as to the frequency of socialization with the teacher, it was noted that 'students' initiation for the storytelling' typically happened right after socialization with the teacher. In other words, students started to speak with the teacher, told their opinions and expressed their feeling. In effect, they competed for taking roles of the main characters or being a storyteller in role-plays as in the following incidence:

Teacher: ok, now here are the masks. Take a role to play with it

Learner1: Hooray, I want to be 'Eva'.

Learner2: no, give it to me. I'm Eva. teacher I want to be Eva.

Teacher: (smiling) Do not fight, please. We practice it many times. Both of you can be Eva but be patient.

Here, students' initiation for response either for taking a role or to socialize with the teacher had been co-occurring, which brought more discussion in class among the students to take their turns.

In the second co-occurrence model for students' appraise of the story, solid lines in the model were conspicuous (Fig.1).

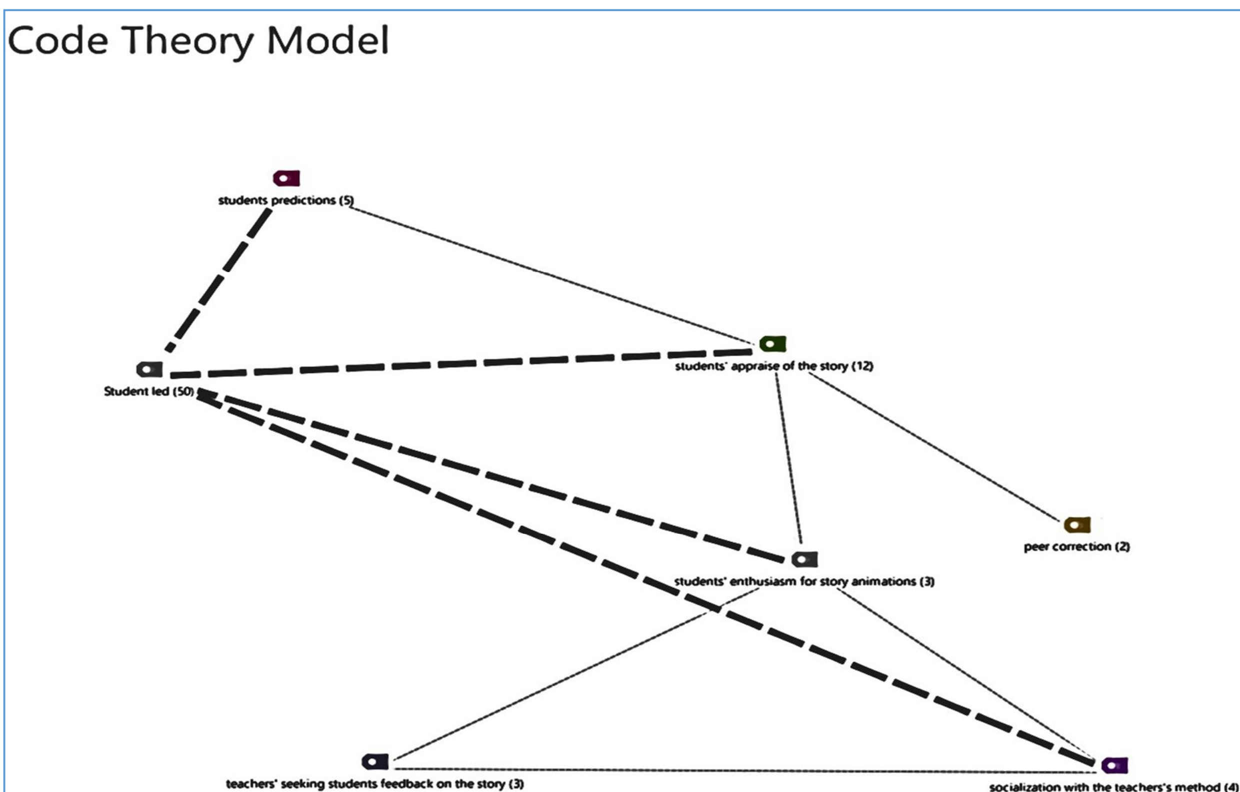

Figure 1 Co-occurrence model for students' appraise of the story

As seen in Figure 1, in this model, most interactions had been initiated from the students as the solid lines show for "student-led" codes. This was also the case with co-occurrence model for students' seeking the meaning of unfamiliar words (Fig. 2).

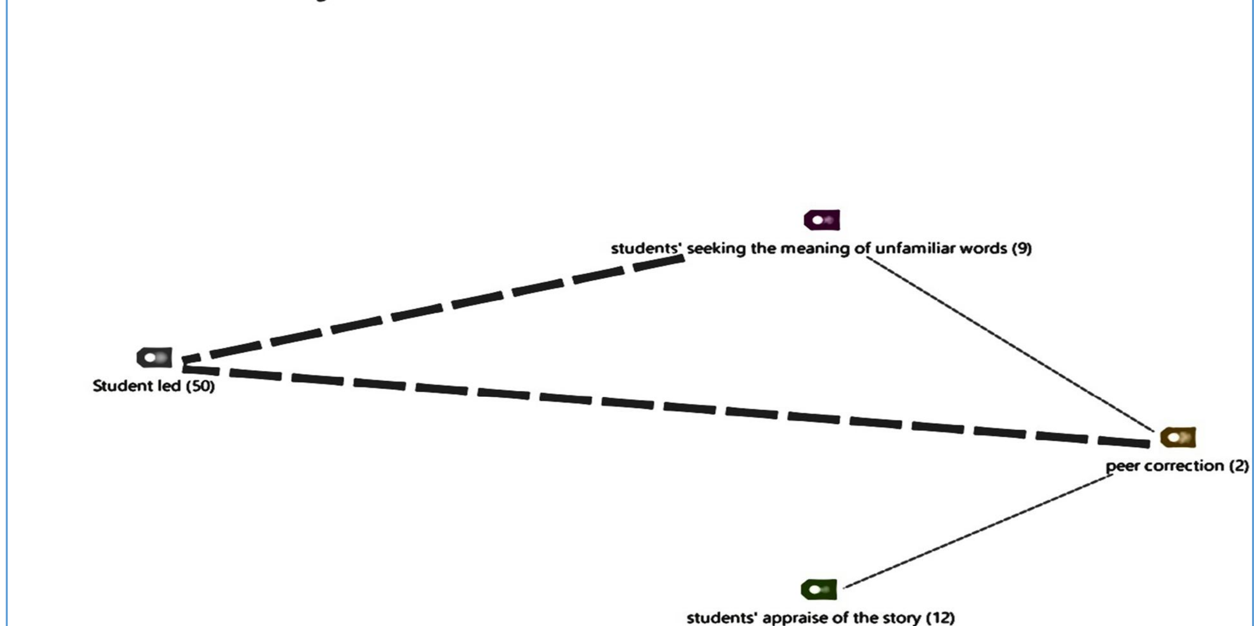

Figure 2 *Co-occurrence model for students' seeking the meaning of unfamiliar words*

In the following incidence in Magic beans lesson, for example, when the teacher was narrating the next episodes of the story regarding jack's reaching the sky, one of the learners asked about the meaning of the word 'castle'. Before she embarked on a reaction, other learners who knew the meaning initiated talk and provided responses:

Teacher:	jack climbed up the beanstalk and reached to a castle.
Learner1:	castle? What is it?
Learner2:	it's a big house.
Learner3:	it's for king.
Teacher:	that's right. Very good

Regarding students' appraise of the story, interesting for the present researchers to know for what other reasons students had participated more in the class discussion. In another instance, (Figure 3 below) more interaction had happened simultaneously with other codes such as students' prediction, peer correction, students' enthusiasm for the story characters, which in turn they were indirectly connected with the 'teachers' seeking students' feedback on the story' codes and 'socialization with the teachers' method' code for all four stories. Their role was even more noticeable than the teacher's role in those incidences. Based on the narrated stories, students showed their feelings as positive feedbacks (students' feedback on the story) so they started a conversation with the teacher about some parts of the story and told me their opinions (socialization with teacher) and at the same time they sympathized with the characters (students' enthusiasm for story). Sometimes, students showed their eagerness for the story when the teacher asked them about the story (students' enthusiasm) and they eagerly either guessed the name of the story or told me their expectations (students' prediction). The following incidence from the Ginger bread man is a case in point in this regard:

Teacher: …gingerbread man reached to the river. There was a fox by the river.

Learner1: oh, no

Learner2: gingerbread man can't swim

Learner3: fox will eat gingerbread man

Learner4: poor gingerbread man. Teacher, fox is a bad animal.

Teacher: fox is just an animal. Gingerbread man shouldn't run to the jungle.

Here, students showed their feelings and opinions about the characters and sympathized with the main character of story (sympathy with the charters of the story). They also predicted what would happen next. At the same time, they socialized with their teacher to say their opinions. Accordingly, a multitude of processes including prediction, feedback giving, socialization and enthusiasm had happened simultaneously in this case.

In another case, regarding the comprehension check code initiated from the teacher category, it was noted that some co-concurrent codes such as recast and students' seeking information on the lesson practicum were noticeable, as shown below in Figure 3.

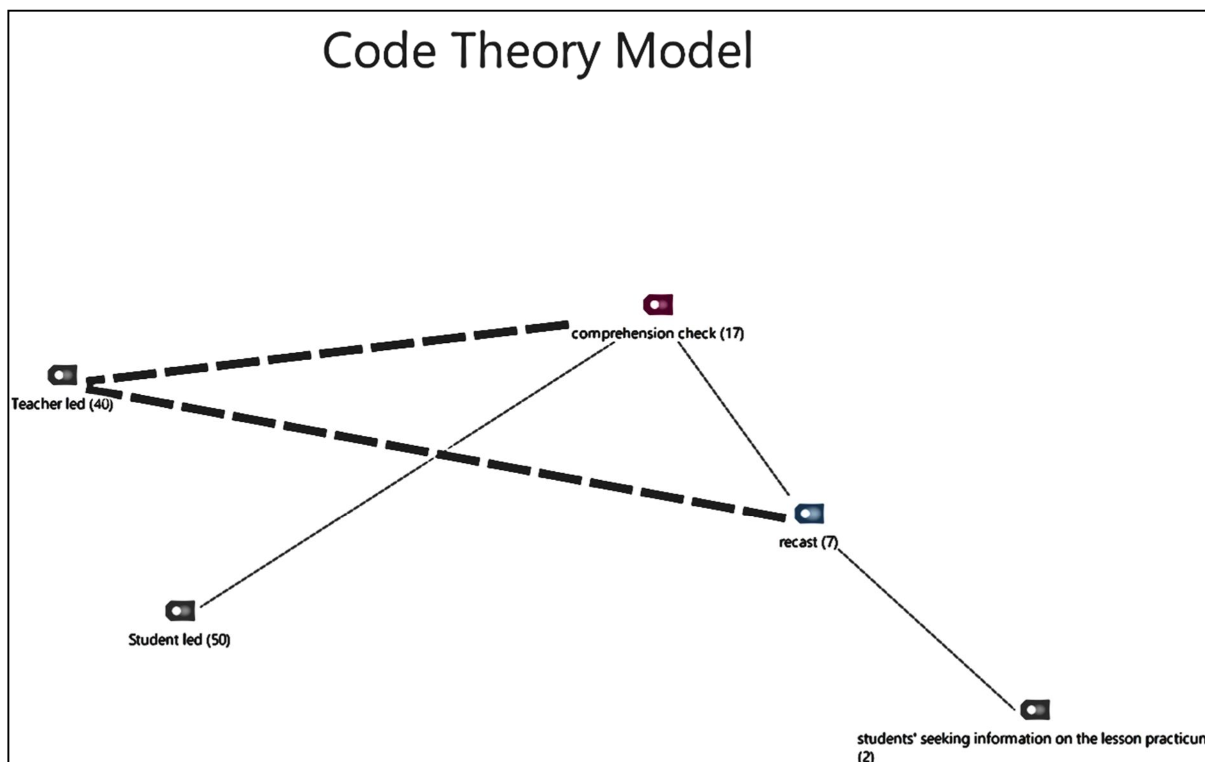

Figure 3 *Co-occurrence model for comprehension check*

As seen in Figure 3, comprehension check code had taken place immediately with 'recast', and 'indirectly with 'students' information on the lesson practicum'. In many cases, as apparent in observation sheets, when the teacher wanted to check students' understanding, in case they provided an erroneous utterance, the teacher tried to provide corrective feedback as 'recast' to modify their output. This, in itself, provided more discussion in class that was note-worthy.

For triangulation aims and in line with responding to the second research question concerning the interaction between feedback types and interaction patterns, the researchers also ran a cross tabulation to inspect this issue in more details. Table 6 depicts the results for the crosstab command in this regard.

Table 6

Cross tabulation of interactional patterns over feedback types

	Intercation pattern = S...	Intercation pattern = T...	Total
Feedback types			
teachers prompt	2.5%	7.1%	3.7%
Teacher feedback types			
comprehension check	5.0%	7.1%	5.6%
clarification request	5.0%		3.7%
confirmation check	5.0%	7.1%	5.6%
teachers' seeking students feedback on the stoı	2.5%	7.1%	3.7%
self repetition		7.1%	1.9%
recast	7.5%	7.1%	7.4%
student feedback types			
peer correction	2.5%	7.1%	3.7%
first langauge uses by students			
students' response to teacher's questions on th	2.5%	7.1%	3.7%
students' seeking information on the lesson prac	5.0%		3.7%
students' efforts to formulate words in English	5.0%		3.7%
socialization with the teacher	5.0%	7.1%	5.6%
students' enthusiasm for story animations	5.0%	7.1%	5.6%
students seeking grammatical aspects	5.0%		3.7%
students' clarification seeking of the story plot	5.0%		3.7%
students' seeking the meaning of unfamiliar wor	7.5%	7.1%	7.4%
clarification request	2.5%		1.9%
students' socialization with the teacher			
students' initation for story tellling	2.5%		1.9%
socialization with the teachers's method	5.0%	7.1%	5.6%
student's own concerns	2.5%		1.9%
students complaints	5.0%		3.7%
students' appraise of the story	7.5%		5.6%
students predictions	5.0%	7.1%	5.6%
students' sympathy with the chacaters in the st		7.1%	1.9%
Σ SUM	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
# N (Documents)	3	1	4

As seen in table 6, nearly all feedback types were recurrent for both the teacher and students; However, in some cases, some feedback types were only existent in one of the two groups such as 'self-repetition', and students' sympathy with the characters of the story', which were only recurrent in the teacher-led dichotomy. In case there were any feedback types recurrent in the two

groups, as the table 6 showed, in some cases like comprehension check, teacher-led utterances (7.1 %) were apparently more than the student-led ones (5%), or the same for the socialization with the teacher with teacher-led (7.1%) and for the students (5%). In most of the cases, two or more interactions occurred simultaneously or in an immediate follow-up. This meant that when the teacher voiced a sentence, asked a question or made a request on an activity from the students, some conversations and interactions occurred with a higher rate that involved some anticipated feedbacks. For example, teacher prompts always came with socialization with the teacher and more predictions on the part of the students. Or, students' clarification followed peer correction and recast.

Conclusion

For answering the suggested research questions, based on the class transcriptions, the researchers initially specified two kinds of feedbacks. Feedbacks that the teacher had the main role in leading and the feedbacks in which that the students had been mainly active. The feedbacks involved interactions that happened between the teacher in a storytelling course and a group of young students. Then, for every interaction, the researchers defined a special code. The researchers had mainly made an attempt to stick to the existing literature on feedback and input modification studies, but as they were going along the codification routes, it became evident that many new feedbacks that they could not simply assign them to the apriori codes could be deliberated.

Regarding the first research question, teacher-led interaction feedbacks consisted of clarification request, comprehension check, confirmation check, seeking students’ feedback on the story, self-repetition and recast. Additional feedbacks that were found in the conversational pattern were students-led. They consisted of peer correction, first language uses, response to teacher's

question, students' enthusiasm for the story, seeking the info. on the lesson practicum, students' sympathy with the story characters, socialization with the teacher, seeking the grammatical aspects, clarification seeking of the story plot, seeking the meaning of unfamiliar words, clarification requests, students' socialization with the teacher, initiation for storytelling, students' concerns, students' complaints, students' appraise of the story, students' predictions and socialization with the teachers' method. The fact that student-led feedback types outnumbered the number of feedbacks in the storytelling courses of action, reminded the researchers of recent post-constructivists' views for which scholars are seeking for typical teaching activities in which students learn by doing. Constructivism in ELT arenas implies a typical pedagogy in which what students do counts more than what teachers do. Storytelling as such could have helped students experience such a conductive-to -learning situation among the young learners as this study indicated and act as a platform even as a tool for those researchers who seek for such grounds among young learners (Bonk & King, 2012; Carpenter & Linton, 2016; Von Glasersfeld, 2012).

To cut a long story short, this study described the development of a storytelling course which was designed to help improve students' general knowledge, language skills, cooperation, self-confidence, creativity, interactions with teacher and interactions with other students. Interaction nature was fully checked and the researchers came with some new formulations that might contribute to the bulk of input-interaction studies in SLA. Hope that further research studies in near future reveal other aspects of storytelling tactics using the high tech devices that could possibly facilitate the processes of data collection and analysis as well establishing such contexts for learning. Themes that emerged in the processes of communication blocks in this study could still have other implications on discourse analysis accounts, nonetheless, the findings here were discussed in the light of recent qualitative lines of inquiry with a researcher-centered, subjective

sense. It is hoped that such patterns help other researchers to find new routes over better participatory techniques that remaximize students' involvement in English classes, find grounds to work out the findings as such for other research direction for assessment issues on formative assessment for the young learners as one of the under-researched lines of inquiry via similar, social-interactive tactics as in storytelling cases in this research. Maybe, further research could clarify more issues in this regard.

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