Exploring student-initiated participation in EAP classrooms in university settings:

Observations from two socio-cultural contexts

Şermin Arslan Uri

Doctor of Philosophy

University of York

Education

March 2022

Abstract

Research suggests that student-initiated participation increases opportunities for learning and promotes learner agency (Waring, 2011; Sert, 2017). In academically challenging EAP classrooms, in particular, student-initiated participation through the practice of self-selection is paramount for academic communication and learning skills. However, this might be difficult for students in such demanding contexts due to the cognitive overload imposed by L2 use and unfamiliarity with normative academic routines. This study aims to shed light on student-initiated participation patterns through the practice of self-selection in EAP classrooms at the tertiary level in two different social contexts: Turkey and the UK. Using a multi-method approach and anlysing 31-hour classroom interaction collected from diffrerent universities and semi-structured interviews, the study sets out to provide an empirical analysis of student-initiated participation and explore students' thoughts on self-initiated participation patterns.

Using conversation analysis to explore how students accomplished self-selection to locally participate in interactions, the study has conceptualised student-initiated participation by their sequential position on a continuum from being responsive (solicited) to initiative (unsolicited). The findings suggest that depending on the sequential positions, different forms of student-initiated participation became consequential at varying levels on interaction and learning opportunities. Additionally, student participation was grounded on the emergence of their agency and willingness to initiate communication. The study provided evidence that students' sense of agency accorded with their participation patterns in that they revealed a higher level of agency for their unsolicited participation patterns, a moderate level of sense of agency for their solicited participation patterns and a lack of agency for their non-participation. Considering agency as situated in the micro context, the study suggests a reciprocal relationship between their sense of agency and participation patterns. Finally, the study has proposed a term to stress the initiation act in students' self-selections: willingness to initiate communication (WTI), which was shown to be influenced by an interplay of psychological, contextual, and linguistic factors. Contributing to our understanding of student-initiated participation, the study suggests implications for teachers and teacher training to increase opportunities for student participation in EAP classrooms that serve as gatekeepers for L2 students in higher education institutions.

Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

Acknowledgement

Dedication

To my father, Ali Arslan, the centre of my whole world. I am doing my best to move on with you, dad, because I have realised I cannot simply move on from you.

With love.

Declaration

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

1 Introduction

This introductory chapter sets the scene for the study that aims to understand how students accomplish turn-taking to locally participate in interactions in English for academic purposes (EAP) classrooms interactions and why they self-select themselves as the next speaker when they do. First, it introduces the background describing the research on L2 classroom research in relation to student participation with a focus on turn-taking organisation. The objectives and relevance of the study are then presented. This is followed by the research questions and the methods used, which are expanded on in the following chapters. A brief introduction to the terminology is also presented to give an understanding of the concepts which are discussed throughout the study. The chapter concludes with an outline of the thesis structure.

1.1 Background of the study

It has been well established that student participation in classroom interaction is beneficial for their language development (Gass, 2003; Lantolf, 2000; Long, 2020; Swain, 1985, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 2013) and learning to take place (Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, a significant body of research has drawn attention to verbal student participation in L2 classroom within many theoretical positions such as interactionist tradition (e.g., Gass, Mackey & Pica, 1998; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Gass, Mackey & Ross-Feldman, 2005; Mackey, 1999; Varonis & Gass, 1985a; Varonis & Gass, 1985b) and socio-cultural theory (e.g., Antón, 1999; Donato, 1994, 2000; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004; Takeuchi, 2015; van Compernolle, 2010; van Compernolle & Williams, 2013; Young & Miller, 2004).

The studies have focused on two dominant assumptions. One is that student talk in L2 is linked to L2 development. The second assumption is that the teachers' management of classroom discourse can inhibit or promote student participation. The second line of research has described the organisation of classroom interaction concerning the asymmetries in the distribution of speaking rights, which differentiates it from mundane conversations (Markee & Kasper, 2004; Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage & Clayman, 2010). They have indicated that students' access to the turn-taking system is constrained by the institutionalised nature of classroom interaction (Gardner, 2012). Therefore, the studies (e.g., Lee, 2007; Park, 2014; Waring, 2008, 2009) have extensively focused on the canonical Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) pattern identified in earlier studies

(e.g., Mehan, 1979; Mehan & Griffin, 1980; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Those studies have documented the pervasive use of IRF triadic exchange, which renders students' role to a responsive position where they produce a response to the teacher's initiation (e.g., Boulima, 1999; van Lier, 1988; Walsh, 2002, 2006). Such dominancy of IRF patterns has been criticised for constraining students' opportunities for participation and space to develop interactional and linguistic skills (Kasper, 2001; Walsh, 2012).

However, some have argued that it is not the IRF pattern *per se* that inhibits students' participation or learning but rather teachers' actions performed in the first and third positions of the triadic exchange pattern, which is shaped by the pedagogical context. For instance, teachers' repeats in feedback move in form-focused or fluency-focused contexts (Seedhouse, 2004c) can facilitate a smooth interaction by helping the students move the interaction forward (Park, 2014). Similarly, Wells (1993) argues that if the teacher action in the third turn position is designed as a "thought-provoking" follow-up on student turn, it can "initiate new cycles of learning" (p. 35).

While asserting that the prevalence of IRF is the result of a reflexive relationship between interaction and pedagogy, Seedhouse (2004a) has criticised the tendency to describe the fluid, varied and complex intricacies of classroom interaction in relation to this specific sequence type. He argues that the IRF format renders the complexities of participants' actions to a one-move-at-a-time. Thus, while the IRF remains a descriptive force of sequential organisation of classroom interaction, one needs to investigate participants' actions on a turn-by-turn basis in micro-moments of classroom interaction because it is the turn-taking system whereby participation opportunities are negotiated. With this aim, studies have focused on how turn-taking organisation is managed in classroom interaction. Previous research turned to teachers' actions and tended to view the turn-taking system as teachers' exerting control on managing participation and pointed out an asymmetry in the distribution of speaking rights (e.g., Mchoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979; van Lier, 1988). In contrast, more recent research has shown that turn-taking organisation is not under rigid teacher control; instead, teacher's turn allocation results from participants' collaborative efforts (Fasel Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Kääntä, 2012; Lee, 2017; Mortensen, 2008).

Although much of the reviewed research has contributed to our understanding of classroom participation, the focus has been on teachers' interactional practices regarding turn-taking mechanisms. Investigating students speaking rights, i.e., their turn-taking

practices to understand student participation, has always been peripheral to the analysis. There has been only recently increasing interest in the ways students create participation opportunities in classrooms (Garton, 2012; Jacknick, 2011; Seedhouse, 2004b; Waring, 2011). This line of research has described the participation from students' perspectives. In particular, conversation analysis has been adopted frequently to investigate the student-initiated sequences in classroom discourse both in EFL and overwhelmingly ESL settings. These studies have depicted a more complex organisation of classroom interaction with students exercising control over classroom discourse and learning. More specifically, their findings have shown that student-initiated participation can break the strings of the IRF pattern (Waring, 2009), creating learning opportunities and manifesting agency (Ahn, 2016; Clarke et al., 2016; Garton, 2012; Greer, 2016; Reinders & Loewen, 2013; Sert, 2017; Waring, 2009, 2011).

It has been shown that learners can expand their linguistic knowledge by launching initiating sequences through self-selection practice (Sert, 2017), indicating a link between learning opportunities and learner initiatives. Moreover, studies have shown how students stretch their participation span and roles they take (Waring, 2011) and extend the talk by building on the prior talk or expressing disagreement (Takahashi, 2018). These studies suggest that student initiations are means of "individualising the instruction" (Allwright, 1984, p. 161) and a "contribution that learners may be making to the management of their own learning" (Allwright, 1984, p. 167). Thus, welcoming learner initiatives is paramount to allow learners to exercise agentive behaviours (Fagan, 2012; Rainio, 2008; Sert, 2015; Waring, 2013b; Waring et al., 2016) and democratise classroom discourse. When the students have more control over the classroom discourse, there can be abundant opportunities for students to develop their L2 skills. Understanding how students self-select is one way to proceed toward decentralised management of classroom interaction.

Whilst there has been a growing interest in student-initiated participation, i.e., learner initiatives, the reviewed studies have mainly centred around form-focused contexts in teacher-fronted general English classrooms. Student initiations in EAP classrooms in university settings have only been rarely investigated. There is a handful of research carried out in university settings at the graduate (e.g., Takahashi, 2018) and undergraduate levels (e.g., Duran & Sert, 2021), where English is used as the medium of instruction (EMI). However, to the researcher's knowledge, none of the above-cited studies focused on EAP classrooms at the tertiary level of education during whole-group interactions.

Thus, a more detailed analysis of student-initiated participation is needed because these classrooms are sites where students develop a sense of agency as members of the academic community. The current study aims to fill this gap by focusing on a context that has remained under-researched.

Furthermore, while exploring learners' self-selected turns in L2 classrooms, one cannot disregard their sense of agency, i.e., their intentions and will to act, to fully understand the complex nature of classroom interaction and participation patterns. When the students have the desire or will to act/initiate an action, they are most likely to self-select to partake in an interaction. Although there are studies that have investigated the relationship between students' sense of agency and their participation patterns in mainstream classrooms (e.g., Clarke et al., 2016), no study, to the researcher's knowledge, has closely explored this link in language classrooms.

Additionally, their willingness to self-select or deselect also becomes an important question to be explored, particularly in EAP classrooms which present a more demanding context for student participation. An extensive amount of research in understanding students' willingness to communicate in L2 classrooms contributes to our understanding of student participation (e.g., Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Evnitskaya & Berger, 2017; MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre et al., 2003; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2016; Yashima et al., 2018). Studies have revealed the interwoven and interdependent relationship between willingness to communicate and various psychological, contextual and linguistic variables (Cooper & McIntyre, 1994; Engin, 2017; MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019).

These studies have conceptualised the construct of willingness to communicate (WTC) in L2 as learners' "readiness to enter into a discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). WTC is the last step before the actual action of initiating communication (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010) and displays learners' conscious intention to initiate a communication "given a choice" (MacIntyre et al., 2001, p. 369) or "when the opportunity arises" (MacIntyre et al., 2003, p. 590). This current study underscores one particular aspect in the definition of L2 WTC: their intention to initiate communication manifested in the practice of self-selection to enter classroom discourse. Thus, the current study differs from the previous research in two respects. First, it employs a conversation analytic lens to investigate students' self-

selection, which is regarded as the public display of their willingness. Second, it conceptualises the willingness to communicate in narrower terms by focusing solely on students' self-selected turns.

1.2 Objectives, research questions and methodological approach

This study aims to investigate student-initiated participation in EAP classrooms at the tertiary level across two socio-culturally different educational settings, EFL and ESL. The objective of this study is twofold. First, it seeks to describe and conceptualise the students' self-initiated participation through their self-selection practice, focusing on the consequences of these actions on classroom interaction. Second, the study aims to understand students' volution and intentions to participate and why they choose to self-select or deselect.

With these aims, the study has developed the following two overarching questions, each one focusing on one dimension of student-initiated participation. Sub-questions have also been formulated to help clarify the focus of each investigation:

1) What is the nature and role of student-initiated participation in university EAP classrooms during whole-group interactions?
   a) When do students predominantly self-select to participate in classroom interactions?
   b) How do they affect the interactional trajectory in classroom interaction?
2) What are the students' thoughts and underlying reasons for their participation in EAP classrooms during whole-group interactions?
   a) What do the students think about their participation?
   b) What are the underlying reasons for them to initiate participation?

To answer these research questions, the study heavily relies on a qualitative approach as well as incorporating numerical data. It employs Applied CA as an analytical framework to gain an in-depth understanding of the nature of student-initiated participation. CA provides tools and mechanisms, such as turn-taking and sequence organisation, to explicate how participants shape their participation frameworks. For instance, focusing on their turn-taking practices can reveal how they seek, allocate and block turns during whole-group interactions or how they are prompted to take turns.

The secondary aim of the study is to understand students' perspectives by conducting interviews. This methodology has been utilised since it offers the opportunity to explore

areas that would otherwise be inaccessible using other methods such as observation or video recording. More specifically, it has been used to develop an in-depth understanding of how students make sense of their participation and the influential factors on their willingness to self-select.

1.3 Terminology and key definitions

To avoid any terminological ambiguity, specific terms used widely in this study need to be defined, and fine distinctions between similar constructs should be made clear from the beginning. The key terms are listed below:

1.3.1 Participation

The study defines participation as "forms of involvement performed by parties within evolving structures of talk" (Goodwin, 2000, p. 177), encompassing verbal and non-verbal actions accomplished by all parties. Hence, this view of participation encompasses participants' verbal utterances and non-verbal modalities accompanying their speech and active listening. For example, students' hand-up practice to enter classroom discourse and direct entry to discourse with a verbal production is considered participation. Likewise, a 'yeah' and 'a head nod' are considered tokens of acknowledgement. However, this study focuses on how students accomplish turn-taking, i.e., self-selection in whole-group settings, whether learner-learner or teacher-learner interactions. Hence, the analysis rests on the speaking party with references to non-verbal modalities that accompany their speech when relevant to the investigation.

1.3.2 Student-initiated participation

Within the concept of participation defined above, student-initiated participation refers to students' entry into classroom discourse without being chosen as the next speaker by others, teachers in this case. Previous research has coined 'learner initiatives' and 'student initiations' to describe the same concept. In this study, these terms are used interchangeable to refer to student-initiated participation.

1.3.3 Acronyms regarding students' willingness to participate: WTC vs WTI

Student oral participation has also been linked to students' willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre et al., 2003; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Yashima et al., 2018). The construct has been acronymised as L2 WTC to explain the learners' intention to enter into a discourse in L2, given a chance (MacIntyre et al., 1998). This

current study underscores one particular aspect in the definition of L2 WTC, one that emphasises the learners' intention to initiate communication, hence WTI, which is manifested in their action to take the floor through self-selection practice. The study distinguishes between WTC and WTI, arguing that learners' willingness to initiate communication is more nuanced and narrowed in its focus on self-selection practice.

1.4 The organisation of the thesis

The study is organised into eight chapters, following this introductory chapter. *Chapter 2* addresses the contextual issues, highlighting the homogeneous properties of the institutional context in both EFL and ESL settings. Specifically, it presents the EAP classrooms as one of the institutional contexts that are organised and managed according to the same institutional goals, which is fundamentally teaching academically appropriate language skills.

Chapter 3 presents the discussion of the theoretical and analytical bases for the study's empirical parts and the results chapters. It provides the theoretical foundations for the importance of student participation and critically discusses the previous studies from sociolinguistic and socio-cultural perspectives, which mainly involved the Vygotskian position. It aims to explain the pivotal nature of student-initiated talk in the learning process, drawing on the interactional practices with a focus on turn-taking that participants orient to in constructing participation opportunities.

Chapter 4 describes the analytical frameworks employed in the study and explains why it adheres to a qualitative research strategy. It elaborates on CA as an approach to the analysis of talk in classrooms. Furthermore, the second part of the chapter concerns interview data analysis arguing that the semi-structured interview method serves well the aim of the study. It also details the participants, classroom settings, instruments, data collection and analysis procedures, and ethical issues.

Following this are two finding chapters that present the primary answers to each main research question. *Chapter 5* presents the primary findings of the first research question, i.e. explicating and conceptualising the student-initiated participation and detailing the variations occurring sequentially. *Chapter 6* provides the results of the second research question, i.e. semi-structured interviews that provide insights into the "why" question.

In *Chapter 7*, the findings are drawn together and discussed in relation to the relevant literature. Finally, *Chapter 8* concludes the study, discussing the limitations and providing recommendations for practice and suggestions for future research.

2 Contextual Dimensions

2.1 Introduction

This chapter briefly describes the socio-cultural, linguistic, and educational context, focusing on the complexities it provides and how it is treated in the study. The first section discusses the status of the English language on a broader level in both data collection sites, Turkey and the UK. The label used to refer to English's status in Turkey is EFL, and in the UK, ESL. The denotations of these two labels are explained, and the differentiating features are highlighted in this section. The second section moves from divergences to the points of convergence by presenting a narrower focus on the status of the English language in both socio-cultural contexts: English for academic purposes (EAP). Relying on a three-dimensional view of L2 classrooms, it is argued that, in observed classrooms, academic English can be seen to demonstrate institutional sameness and investigated under this rubric. Finally, the third section presents the structural organisation of EAP classrooms in data collection sites.

2.2 Sociocultural contexts

This section discusses the context on a macro-level, i.e., the status of English in each country as a socio-cultural context. On a broader level, the most readily observed contextual difference is the status of English in the classrooms observed in this study, i.e., EFL and ESL. ESL stands for English as a second language, whereas EFL is the abbreviation for English as a foreign language (Brown, 2007). While the denotations of these two labels indicate differentiating features, they also have been used interchangeably in various publications, ELT materials and research (Nayar, 1997). Therefore, there is no consensus on the appropriate label for the status of English in different contexts, which is, however, not the concern of this study. Instead, the choice for the nomenclatures of the labels ESL and EFL has been made for practical research purposes. Thus, EFL describes situations where English is being taught in a non-native country for this study. I adopted Nayar's (1997) interpretation of ESL, which refers to the situation where international students are taught in a native environment.

Now that the denotations of the acronyms have been clarified, the following sub-sections detail the properties of the English language as an L2 in each country, respectively.

2.2.1 Turkey as an EFL country

Turkey is a non-English speaking country and has no British-colonization past. Kachru's (1986) typology places Turkey within the expanding circle where English is taught in the school curriculum. Being the only compulsory language at all levels, English has had the most dominant foreign language status in Turkey for a long while. The main factors contributing to its significance and popularity are higher education requirements, career goals, globalisation and integration into the international arena (Aslan, 2018; Kirkgöz, 2009). According to Arik and Arik (2014), in at least 20% of the programmes, English is the medium of instruction partly because of the internalisation policy of higher education in Turkey, which joined the Bologna process in 2001. Half of these programmes are English-related majors such as ELT (English language teaching), English Literature or English linguistics.

English language education prior to higher education is based on the national curriculum. Throughout K-12 education in state schools, students have had English as a compulsory subject since 4th grade, which was pushed back to 2nd grade in 2018. In private schools, on the other hand, students receive foreign language education starting from kindergarten. Upon entering university, students are subject to examination prior to admission to their programmes that adopt English-medium instruction.

The higher education policy of the universities where English is partly or entirely the medium of instruction requires all universities to establish language centres to offer intensive language courses to prepare students for their undergraduate-level studies (Kirkgöz, 2009). One-year EAP course in these language centres of universities is geared to equip learners with the necessary skills for their degree-level studies. The curriculum and material choice usually follow the division set up by the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) framework and rely on an integrated-skills approach. Furthermore, students' progress is assessed against the CEFR framework. Students either have to have an internationally recognised test score (a TOEFL IBT score of 72 or a min IELTS score of 5.5 on average) or pass the language proficiency exam administered by the university's language centre.

2.2.2 The UK as an ESL country

Compared to the EFL context, the most distinctive feature of ESL is the de facto presence of "the environmental support of a (politically) native English-speaking country" (Nayar,

1997, p. 29). However, this distinction has not been highlighted as much recently, particularly when exposure to the target language, even in isolated settings, becomes readily available due to technological facilities and networks, primarily the internet. In the ESL context, there is also an expectation that ESL learners' achievement is evaluated against the demands placed on university students set as native speaker standards (Nayar, 1997). As a result, there is a requirement for ESL students to provide proofs of their language proficiency that can satisfy universities' language proficiency demands.

Pre-entry measures to a higher education institution in the UK involve external standardised tests (e.g., TOEFL, IELTS, and TOEIC). The most popular test in the UK is IELTS. The standard minimum benchmark score for undergraduate study is usually anchored at 6.0, while it is commonly 7.0-7.5 for linguistically demanding programmes. According to their test score and the programme needs, there are three different routes for international students. Upon admission, they either enrol in a pre-sessional, attend a foundational course, or are directed to in-sessional language courses.

The most common route is pre-sessional courses. Usually referred to as international or overseas, those students "who meet all the other requirements for admission but whose performance on the external test falls short of that required for unconditional admission can be admitted provided that they successfully complete a pre-sessional EAP course" (Banerjee & Wall, 2006, p. 51). Students who have provided an adequate language proficiency score for conditional admission to their undergraduate or postgraduate level studies, thus, are placed in pre-sessional courses where they are assessed at the end of the course for their language skills before embarking on their studies. Students' performances are rewarded for their ability to meet the demands of academic writing, reading, speaking, and listening. Academic writing demands expected from students involve rhetorical functions such as summarising, comparing and contrasting, reviewing, describing, and evaluating (Moore & Morton, 2005). Other skills include participating in group discussions, oral presentations, reading critically, assessing the value of reading materials, evaluating ideas, and synthesising. Exit measure for a pre-sessional course is usually an IELTS test score which functions as a gatekeeper for students to move on to their degree programmes. The length of pre-sessional courses varies between four to twelve weeks.

The second path is foundation courses which "are generally intended to give a 'foundation' in a subject that enables the learner to go on to a further study in that subject area" (Murphy, 2009, p. 30). Attendance is compulsory, and students are mostly

guaranteed a place in their degree programme upon successfully completing the foundation year (Sanders & Daly, 2013). According to one university, which was one of the data collection sites, the foundation year promises a subject-specific English language ability and academic expertise to study for an undergraduate degree. The English skills module focuses on writing, speaking, reading, and listening skills. Among other goals are academic literacy, essay writing skills, academic style, development of independent study skills, oral presentation skills, participation in classroom and group discussions, problem-solving abilities, and criticality. They also offer optional subject-specific modules that students can choose according to their discipline.

Lastly, another language support provided by universities is in-sessional courses that pursue ensuring an academic standard and support for language and study skills for overseas students (Sloan & Porter, 2009). Unlike the other options summarised above, in-sessional courses are optional for international students who have already commenced their degree programmes. With the increase in international students, universities are left with varying language proficiency levels and study skills to deal with (Sloan & Porter, 2010). Most universities take on a remedial approach and encourage students to enrol on and attend in-sessional courses. This is commonly done by an EAP tutor who makes a presentation to invite learners to these courses during the induction week. The in-sessional EAP courses aim to teach skills that can be transferable across disciplines. Some key goals involve increasing student engagement, particularly verbal participation, boosting their confidence in using the target language, and academic socialisation through study skills such as critical reading/writing, using sources, synthesis of ideas, and critical evaluation of sources (Alexander et al., 2017).

This section has reviewed the status of the English language, which situates the current study within a linguistic and educational context. Different socio-cultural contexts suggest varying labels for the status of English, and the distinctive features of both contexts that were mentioned above make it impossible to provide a comparable picture between the two; however, that was never the intention. Moreover, it is beyond the scope of this study to consider the impact of such wider differences. Instead, the study adopts Seedhouse's (2004b) three-dimensional view of the context to overcome this obstacle. With this aim, the below section describes how context is viewed as a homogeneous entity to describe L2 classrooms in the current study.

2.3 A three-dimensional view of the L2 classroom context

This section suggests a way to bring the two settings together from a micro-interactional context point of view, presenting the EAP label as a convergence point. This common ground is built on Seedhouse's (2004b) three-dimensional view of the context. This focus on the EAP classroom provides a degree of homogeneity in the classroom context, considering the instruction that is shaped around the same pedagogical goals. The figure below shows Seedhouse's perspective on the interplay of different layers of the L2 classroom context:

Figure 2.1: A three-dimensional view of the context
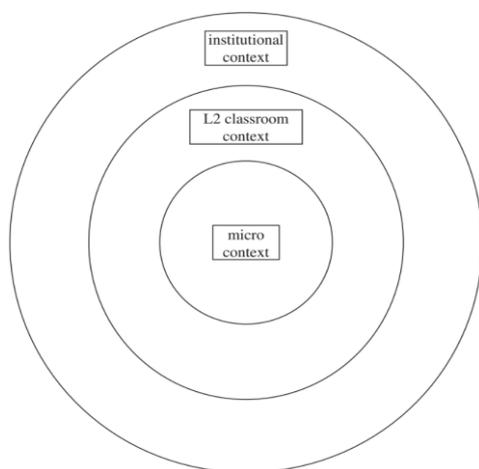
Note: From Seedhouse (2004b, p. 210)

In the first layer, context is dynamic, ever-changing, constructed and shaped locally (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990; Seedhouse, 2004b). This CA perspective of the context on a micro-level indicates heterogeneity in the context where interaction displays a unique character and is shaped by the pedagogical focus. The context is ever negotiated and managed by participants. Therefore, this layer manifests the uniqueness of interactional properties in micro-moments since the participant actions, turn design and turn-taking practices can hardly be the same. When moving to the second level, the similarities or differences of interaction in a certain micro context can demonstrate common features. For instance, a form-focused context at a point can be similar to the interaction at another context configured as a form and accuracy context. On a macro-level (the third level), homogeneity becomes evident in the configuration of the interaction in relation to institutional operations, which refers to the generic structure of L2 classroom interaction. The properties observed in the micro-level context fundamentally portray the "institutional sameness" (Seedhouse, 2004b, p. 211) and exhibit a certain degree of

homogeneity of the L2 classroom interaction. The common institutional properties listed by Seedhouse (2004b) are presented below:

1) Language is both the vehicle and object of instruction in the L2 classroom.
2) There is, therefore, a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction.
3) The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction that the learners in an L2 classroom produce in the L2 are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher in some way.

From this perspective, EAP classrooms in both socio-cultural contexts, the UK and Turkey, can be seen to demonstrate institutional sameness. EAP classrooms are one of the institutional contexts that are organised and managed according to the same institutional goals and pedagogic agenda, which is teaching academically appropriate language skills in this study. The focus of instruction in the observed classroom contexts was the English language for academic purposes, which is presented in detail below section.

2.4 Institutional context: English for academic purposes (EAP)

Before moving on to the description of the EAP, there is a need to unpack the terminological fuzziness regarding this label. Due to various interpretations, there is a proliferation of labels for English use in various contexts. Among many others, CLIL (content and language integrated learning), EMI (English-medium instruction), ESP (English for specific purposes) and EAP (English for academic purposes) might be the most commonly used terms. According to Airey (2016), there is a continuum of approaches that lead to these terms to sit on either side of the diagram below:

Figure 2.2: The language/content continuum
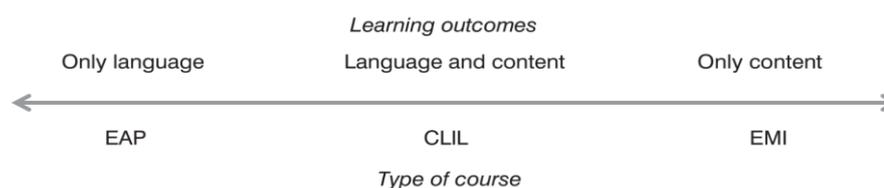
Note: From Airey (2016, p. 73)

As seen, EMI is used to denote the delivery of subject knowledge through English. Thus, there is no focus on language learning outcomes; instead, language is the means to teach the content. CLIL refers to the educational approach of combining non-language content with language learning. In other words, students learn a subject through the medium of a target language. In contrast, EAP is placed on the left side, indicating that the focus of

27

instruction is language-related and content bears no importance. Based on this description, EAP serves best to describe the observed classrooms where explicit English language learning outcomes were set. The content choices encompassed a wide range of topics in all the observed classroom settings, whereas language focus was emphasised.

2.4.1 Some history: Internationalisation of higher education

In both contexts, EAP courses are the result of intention and attempts for the internationalisation of higher education (Aslan, 2018; Kirkgöz, 2009; Sloan & Porter, 2009; Thorpe et al., 2017). In the case of Turkey, the process began in 2001 to meet the criteria of the Bologna Declaration, which mediates free movement between member countries via the adaptation of a standardised system and terminology (Arik & Arik, 2014). With the Bologna Declaration, the mobility of undergraduate and graduate students increased. This led to a rise in EAP courses across Europe, including Turkey (Phillipson, 2015). Another reason for establishing EAP courses is English-related programmes such as English Literature and ELT. In those courses the role of English is the medium of instruction which require a preparatory EAP course.

In the UK, economic trends of globalisation led to an interest in the internationalisation of higher education, and hence an increasingly growing number of international students in higher education institutions. Two important themes are highlighted within this policy: student retention/attrition and wider participation due to their financial implications (Kingston & Forland, 2008; Sanders & Daly, 2013). Hence, universities have begun to internationalise degree programmes to attract and keep more students. The goal was to improve student retention while ensuring a quality standard. However, attempting to integrate students with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds was problematic with respect to meeting the standards of academic culture, such as writing or communication norms in the classroom. As a solution, universities adopted remedial approaches and provided language support courses such as pre-sessional, in-sessional and foundation courses. The goal is to prepare overseas students to meet the English language requirements and help them socialise in the academic culture of the universities. The below section reviews the approaches to EAP to highlight the pedagogic goals of the courses in both research settings.

2.4.2 English for general academic purposes

There are two dominating perspectives in the field of EAP research. One perspective argues that EAP courses should be tailored to the needs of disciplinary circumstances (Hyland, 2016). The other supports that common ground should be established for teaching skills and features of language that can be transferred across disciplines. In other words, it considers general linguistic competence as the main objective of the EAP courses, which is better suited to the description of observed classroom contexts in this study.

What distinguishes EAP from general English study is the particular focus on describing the purpose of language use in specific contexts (Hyland, 2016). According to Cummins (1979, 2000), there is a distinction between academic language proficiency and basic interpersonal communicative skills. This dualistic perspective argues that basic language skills are acquired before academic English, which is decontextualised and characterised by its cognitive load. Within this perspective, it was argued that EAP courses could be challenging for students at a lower proficiency level and that they need to acquire general English competence before that. However, this view was met with criticism as it implies a linear developmental stage from general English to academic English (Hyland, 2016). It also assigns everyday communication a peripheral role that necessitates a high degree of negotiation skills (Bailey, 2007; Haneda, 2014). Also, SLA research has produced counterevidence showing that students do not learn linguistic features in a linear fashion imposed by the syllabus (Ellis, 1994). Nevertheless, this view forms the basis of many EAP course curricula that dictate teaching a language before it can be used in a specific social context for a particular use.

Haneda (2014) proposes a set of principles for learning academic communication' that are applicable at all levels of academic study. Drawing on the socio-cultural theory of learning, she argues that multimodal dynamics of language learning are better captured in terms of academic communication because learners acquire knowledge (i.e., language features and academically valued skills) through participation in communities of practice. Thus, it is pivotal to create a classroom ecology that allows student participation to "take up, transform, and appropriate the knowledgeable skills involved in joint activities in order to make sense of the world" (Haneda, 2014, p. 130). Taking on a more expansive view of learning, she further argues that academic language can be conceptualised as a form of the repertoire of academic communication that is inclusive of vernacular and

academic registers. This set of principles, thus, helps create a community of learners that is inclusive of students' previous values and experiences and safe for them to partake in classroom discussions.

What Haneda (2014) proposes is particularly crucial for participants of this current study who come from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Normative routine behaviours in academic contexts might be unfamiliar to those students. For example, how to express a counter opinion politely or when/how to interject an opinion into an ongoing discussion. Such interactional and analytical skills form the understanding of the role of interactional rights and obligations in the classroom, which might be tricky in another language and culture (Dippold, 2014). Engaging students in communicative events in collaboration with their peers and with the teacher's scaffolding could provide them with a context to be immersed in a culture of academic literacy.

In EAP classrooms, instruction focuses on generic rhetorical features, language and study skills to prepare students for the academic demands of their discipline (Parkinson, 2016). Those generic forms and skills include skimming, scanning texts, summarising, paraphrasing, not-takings, giving oral presentations (Hyland, 2016), and four language skills, i.e., reading, listening, writing, and speaking (Parkinson, 2016). In the observed classrooms, the focus of instruction varied, ranging from language skills to generic rhetorical skills, depending on students' proficiency level. In lower proficiency level classrooms, academic communication skills were prioritised, focusing on language forms. In contrast, high proficiency level classroom discourse was shaped around study skills, communication skills and academic writing genre.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the context from different perspectives, highlighting the homogeneous properties of institutional context (Seedhouse, 2004b). It has been argued that EAP classrooms are one of the institutional contexts that are organised and managed according to the institutional goals and pedagogic agenda, which is teaching academically appropriate language. Hence, the classrooms in both socio-cultural contexts can be seen to demonstrate institutional sameness and can be investigated under this rubric. The following chapter reviews the relevant literature and locates the study within the field.

3 Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the key literature on the critical role of student participation in L2 classroom interaction. Given that the study aims to expand the research on student participation, defining participation is an integral part of the conceptual framework, including analysis and interpretation of the data. Therefore, the first section defines the concept of participation from various perspectives discussing its key aspects.

The second section focuses on the strands of theories that underpin the concept of participation employed in this study and addresses the issue of learning through participation in classroom interaction. To that end, a brief review of SLA theories that focus on the role of interaction in L2 learning is discussed. Then, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory has been presented as the main framework underpinning this study. The theory makes an appropriate framework for the analysis of classroom discourse because it firmly remarks that cognitive development evolves out of socially and culturally constructed interactions between individuals. Finally, it addresses the issue of learning through participation within the CA-for-SLA tradition which is particularly relevant for the methodological underpinnings of the study.

The third section reviews the key constructs of classroom interaction regarding student participation, namely participation through turn-taking and sequence organisation. The aim of this section is to locate the study within the classroom interaction research and set the scene for the current study. The fourth section reports the previous research on student-initiated participation and critically discusses the methodological approach to examining classroom discourse. Finally, the last section explores other dimensions relevant to student-initiated participation within the two central concepts: agency and willingness to communicate. The chapter closes with a summary of the review.

3.2 Defining participation

Goodwin (2000) defines participation as "actions demonstrating forms of engagements performed by the parties within evolving structures of talk" (p. 177). This view of participation involves both verbal and nonverbal actions of both speaker and hearer since speakers constantly modify their speech according to the hearer's reactions. This position also highlights the concept of participation as operating on different levels of classroom interaction (Appel, 2010). First, it refers to participation as evolving within talk structures

31

within interaction. Second, participation involves various modes of engagement, verbal and non-verbal. Third, it shows the observable orientation of participants, and finally, it indicates that participation might include more than two speaker parties. These participation characteristics are reviewed, respectively, and the section concludes with the notion of participation adopted in the current study.

3.2.1 Participation as structures on macro-level

Research that investigates participation on a macro level within longer stretches of classroom interaction defines the concept of participation as a set of structures (Erickson, 1982; Philips, 1983). Such macro-level participation structure includes routines or rituals, which are relatively stable frameworks. In her seminal study, Philips (1983), for example, lists four structures in her typology of participation: teacher-entire class, teacher-small group of students, teacher-individual student, and finally, students working individually on their own. Another study by Erickson (1982) introduced two aspects of classroom discourse that highlight the differences in participation structure: 'academic task structure' and 'social participation structure'. Academic task structure involves a set of steps and tasks that have been planned by the teacher for the students to follow. Social participation structure is about the interactional rights of the social groups. It is defined as "a patterned set of constraints on the allocation of interactional rights and obligations of various members of the interactional group" (Erickson, 1982, p. 154).

Research in language classrooms (e.g., Seedhouse, 2004b; Johnson, 1995) has also employed a similar distinction between pedagogical goals and participation structures. These studies suggest a reflexive relationship between academic tasks and participation structure. For example, regarding the description of classroom interactional organisation Seedhouse (2004b) suggested that participation structures are shaped by the pedagogical focus of the interaction. Academic task structures, sites where cognitive works are done, are centred around educational goals and themes presented sequentially (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010).

Research in classroom interaction also investigated the effectiveness of different participation structures. For example, earlier studies by Mehan (1979) and McHoul (1978) depicted a strict, restrictive, and teacher-controlled participation structure in teacher-fronted lessons. Unlike small learner groups, in teacher-controlled interactions, the teacher sets the agenda and manages speaking rights (Walsh, 2006). These studies suggest that students' participation rights are reduced in whole-group settings due to the

multi-party nature of the interaction. In contrast, some studies within conversation analytic approach (Fasel Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Kääntä, 2012; Lee, 2017; Mortensen, 2008) has portrayed a more complex picture, suggesting that participation rights are negotiated by students and teachers and learners display a degree of control over the negotiation process. Other studies (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009) investigated the student's approach to interactions during whole-group participation and provided evidence regarding students' disfavour of whole-group contexts. Given that this current study focuses on students' speaking rights in whole-group interactions, it contributes to the existing research on participation structures in whole-class settings.

3.2.2 Participation and participant roles

The earlier endeavours to define participation were broadly focused on individuals' rights and capacity to enter into an interaction in the roles of either a speaker or a hearer (Appel, 2010). However, this general definition undermines the complex nature of participation, reducing it to the categories of speaker and hearer, whose roles are clearly and easily defined. Following this simplistic view, traditional models of participation tended to view the speaker worthy of focus and treated the hearer "as a figment of speaker's imagination" (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990, p. 292). In his essay on footing, Goffman (1981) defied the traditional models of speaker-hearer roles as inadequate in showing the participants' changing alignments. Instead, his notion of 'footing', which refers to how participants display their participation and stance in interaction, highlights dynamic participant roles. He suggested that speakers display various levels of engagement and changing alignments in interaction. Goffman also provided a typology of participant roles, attributing different roles to speakers and hearers. In this participation framework, the speaker can have roles such as animator or author. Hearers are described either as 'ratified participants' who are addressed or unaddressed individuals or 'unratified participants' who are bystanders or overhearers. Yet, with his primary focus on participant roles, Goffman paid little attention to describing the hearer's ways of actively engaging in talks.

However, the current study is more concerned with students' speaking rights, not the array of roles available to them in conversations. In addition, classroom interaction does not need such classification as ratified or unratified participants because all students are ratified participants who can be addressed or unaddressed in whole group interactions. For that reason, Goffman's participation framework is not suitable for the objectives of

this study. Besides, treating hearer and speaker roles as entities that can be analysed differently (participation status versus framework) also provokes challenges. Therefore, while accepting that participation is "fundamentally about contribution and connection" (Schultz,2009, p. 8) and encompasses various forms of participation modes, including active listenership, the study will focus on the speaking party and their speaking rights.

The concept of speaking rights, which is inherently tied to participation structure, was also investigated from the perspective of "floor", defined as "a flexible organisation of participation in the discursive practices of activity" (Jones & Thornborrow, 2004, p. 421). Jones and Thornborrow (2004) argue that the concept of the conversational floor should be conceptualised on a continuum from tighter to looser as opposed to one-party-at-a-time speaking rule. In a tighter conversational floor, the speaker and listener roles are clearly defined, and both parties are constrained by features of the interactional and social context. For example, a teacher names a student who is then obligated to produce a response. On the other hand, a loose floor indicates that any party can take the floor, which might lead to overlaps and little gaps of silence. Thus, speaker shifts occur fast, and the floor remains dynamically shared. The concept of floor is relevant to the current study as it focuses on the speaking rights and obligations of speakers and will be referred to frequently in the analysis of the data when describing the turn-taking practices of students. For example, 'floor getting/obtaining', 'losing the floor' or 'stealing the floor' defines students' actions to enter classroom discourse.

3.2.3 Participation as multimodal action

Crucial to our understanding of how individuals configure their participation is the analysis of participation as the juxtaposition of bodily resources and the talk (Goodwin, 2000). In addition to linguistic resources, including prosody, those resources involve a wide range of embodied actions such as gaze (e.g., Kääntä, 2012; Lerner, 2003; Mondada, 2013; Sert, 2013), hand gestures (Lee, 2017; Peng, Zhang & Chen, 2017), body posture, head direction, and face expressions (Ozkose-Biyik & Meskill, 2015; Sert, 2013). From this perspective, language and embodied conducts constitute "a unified communicative system" (Dolce & van Compernolle (2020, p. 84). CA analysis of social interaction has shown that individuals rely on these resources to extend/limit their participation space and opportunities and monitor their co-participants' constant adjustments of bodily conducts and talk (Goodwin, 2000; Schegloff, 1998).

This view of participation offers another way of analysing turn-taking in classroom interaction. A full appreciation of how learners accomplish self-selection thus includes identifying their embodied actions that accompany their turn-taking formats and participation frameworks. For example, Schegloff (1998) has shown how participants monitor their co-participants' bodily alignments to project their turn completion. It should be noted that the current study does not aim to solely investigate embodied participation in general but rather primarily focuses on students' verbal conduct and incorporate these embodied resources when students employ them to verbally enter classroom discourse and when these resources have an influence on shaping the participation framework. By incorporating the non-verbal embodied behaviours, the study seeks to provide a complete picture, highlighting the interplay between speech delivery and the timing of these embodied actions.

3.2.4 Participation in multiparty settings

Classroom interaction is a multiparty discourse, as opposed to two-party, and involves teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions. Multiparty classroom discourse presents the problem of speaking rights because the number of participants in the classroom complicates assigning the next speaker (Cekaite, 2008). First, there is the teacher factor, who, as the monitor of the interactional activities, can have an influential position in curtailing students' speaking rights. For instance, the teacher's handling of student initiations is argued to configure students' conversational space and opportunities (Fagan, 2012; Sert, 2017). Second, as students find themselves in a competitive setting, securing teacher and peer attention while taking turns proves challenging for students, which is a must to guarantee to get and keep the floor (van Lier, 1988). As a result, they might need to make several attempts to achieve speakership. These difficulties are articulated by Kendon (1990): "How can the speaker know that his intended recipient is ready to receive his utterance, and how do the other participants know for whom the utterance is intended?" (p. 242). Therefore, analysing how students self-select and take/hold the floor will expand our understanding of how EAP students are oriented to access and establish learning opportunities in multi-party classroom settings.

Lerner (2003) proposes two methods of selecting the next speaker in multi-party interaction: explicit addressing (e.g., directing gaze at or calling by name or any other address term, hand rising) and tacit addressing drawing upon additional practices. These methods are also identified in classrooms by previous research (e.g., Cekaite, 2008; Fasel

Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Käntä, 2012; Lee, 2017; Mortensen, 2008; Waring, 2011). However, much of the research focused solely on how teachers manage to select the next speaker (e.g., Mortenson, 2008). Only recently, studies have turned their attention to how students assign themselves as the next speaker. Thus, the current study endeavours to describe how students manage to achieve speakership status in the multiparty classroom discourse.

3.2.5 Participation in this study

Since this study aims to portray how students seek out and establish participation rights in whole-class settings, relying on verbal and non-verbal conduct, it draws on two theoretical positions: social interactionist and sociocultural perspectives. While the former allows for digging deeper on a micro-level of details to understand the student's self-selections to enter classroom talks, i.e., student-initiated participation, the latter provides a theoretical basis for interpreting student-initiated participation patterns in a broader context of classroom interaction.

First, the study defines student participation as "forms of involvement performed by parties within evolving structures of talk" (Goodwin, 2000, p. 177), encompassing verbal and non-verbal conducts accomplished by all parties. Furthermore, participation is viewed as dynamic, fluid, and interactive, situated in the context. Within this frame, this study focuses on the turn-taking mechanism, more specifically self-selection practice, in its sequential environment, in whole-group settings, whether it be learner-learner or teacher-learner interactions. Hence, the analysis rests on students' verbal utterances in interaction with references to non-verbal modalities that accompany their speech when relevant to the investigation.

Second, adopting a sociocultural stance to learning, participation is viewed as a process taking place through participating in social interaction and hence closely tied to learning. In keeping with this view, participation can afford learners opportunities for learning, highlighting its developmental nature. Self-selection forms one way of participating in social activities in classrooms. Therefore, the study of how students create opportunities for learning through self-selection practice in order to participate in interactions will contribute to our understanding of the learning process.

3.3 Theories and approaches relevant to participation in L2 classroom interaction

This section reviews various theoretical positions that have taken different views on how learning occurs in classroom interaction, which underpin the concept of participation employed in this study. It presents a short review of an extensive body of research providing ample evidence that participation is beneficial for learning in interactionist tradition (e.g., Mackey, 1999; Gass & Varonis, 1985, 1994; Gass, Mackey & Pica, 1998; Gass, Mackey & Ross-Feldman, 2005) in sociocultural line of research (e.g., Antón, 1999; Donato, 1994, 2000; Takeuchi, 2015; van Compernolle, 2010; van Compernolle & Williams, 2013) and in CA-for-SLA tradition (e.g., Jenks, 2010; Kunitz, 2018; Kunitz & Marian, 2017; Markee, 2015; Markee & Kunitz, 2013, 2015; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004; Mori & Markee, 2009; Seedhouse, 2005; Young & Miller, 2004). Hence, the sub-sections below present the concept of learning through participation in interaction under the rubric of these three research traditions: cognitive-interactionist SLA, sociocultural theory and CA-for-SLA. Special attention is given to the conversation analytic perspective as it contributes to the methodological framework of this study.

3.3.1 Student participation in the cognitive-interactionist tradition

The section critically discusses the role of interaction that has been conceptualised and researched within the concepts of "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1982, 1985), "negotiation for meaning" (Long, 1981, 1983, 1985) and "comprehensible output" (Swain, 1985) in interactionist tradition.

According to Krashen's (1982) Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, comprehension of input is central to L2 acquisition. The necessary condition for the input to be useful is that it contains i+1 element, that is, a little beyond the learner's level. This hypothesis claims that when the communication is successful and there is enough input, i+1 will be provided automatically. A serious weakness of the hypothesis is its claim that learners do not need to produce output for L2 acquisition. It presupposes that comprehension leads to acquisition, and output reflects the acquired knowledge. Although there are mentions of a creative process that the learner reconstructs and internalises the recently learned grammatical rule, how the acquisition takes place remains unexplained.

Furthermore, the name of the hypothesis itself attributes too much importance to the input produced by the other party, not the learners themselves. Hence, it draws a picture of a one-way relationship between interaction and acquisition. Gass (2015) also pointed out

this problem: "it is the input provider who is determining comprehensibility when in fact, the important point is whether or not the learner comprehends" (p. 183). Although one success of comprehensible input is that it established the role of input as a salient component of L2 learning and sparked a great deal of research, later research showed that the comprehensible input, however important, is not enough for L2 acquisition (Swain, 1985; White, 1987).

The most prominent study belongs to Swain (1985), who challenged the input hypothesis arguing that "its impact on grammatical development has been overstated" (p. 236). Swain's proposed output hypothesis originates from her research in a French immersion school setting with English learners of French. The study observed that despite the exposure to the large quantity of input in an immersion country, students could not acquire the target language forms fully, although they successfully understood what they were being taught. Thus, the study attributed the non-native production of immersion students to students' lack of opportunities to have meaningful two-way interactions.

One strength of the output hypothesis is that it attributes more control to the learner by giving them more responsibility for their learning and, hence positions them as active individuals as opposed to the input hypothesis. Output involves denser mental processing than comprehension (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Learners can benefit from non-linguistic knowledge in their efforts to comprehend input; however, in producing the output, they need to move from the "semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production" (Swain, 1995, p. 127). Thus, output is argued to be significant in syntactic and morphological development.

The hypothesis has successfully established output as an indispensable part of the equation in L2 development, underscoring the critical role of student talk and attributing extra roles to the output "other than that of *contextualised* and *pushed* language use" (Swain, 1985, p. 249, emphasis in original). Three main functions of output were listed: noticing, hypothesis testing, and metalinguistic functions (Swain, 1995, 2005) listed. Noticing refers to the learner's awareness of the gap in their L2 knowledge when producing output. Learners realize what they can and cannot produce. As suggested in a study by Swain and Lapkin (1995), this realisation might lead them to activate their cognitive processes by generating new knowledge or consolidating their existing linguistic knowledge.

The second function, hypothesis testing, serves as a function for learners to test their hypothesis of language knowledge. By pushing their limits of knowledge, they can test their utterances in terms of comprehensibility and well-formedness. They might modify their linguistic knowledge of certain forms or morphological items based on feedback or interactional moves in conversations. Finally, the metalinguistic function refers to learners' knowledge of how to say or write in the target knowledge. It helps learners to reflect and internalise the language forms. They use the target language to "negotiate about form" (Swain, 1995, p. 133).

Encompassing both input and output, the Interaction Hypothesis proposed by Long (1983) suggests that conversational interaction leads to L2 development. Although it shares some underlying theoretical basis with Krashen's (1982) Comprehensible Input Hypothesis and accepts the role of input as an essential condition for acquisition, the hypothesis underlines that input alone is not enough to form an optimal environment for L2 acquisition. Instead, it focuses more on the ways input can be comprehensible through linguistic and interactional modifications. The modifications involved shorter utterances, syntactically less complex sentences, and avoidance of less frequent lexical words or idioms if the non-native speaker is at a lower proficiency level. This argument relies on the studies (Long, 1981, 1983, 1985) that demonstrated the modifications native speakers applied to their speech while talking to non-native speakers to simplify it. In addition, they showed that non-native speakers could respond appropriately to complex input through interactional practices, which involved confirmation checks, clarification requests, and repetition. Thus, the hypothesis argues that interactional and linguistic modifications are influential on comprehension and hence by extension, promote acquisition.

The hypothesis is also firmly grounded in cognitivist tradition. Long (1996) emphasises the cognitive processes involved, particularly selective attention and learners' internal factors. As he puts it:

> Negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways. (p. 451-452)

Focusing on the links between the input and the learners' cognitive processes, Long argues that the internal factors, i.e., built-in acquisition processes, including selective

attention, working memory and noticing, play a part in their learning process. This process increases the learners' chances of noticing the forms and helps them learn grammatical items/rules more effectively and quickly. This occurs when interlocutors encounter communication problems which require their attentional focus from message to form. The participants recycle the same linguistic items during the negotiation until the trouble is eliminated, contributing to L2 development.

Overall, the cognitive-interactionist approach's underlying premise is that learning and interaction are connected; however, it does not mean learning occurs in interaction; instead, it is only auxiliary to the process (e.g., Krashen, 1982; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1983; Mackey, 1999; Swain, 1985). Gass, Mackey and Pica (1998, p. 305) also regarded the role of interaction as secondary, viewing it as a source of input. They went on to state: "Although interaction may provide a structure that allows input to become salient and hence noticed, interaction should not be seen as a cause of acquisition; it can only set the scene for potential learning". Although they provide compelling evidence regarding the role of interaction, they pay far too little attention to the social dimension of interaction. The below section reviews a few empirical studies conducted from this perspective.

3.3.2 Empirical studies within the cognitive-interactionist approach

Studies within this tradition were mainly motivated to investigate the relationship between conversational interaction and the development of certain L2 grammatical items. Their findings reported that active participation increases learners' production of focal grammatical items (Reinders & Loewen, 2013) and their developmental stages in general (Mackey, 1999). For example, a study by Reinders and Loewen (2013) focused on learner uptake to investigate the link between student-initiated queries and learning. They ascribed a more active role to the learner in the learning process and showed a link between the two variables, measuring students' success via quantification of successful uptake.

Some studies only ascribed importance to the negotiated interaction, stating that input can be comprehensible through interactional modifications. Pica, Young and Doughty (1987) showed that modifications through repetition served as a means to aid comprehension. However, due to the quantitative nature of the study, no evidence was provided to show that the repetitions were initiated by L2 learners. Likewise, Gass and Varonis (1985) viewed interaction as a source of input and positioned learners as responsible for

signalling communication breakdown and requesting repair. Inspired by Jefferson's (1972) "side sequence", which indicates a breakdown from the conversation flow, they developed a model to investigate communication problems in non-native speaker interaction. Analysing learner talk in different communicative tasks, they suggested that tasks played a major role in interaction, which might facilitate acquisition. Although they attributed more responsibility to the hearer as active listener (learner in their case) as opposed to other studies, they placed greater focus on the task type rather than the interactional features of conversations.

Most of the studies in this tradition (e.g., Mackey, 1999; Mackey & Pica, 1998; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Pica et al., 1987) are laboratory-based to control individual differences and variables of classroom settings. However, they are often criticised for reducing the interactional richness and details of the naturalistic classroom setting (Mackey & Goo, 2007). In reaction to criticism regarding the transferability of laboratory research results into classroom settings, Gass, Mackey and Ross-Feldman (2005) conducted a comparative study looking at task-based interaction in both laboratory and classroom contexts. In a university-level Spanish course, student performances in three different tasks situation were analysed using quantitative measures. Students' interactions were audio-recorded and coded for recasts, language-related episodes (where students discuss linguistics form) and instances of negotiation (including comprehension and confirmation checks and repetition requests). Their findings produced no significant difference between both settings, and they attributed the learner talk frequency to the task itself, arguing that output opportunities are tied to the demands of the task. Nonetheless, the current study argues that the decontextualised research setting may involve the risk of an increased learner awareness of linguistic form.

A further focus of the interaction approach is on learners' verbal production in reaction to teacher feedback, referred to as "uptake" in classroom research (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Lyster, 1998; Polio Gass, & Chapin, 2006). Thus, studies looked at the relationship between recast and uptake. However, those studies were more oriented toward investigating teacher feedback strategies (e.g., Lyster 1998; Polio et al., 2006) and only turned to learner output to look for evidence for the efficacy of teacher feedback. The focus on the teacher again prioritizes the role of input to make the form noticed. Although these studies provide invaluable findings on the importance of teacher feedback, the focus remains on teacher talk.

So far, the role of interaction has been discussed from a cognitive-interactionist perspective that approached spoken interaction on a spectrum from reception to production. Thus, it was either seen as the source of "input" (Krashen, 1982) at one end or as "output" (Swain, 1985) at the other end of the spectrum. Although the SLA theories provide convergent evidence on the critical role of interaction underscoring the linguistic and socio-cognitive benefits in L2 learning, the reliance on the cognitive approach resulted in what Breen (1985) described as neglect of "the social reality of language learning as it is experienced and created by teachers and learners" (p. 141).

As Purpura (2004) also suggests, mastering linguistic items does not guarantee the ability to interact in the L2 to convey meaning. Instead, it requires learners to accomplish a variety of social actions at talk-in-interactions, such as participating in social interactions, producing and formatting actions at talk, taking and formatting turns-at-talk in an organized fashion, constructing epistemic stance, and recognising boundaries of activities at hand. (Kasper, 2006, p. 86). Therefore, while accepting the role of cognitive processes in learning an L2, the current study aims to investigate student participation in their local interactional context in naturalistic settings, drawing on the role of interaction as primary in learning.

Firth and Wagner (1997, 2007) also countered the interactionist perspective that 'acquisition' and 'use' are different concepts. They asserted that L2 learning is situated and occurs in the micro-moments of social interaction and cannot be separated from its *use*. Another common theme in the studies cited above is the view of learners as "non-native speakers". This blanket term, according to them, reduces the learner to a single, static identity. The social view of language, on the other hand, positions learners with multiple identities "that afford different opportunities for language learning" (Ellis, 2010, p. 28). Thus, the following section focuses on the SCT as the main framework underpinning this current study.

3.3.3 Student participation within sociocultural theory

Based on the ideas of Vygotsky (1978, 1986), Sociocultural theory (hereafter SCT) proposes that cognitive development takes place in social interactions with others in individuals' social surroundings (Applefield, Huber, & Mahnaz, 2001; Davydov & Kerr, 1995; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Within that regard, it differs from other theories in its stance that social interaction becomes the site and source of development of individuals. According to SCT, individuals employ tools and signs,

including language, to mediate knowledge construction. Thus, the focus is on the mediative role of social interaction in individuals' social and cognitive development. This view of learning considers interaction as a mediated developmental process, highlighting the importance of participation in culturally organised activities. Furthermore, in Vygotsky's terms, the social environment plays a central role in shaping and modifying the artefacts, including language (Vygotsky, 1986). Therefore, SCT analyses learning in its social and cultural context and refrains from treating the learning or the learner in isolation.

The SCT has been highly influential in language education, and scholars have taken up its key concepts. The following section will introduce some key constructs of the theory relevant to the current study: mediated activity, internalisation and the ZPD.

Mediation

The theory centres around the key concept that human learning is mediated by symbolic mediational means or physical tools. Individuals use tools and signs to mediate their relationships with the surrounding environment, including people and the physical world. Vygotsky (1978) makes a distinction between tools and signs. Tools involve physical objects such as books and worksheets, whereas signs encompass symbolic artefacts such as charts, numbers, arithmetic, and, most importantly, language. Individuals "appropriate and deploy signs to organise and control their own and others' social as well as mental activity" (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008, p. 7). Language is regarded as a tool that regulates mental activities and forms of thinking (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). Humans use language to maintain their relationships with others and participate in various social practices. From this perspective, language has a critical role in individuals' social and cognitive growth and is used to actively construct meanings. In the case of an L2 classroom, language is of greater importance for L2 development because it becomes both object and means of the study (Seedhouse, 2004b). Given that the talk in social interaction becomes the "catalysts for knowledge acquisition" (Applefield et al., 2001, p. 38), student participation becomes both the site and mediating factor in learning. Particularly, by self-selecting themselves as the next speaker to initiate an action in classroom interaction, students create opportunities that mediate learning, which forms the conceptual basis of this study.

Internalization

Another key concept is internalisation. According to SCT, learning (development) occurs through individuals' joint-collective activity with others (Davydov & Kerr, 1995), stimulating an independent thinking process. Learning can be internalised only after engaging in activities through social interaction. Vygotsky (1987) wrote:

> to talk about a process as "external" means to talk about it as "social." Every higher psychological function was external because it was social before it became an internal, individual psychological function: it was formerly a social relationship between two people. (as cited in Davydov & Kerr 1995, p. 16)

In other words, development occurs in two phases, first on the social, collective plane and then on the inner plane. As such, "the true direction of the development of thinking is not from the individual to the social, but from the social to the individual" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 38). The process entails the individuals reproducing and transforming the culturally constructed ways of thinking. Language plays a formative role in this process of intellectual development.

The theory also rejects that speaking and thinking are two independently operating systems. Instead, it relies on the dialectic unity of thinking and speaking proposing that they, although not identical, have an interdependent relationship that triggers a struggle for development (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). The relationship between thought and language is, thus, becomes prominent. Tharpe and Gallimore (1988) argued that encouraging student participation in extended discourse is paramount because they construct the thinking process and create new ways of thinking through their extended talk. From this perspective, student participation in mediated interaction is indispensable because, through this interaction, decisions are made collectively towards specific pedagogical goals and objectives. For example, students' decisions to ask questions influence the way the participants handle classroom discourse. Thus, learning is conceptualised as a process through participation (Donato, 2000). In this regard, analysing student participation in micro-moments of social interaction is necessary because "speaking, and by extension, the turn-taking system, is directly tied to teaching-learning activity and developmental processes that occur in the classroom." (Dolce & van Compernolle, 2020, p. 83). In the same way, to understand student participation in the classroom, one needs to look into "the moment-to-moment (i.e., turn-by-turn) opportunities made available for that participation" (Lerner, 1995, p. 112). Therefore, it

is necessary to investigate students' ways of creating participation opportunities to enter classroom discourse on a moment-by-moment basis, which is the main focus of this study.

The zone of proximal development

A further prominent concept derived from Vygotsky's sociocultural theory is the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) defines it as "the distance between the actual development level as determined by the independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers." (p. 89). Simply put, it is the difference between what an individual can achieve on their own and what they can potentially achieve with the assistance of more competent individuals. The definition relies on the view that learning and development are not independent but interrelated constructs and rejects the view of learning as a product.

The concept of ZPD resembles Krashen's i+1 equation for input which considers the interlanguage stage of the learners; however, they differ in many respects. First, the ZPD captures the dynamic relationship between participants and their actions in their situated context. In the input hypothesis, the interaction is viewed as the transmission of target language forms from a more proficient speaker of the language to learners; hence, it lacks an interactive nature that the ZPD targets to achieve through collaborative interaction. The ZPD creates "a potential for learning that is created in the interaction between participants in particular setting" (Wells, 1998, p. 345). Thus, the interaction within the ZPD is prioritised over task completion.

The ZDP is where the mediation occurs (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). From this perspective, in classrooms, knowledge is constructed mutually through social interaction where learners work collaboratively, sharing, constantly comparing, and discussing. Thus, students' learning is mediated within this collective ZPD setting. The idea of the ZPD is that the learners should be assisted in developing an understanding of the concepts and necessary skills to participate in activities until they can exercise these skills independently (Applefield et al., 2001). Therefore, the process requires students' active involvement by bringing their contributions (Davydov & Kerr, 1995). They need to engage in a dynamic questioning process to solve the problems, benefit from their existing knowledge, assess the consistency of prior and new learning and experiences, and accommodate the new knowledge based on what they already know. In this regard, the student is the intellectually generative individual of the knowledge construction

process, one that builds and transforms the knowledge, not empty vessels waiting to be filled (Yilmaz, 2008). This approach is very in line with this study's main argument that through their self-initiated participation, students can creates opportunities for learning by increasing control over their learning activities, contributing the process of knowledge construction. Thus, this conceptualisation of learning through mediated activity highlights the significant role of student participation.

Having noted that SCT regards social interaction as critical for the cognitive growth of individuals, the following section reviews studies conducted from SCT perspective.

3.3.4 Empirical studies within the sociocultural approach

The social view of language led to a change in some researchers' approaches to conceptualizing L2 learning. Unlike cognitivist SLA, this group chose the umbrella term "learning" over "acquisition", which, according to Firth and Wagner (2007), allows for different interpretations of the L2 development process. One way they did this was by applying the sociocultural theory, which "focalizes learning-in-and-through-interaction" (Firth & Wagner, 2007, p. 807), emphasising the process rather than the product. The sociocultural theory also investigates learning as situated in the context, as Donato (2000) asserts: "learning unfolds in different ways under different circumstances" (p. 47). Within SCT, interaction is argued to facilitate learning and empowers the capacity that the brain has (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). Conceptualizing L2 learning from this perspective has paved the way for extensive research focusing on the importance of social interaction in L2 development (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). This section only presents a short review of studies that have adopted the key concepts of SCT to explore classroom interaction in language learning contexts.

Some research investigated the scaffolded assistance from teachers (e.g., Antón, 1999; Donato, 2000; Takeuchi, 2015), while others focused on the collaborative dialogue that mediates learning (Donato, 1994; van Compernolle, 2010; van Compernolle & Williams, 2013). For instance, Antón (1999) investigated learner-teacher interaction, displaying the differences between student-centred and teacher-centred discourse. In French and Italian classrooms with adult learners, she showed how student-centred discourse is characterized by active student involvement, contrasting with teacher-centred discourse treating learners as passive recipients despite a well-prepared teacher plan. Although the comparative results showed how dialogue served as a vehicle to achieve the functions of scaffolding, the study was fixated on the role of the teacher in scaffolding the student.

46

Moreover, the examples of classroom talk from her data provide typical IRF participation structures in which the teachers' evaluation moves were framed as instances of ZPD. Kinginger (2002) also counters the IRF-based interpretation of the ZPD, arguing that they are placed in an interactionally restrictive environment: "students are invited to participate and even to share the floor, but they are not authorized to question what they are accomplishing and why" (p. 255).

Other studies (e.g., Foster & Ohta, 2005; van Compernolle & Williams, 2013) suggested that not only teachers but learners can also provide scaffolds, supporting each other and creating a collaborative dialogue in the target language. These studies moved the focus from the expert to the learners who could display a higher ability to shape and lead the discourse through various means. Foster and Ohta's (2005) study is particularly interesting as they provided a comparative approach to data analysis, analysing the same data quantitatively from a cognitive perspective and qualitatively from a sociocultural perspective. The study focused on learner-learner interactions among Japanese and English learners whose levels ranged from low to intermediate. The findings offered insights in various ways. First, a scarcity of negotiation of meaning was reported. Unlike cognitive tradition, the study did not attribute this to the task type (information exchange task in this case) because the qualitative analysis showed that learners received and gave assistance in several different ways, working collaboratively and displaying sensitivity to their needs even without an overt sign of communication breakdown. Thus the study showed that negotiation of meaning is just one way of promoting L2 development and suggested that learners could focus on form with a less cognitive load without the burden of a communication problem.

Research has also presented the metalinguistic function of language use as an extension of the ZPD where learners discuss linguistic forms (e.g., Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2002; Swain et al., 2009; Watanabe & Swain, 2007). This line of inquiry has been labelled as "languaging" (Swain & Lapkin, 2002, 2013) or "collaborative dialogue" (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). In this collaborative dialogue, "speakers are engaged in problem-solving and knowledge building" (Swain, 2000, p. 102). Drawing on the concept of mediation, these studies highlighted the mediative role of language to refer to its functions, such as using language to organize thoughts and developing higher mental skills (Swain & Lapkin, 2002). The research suggested that languaging leads learners to notice linguistic items and expand the depth of their understanding of grammatical structures (Swain &

Lapkin, 2002; Swain et al., 2009) and their ability to correctly use them in their subsequent performances (Donato, 1994). However, it has to be noted that students' interaction was in L1 in some studies. According to Swain and Lapkin (2013), L1 is the most powerful semiotic tool culturally familiar to students. Thus, it should allow students to develop their grammatical understanding of L2.

Studies also expanded the concept of participation encompassing multimodal resources that the learners deployed (van Compernolle & Williams, 2013). For instance, a study by van Compernolle and Williams (2013) focused on embodied participation of a single student in small group interaction and suggested that individuals benefit from group interaction in a collective ZPD environment. Highlighting the embodied forms of participation (e.g., gaze direction, nodding) as a component of active participation, they demonstrated how the focal student's attention could be observed in her orientation to the solution of the problem at hand as the interaction unfolded. However, the study provided oral contribution as evidence for active reception by this focal student, which suggests that the learner's comprehension could only be observed by the analysis of talk. Nevertheless, one strength of this study is how the notion of participation was defined, extending the scope of active involvement to active reception. The current research accepts this broader scope of participation, yet the focus remains on the verbal participation of students while referring to the non-verbal conducts they deploy to establish floor for their speaking rights.

In this summary of the research within the SCT tradition, the goal was to highlight that development builds around dialogic mediation in which opportunities are created for and by participants to increasingly engage in socially constructed activities. In the following section, this argument is pursued within the conversation analytic (CA) research tradition and how this methodological approach can contribute to the social view of learning.

3.3.5 CA-for-SLA approach to researching classroom interaction

Classroom interaction research has provided invaluable contributions to our understanding of the organization of classroom interaction (discussed in Section 3.4). However, interaction research does not merely aim to describe the organizational structure of classroom interaction but, perhaps more importantly, to uncover how learning occurs in micro-moments. Seedhouse and Walsh (2010, p. 127) argue that "learning is embodied in interaction itself; any attempt to study learning, therefore, must begin by classroom interaction" and, in particular, "by focusing on the words and interactions of

learner" (Walsh, 2011, p. 188). An extensive body of research within conversation analysis has supported this view, which guided the current study.

Conversation analysis has been incorporated into SLA research to track how learning takes place in classrooms (Markee, 2000). Within CA, "learning is seen as a process embedded in socially accomplished practices" (Pekarek-Doehler, 2010, p. 106) and is referred to as learning-in-action (Firth & Wagner, 1997). However, research on reconceptualizing learning from a CA perspective is not without a problem and has divided the researcher into groups: purist CA and developmental CA tradition to SLA research (Gardner, 2019; Markee, 2008). They differ in their approach to integrating CA in the analysis of practices in language learning.

Purist CA tradition stays methodologically true to CA, adopting an emic theory perspective. With CA's practice of 'unmotivated looking' as the departure point, this group argue that CA should be utilised on its own terms. This line of research is often focused on key concepts from mainstream SLA research (i.e., input, output, negotiation of meaning.). Employing the tools and techniques of conversation analytic methodology, it aims to analyse how talk-in-interaction shapes or contributes to the study of second language learning (Mori & Markee, 2009). Purist CA research adopts an agnostic approach and focuses on learning only when there is observable participant orientation to learning items or practices in interaction.

This CA approach to SLA tradition (Jenks, 2010; Kunitz, 2018; Kunitz & Marian, 2017; Markee, 2015; Markee & Kunitz, 2013, 2015; Mori & Markee, 2009) has been critiqued by some researchers (e.g., He, 2004). They argued that CA does not provide a theory of learning and is not compatible with investigating it. Others criticized CA for its questionable ability to examine psycholinguistic and cognitive processes asserting that CA is a behavioural science (e.g., Long, 1997; He, 2004; Hall, 2004). In the 2004 issue of The Modern Language Journal (MLJ), the split between researchers becomes evident, and some studies are discussed below.

Motivated by pedagogical concerns in her selection of a single case in a Japanese classroom at a university, Mori (2004) also employed conversation analytic methodology to analyse learner-learner interaction. Mori does not make any claims on the issue of CA and learning but only asserts that her study provides a window to the complex organization of classroom interaction. She showed how two students in a pair-work moved back and forth between task and word searches while assisting each other and

collaboratively constructing understanding. The students displayed diverging orientations towards different learning items at varying moments by extending the already closed sequences of talk. The study suggests that those shifts of focus between different actions might be moments of learning and describes the critical moments of negotiations as learning opportunities while acknowledging that this motivated look compromises the agnostic position of CA's unmotivated-looking practice.

Markee (2008) suggests that CA can demonstrate behaviours as "moments of socially distributed cognition" (p. 409), proposing a procedure, which he calls Learning Behaviour Tracking (LBT) to track observable sets of practices and actions. LBT involves two discrete techniques: learning object tracking and learning process tracking. The former refers to documenting a learning object during a specified period, whereas the latter involves using CA to show how participants engage in language learning behaviour. In his analysis of learning process tracking, Markee focuses on individual learning items, the word "prerequisite", and shows how a Japanese learner in an ESP class in the USA incorporated this vocabulary item into his L2 knowledge. Through his analysis, he argues that this methodology allows for the application of CA without compromising its emic approach.

In the same issue of MLJ, Hall (2004) argued that "classroom interaction is not one generic type of discourse, but, instead, is a constellation of complex, interactionally intricate practice" (p. 608). To Hall, CA provides a window to see these "intricately accomplished details of classroom talk" and thus allows for a better understanding of the interactional organization of classroom discourse. He went on to assert that social interaction does not merely "provide opportunities for guiding an otherwise internally driven process." (p. 609); instead, it shapes the context of learning and the learning itself. Although Hall (2004) sides with the view that CA can be more than a tool to analyse social interaction and be a theoretical approach of its own, she does not elaborate on how it can be done.

On the other hand, some cognitivist SLA researchers sceptically approach CA's use as an empirical methodology to study L2 learning. For example, Long (1997) asserted that:

> The result of a communicative experience or input does not evaporate when the learner leaves the room or when the learner goes to sleep at night; it remains, memory permitting, in the form of a modified, individual, partly idiosyncratic, internal mental representation of the L2. (p. 319)

CA researchers reject this cognitivist-only position and argue that learning is anchored in social interaction while also accepting the individualistic cognitive understanding of the mind (Markee, 2008; Pekarek-Doehler, 2010;). Pekarek-Doehler (2010) asserts, challenging Long's view: "cognition is not tucked away in a black box but is deployed and made publicly available in interaction" (p. 108). Thus, interaction becomes the very site itself where learning can be found.

While those CA researchers insist on the utility of CA as more than a research methodology in SLA research, they also argue for the viability of CA methodology to document constructs such as attention, planning, and noticing that are accepted as psycholinguistic processes in cognitive SLA tradition (Kunitz, 2018; Kunitz & Marian, 2017; Markee & Kunitz, 2013, 2015). For instance, while accepting that it is a mental construct, Markee and Kunitz (2013) have shown that 'planning' is a socially observable behaviour through participants' observable bodily orientations to the practices (e.g., gaze, body position, gesture). Analysing a corpus of 3-hour data collected from an Italian as a foreign language classroom, they showed that word and grammar searches by students are manifested as socially observable planning practices. Similarly, Kunitz and Marian (2017) used Markee's (2008) learning tracking behaviour technique to track a learning item, the spelling of the word "disgusting", in group work with learners of English as a foreign language in a Swedish junior high school context. They showed how three students' observable orientation to a learning problem as a word's spelling emerges as a trouble source during the rehearsal phase of a presentation task as they are engaged in the planning phase.

Others have accepted the criticism that CA cannot theorize learning independently and thus turned to exogenous theories of learning such as language socialization or sociocultural theory (Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004; Seedhouse, 2005; Young & Miller, 2004). For this theory-driven approach, "learning is an observable set of practices and actions deployed in social interaction" (Jenks, 2010, p. 150), and CA is an analytical lens whose powerful tools and techniques allow for the investigation of these actions in social interaction.

In the same issue of MLJ, Mondada and Pekarek-Doehler (2004) take on what they call "a strong socio-interactionist" position, which relies on both sociocultural theory and CA. Viewing learning as situated practice and interaction as the "basic site of experience" (Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004, p. 502), where learning can occur, they assert that

learning processes need to be investigated within the context of routine classroom activities. They argue that CA complements sociocultural theory in exploring how participants accomplish actions, including learning in their interactional context. Positioning learners as active constructors of knowledge, they view learning as contingent on student participation: "language learning is rooted in learners' participation in organizing talk-in-interaction, structuring participation frameworks, configuring discourse tasks, interactionally defining identities, and becoming competent members of the community" (p. 504).

Seedhouse (2004a) argued that CA could be used to demonstrate the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction and hence learning and asserts that CA gives access to socially distributed language learning processes. However, in his subsequent publication, Seedhouse (2005) cautions against the utility of CA as a theory of learning and regards it as a research methodology. Similarly, He (2004) argues that CA investigating interaction would not lead to a grounded construction of learning because "CA is not a learning theory and thus is not designed to document language acquisition, which entails the use of language information/skills for problem-solving and change in behaviour over a considerable period of time" (p. 579). He asserts that CA is an empirical research methodology and can only analyse classroom talk. Its analysis ability then helps understand how classroom interactional patterns influence student participation in various learning contexts. Taking a similar position, Waring (2008) also argued that conversation analysis is not equipped to discover learning that she defines as participation within the sociocultural theory. She asserts that CA can "detail the instructional practices that either create or inhibit the opportunities for participation…and, by extension, the opportunities for learning" (p. 577).

To sum, this section provides the differing positions taken by the researchers who have employed CA in their quest to demonstrate learning in the socially accomplished interactional practices and courses of action occurring in classroom interaction. Agreeing with the stance that CA does not theorize learning but is capable of demonstrating observable behaviours of learners, the current study also combines sociocultural theory and CA. SCT provides a theoretical framework that informs the decision to examine participation in language classrooms, defining learning as a developmental process through participation in social interaction. CA is utilised as a research methodology that provides analytical methods with sophisticated tools and techniques for data collection

and analysis. Such an approach does not underestimate the role of individual capacities or mind but rather highlights their context-dependent and usage-sensitive nature. The rationale for CA as a methodological tool will be further discussed in Chapter 4.

3.4 Classroom interaction: Key aspects

This section presents a historical synopsis of classroom interaction research to understand its structure and organization and locate the current study within this line of research. However, the classroom interaction research is extensive and cannot be covered wholly. Therefore, this section will only present the research on turn-taking and sequence organisation, which are inherently tied to participation structures as the primary foci of this research.

3.4.1 An overview of classroom interaction research

Extensive research in classroom interaction has established generic mechanisms of classroom interaction and revealed its key features relying on various theoretical and methodological stances, including Interaction Analysis (e.g., Flanders, 1970), Discourse Analysis (e.g., Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), Conversation Analysis (e.g., Seedhouse, 2004c, Markee, 2008). Recently, mixed methods and new methodologies such as Corpus Linguistic have also been employed to analyse classroom discourse.

The majority of earlier seminal research is characterised by their focus on teachers' interactional behaviour to investigate classroom discourse, mostly employing Interaction Analysis or Discourse Analysis (Bellack et al., 1966; Barnes, 1969; Cazden, 1988; Fanselow, 1977; Flanders, 1960; Mehan, 1979). Their findings have established the dominance of a unique triadic exchange pattern, i.e., IRF, in classrooms. Drawing on discourse analysis, Bellack et al. (1966) proposed a structure that consisted of a sequence of moves as the lowest unit of classroom discourse. The move was defined in discourse terms and consisted of four types, each with various functions in their context: soliciting (to elicit a response from students), responding (which is bound to occur in relation to teacher solicit), structuring (to set the context for next move), and reacting (to provide feedback). The same moves were later observed more systematically by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in primary school classrooms in the UK. Their findings showed that classroom talk was dominated by teacher talk moves in the IRF pattern due to the scarcity of student participation. In this minimal size of three-turn sequence, the teacher holds the first position for initiation (I) to put forward a question and the third position to provide

feedback (F), usually in praise or error correction. The students predominantly hold the second position to respond to questions (R). The identified IRF pattern described the interactional behaviour of the teacher. Nevertheless, there were only two patterns where students held the I (initiation) position to either "elicit" or "inform", and hence the patterns that emerged were: IR and IF. The elicitation moves were mostly considered unimportant as they were related to their needs or clarification requests for procedural problems, which did not warrant a feedback move. When they wanted to provide information, however, the teacher only needed to evaluate the worth of the information provided. The R (response) move was not investigated in detail; on the contrary, the R position was described as bounded by teacher control and hence defined in their relation to the teacher move.

A similar pattern of the same triadic exchange structure was proposed by Mehan (1979). Likewise, this pattern starts with a teacher initiation (I) which is followed by student response (R) and ends with an evaluation move (E), where the teacher provides an assessment for student response. Similar to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), this study was also conducted in elementary classrooms. However, it differs from others in the sense that it attributed students a more prominent role as active members of the classroom; as Mehan puts it: "students not only are influenced by the teacher, they influence the teacher in turn" (1979, p. 78). Nevertheless, the student's role was rendered to comply with the teacher's initiating moves.

The findings of these seminal works (Bellack et al., 1966; Barnes, 1969; Cazden, 1988; Fanselow, 1977; Flanders, 1960; Mchoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) might be interpreted in relation to factors such as the age of pupils who are considered to be in a stage where their interactional competence is gradually improving. In a setting where the participants are adults, teachers' handling of interactional rights is highly likely to differ. Since the current study's target population is adult learners at the tertiary level, the turn-taking system is bound to display differences from those studies as adults are considered to have developed interactional skills relevant to participating in classroom interaction by the time of their university education (Gardner, 2012). Moreover, these studies reflect a period of almost 50 years ago when the teacher-centred approach and hence strict teacher control over classroom interaction was dominant. However, these works have also formed the basis for the research into interaction in language learning and teaching, which is the focus in the below sub-section 3.4.2.

3.4.2 Interactional organisation of L2 classrooms

Later studies within conversation analytic methodology (Seedhouse, 1996, 1999, 2004a; Markee, 2004; Walsh, 2002) have revealed a more fluid and complex nature of classroom interaction and proposed that IRF structure is insufficient to reflect the complexity of classroom interaction (Seedhouse, 2004a). Their findings have revealed some features that make L2 classroom interaction distinctive in many aspects from mainstream classrooms. First, the interaction in language classrooms differs in form and function because language is both means and goal of instruction (Hall & Walsh, 2002), increasing the complexity further. Seedhouse (2009) describes this as "a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction" (p. 2). Thus, students are expected to develop skills and the ability to meet the demands of the complex L2 classroom, and this ability is called the construct of classroom interactional competence (Walsh, 2006).

Nevertheless, the pattern initially identified in mainstream classrooms where English was L1 and the medium of instruction was subsequently documented in language classrooms, including ESL and EFL settings (e.g., van Lier, 1988; Seedhouse, 1996, 2004a; Boulima, 1999). Despite the popularity and orthodoxy of communicative language teaching approaches, studies documented fewer opportunities for genuine interactions and pervasive use of IRF triadic exchange (e.g., Boulima, 1999; van Lier, 1988; Walsh, 2002, 2006). Such dominancy of IRF patterns has been shown to limit complex language use and constrain students' opportunities to develop interactional and linguistic skills (Kasper, 2001; Walsh, 2012).

As a result, much of the research has focused on the IRF pattern to investigate the ways teachers constrain or promote student participation (e.g., Lee, 2007; Park, 2014; Waring, 2008). These studies investigated the teacher's third turn position (Feedback) in the triadic pattern. Using conversation analysis to investigate teacher repetition in the third position in an ESL classroom, for instance, Park (2014) showed that teacher repeats facilitate a smooth interaction by helping the students move the interaction forward. Waring (2008), on the other hand, showed that teachers' explicit positive assessments in the third position within certain contexts treat learners' responses as preferred and conclusive. She argued that these assessments might be pedagogically dispreferred because they tend to limit the opportunities for articulating understanding problems or exploring other alternatives.

In addition to the sequence organisation of L2 classrooms, studies also investigated how turn-taking practices are tied to student participation and hence influence the way students

structure their participation. The below section addresses this issue, focusing on students' participation rights.

3.4.3 Turn-taking mechanism in classroom interaction

Turn-taking in classrooms is a real interactional accomplishment, which "shape(s) the opportunities for action and participation" (Mondada, 2013, p. 40), and thus understanding students' turn-taking practices is fundamental to investigating student participation. Seminal work on turn-taking organisation in mundane interaction by Sacks et al. (1974) established the basis of our understanding of conversational turn-taking. Sacks et al. (1974) identified two turn-allocation techniques: current-selects-next and self-selection. These two basic turn-taking rules operate to manage turn distributions in mundane conversations. Rule one involves the current speaker selecting the next speaker explicitly or tacitly (Schegloff, 2007), commonly observed in classrooms as teachers nominate students, which will be discussed further below. When the current speaker's turn does not involve a next-speaker selection technique, and a participant wants to step in and take the floor at a legitimate point during the interaction, it means that the participant performs the act of self-selection. Finally, the current speaker can go on with his turn if there is no voluntary speaker or assigned turn. See Chapter 4, Section 4.5.2 for further details.

The organisation of turn-taking mechanisms in institutional contexts such as educational settings differ from casual conversations (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage, 2005). The rules in classrooms are shaped by institutional roles and pedagogical goals (Gardner, 2012). Studies have presented a constrained turn-taking mechanism in classrooms compared to mundane talks (McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979; van Lier, 1988; Walsh, 2002, 2006;). The interaction that flows in the classroom is based on one-floor law, which means that overwhelmingly one speaker can speak at a time to prevent interruptions, overlaps, and undisciplined communicative behaviours (van Lier, 1988). Control of turn allocations is usually attributed to teachers. This position provides teachers to exploit mostly the first technique of turn allocation, namely current-selects-next, either by individual nomination or invitation to bid. However, this technique cannot be used by students as freely as teachers. Students overwhelmingly select the teacher as the next speaker, not another student. Teachers are again in a better position than learners when they want to continue their turn if that is their preference. For instance, McHoul's (1978) study showed that teachers had intra-turn pauses at whatever length they wanted without

worrying about losing their turn to someone else in the classroom. Students may not have that peace of mind since other parties may interpret these pauses as turn-transition junctures.

As for the self-selection technique (also known as learner initiatives), there remain major inequalities in terms of exercising self-selection between teachers and learners. As noted above, earlier studies showed that the speaker selection was in the teacher's control and pinpointed the minimality of turn-taking action because of the dominance of teacher talk over the classroom discourse (Mehan, 1979; Mehan & Griffin, 1980; Van Lier, 1988; Sahlström, 2002; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). According to these studies, formal participation structure depended on the pre-allocated turn-taking mechanism, which then defined participation rights. For instance, analysing the formal turn-taking structure in Australian primary classrooms within conversation analytic methodology McHoul (1978) observed that "only teachers can direct speakership in any creative way" (p.188) and "no other parties other than teachers have the right to self-select as first starters" (p. 192).

In terms of distribution of participation rights, Mehan (1979) pointed out that the student's role involved more than occupying a replier position and recognised the rights of students as initiators of communication. As evidence of this influence, he reported that around 18% of student-initiated sequences in which students held the I (initiation) position that is not designed to respond. Nevertheless, their speaking rights were subjected to constraints and scrutiny by the teacher, and students' initiations could be incorporated if only they were considered legitimate. To make a legitimate contribution, students should achieve "getting the floor", "holding the floor", and "introducing news". Mehan goes on to state that "the appropriate juncture for a student to gain access to the floor is after an initiation-reply-evaluation sequence, not after any speaker turn" (p. 140). Violation of this rule mostly resulted in teacher sanctions in the form of rejection, reprimand, ignoring, and rarely incorporated when the teacher needed a reply to move on or "get through the rough spots" (p. 112). Similarly, Mehan and Griffin (1980) noted learner initiation moves between IRF sequences, which is considered a legitimate interactional space for a student to take a turn in response to a teacher question.

More recent research (Garton, 2012; Jacknick, 2011; Seedhouse, 2004b; Waring, 2011) shows the prevailing control of teachers on turn-taking mechanisms and that the dominancy of IRF has not disappeared. Yet, they have described a more complex turn-taking system. Arguing that interaction is shaped by and oriented to pedagogical goals,

Seedhouse (1999, 2004b), for instance, described different interactional contexts where various patterns can occur. He has identified different turn-taking practices in pedagogically defined contexts, including form and accuracy-focused contexts, meaning and fluency-focused contexts, and task-oriented contexts. For example, in a fluency-based context, turns are loosely managed, whereas form-focused context might involve strict management of turn-taking.

Research within conversation analysis methodology provided compelling evidence that turn-taking organisation is not under rigid teacher control; instead, teacher's turn allocation results from participants' collaborative efforts (Fasel Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Kääntä, 2012; Lee, 2017; Mortensen, 2008). For instance, Fasel Lauzon and Berger (2015) have also provided compelling evidence that turn-allocation results from participants' collaborative efforts, which is contrary to the consensus regarding the rigid teacher control on turn-taking practices. Focusing on the temporal unfolding of the talk, including verbal or non-verbal conducts, the study analysed interactions recorded in high-school French-as-a-foreign-language classrooms in German-speaking Switzerland and identified the cases in which students either displayed availability or unavailability to take a turn. For example, they manifested unavailability by gazing away, leading the teacher to not choose them.

Some scholars have focused on how learners secure rights by employing both semiotic and non-linguistic resources to participate in multiparty classroom discourse, which involves competing voices (Waring, 2013a). Summoning teachers by using titles such as 'teacher', 'sir', 'miss' or by their names (Cekaite, 2008) and launching a pre-expansion sequence (e.g., Can I ask a question?) (Waring, 2011) are among semiotic resources. A pre-expansion sequence is a preparation act to establish their speakership and secure recipiency. Taking a turn without a pre-expansion is also frequent and usually involves turn-initial tokens employed to enter a talk (e.g., actually, uh, mm, so, well, but). They are designed in a way that projects the intent of talk or that there is more to come (Schegloff, 1973). They are called "turn entry devices or pre-starts" (Sacks et al., 1974, p. 719). It is crucial to achieving speakership status and thereby assigning the recipient status to other parties because once speakership status is accomplished, the other speaker parties display their listenership through verbal and multimodal resources (Hauser, 2009; Rossano, Brown & Levinson, 2009).

The studies (Fasel Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Kääntä, 2012; Lee, 2017; Mortensen, 2008) also focused on the multimodal resources that parties are oriented to when it comes to turn-taking and turn-allocation. These studies also showed that the turn allocation instances involve negotiation between student and teacher, which indicates a degree of students' control over whom the teacher selects as the next speaker employing multimodal resources. Kääntä (2012), for instance, showed that teachers choose those who hold a mutual gaze with them. Similarly, Lee's (2017) study also highlights those students were involved in a series of embodied social processes to show their willingness to take a turn. Looking at turn-taking and allocation strategies the students employed in small-group interactions in an EAP classroom at university settings, the study found that students made their availability visible through visual, gestural, and bodily resources, which projected change in their participation framework.

While much of the studies mentioned above have mainly focused on describing teacher turn-allocation mechanisms and their role in classroom discourse, the role of students has been peripheral to the investigation. Only recently, there has been an increasing interest in the ways that students exploit turn-taking practices to participate in classroom interaction. The following section reviews this line of research focusing on self-selection practice.

3.5 Research on student-initiated participation

There is a small number of studies on student-initiated sequences (i.e., self-selection as the unit of analysis) conducted either in EFL or ESL settings (Duran & Sert, 2021; Garton, 2012; Greer, 2016; Jacknick, 2009; Waring, 2009, 2011; Waring et al., 2016; Ziegler et al., 2012) and mainstream classes (Åberg, 2017; Clarke et al., 2016; Maloch & Beutel, 2010; Shepherd, 2012; St. John & Cromdal, 2016). The current section introduces this cohort of research that has contributed to the conceptualization of student-initiated participation.

Some studies defined student-initiated sequences, also known as learner initiatives, depending on two primary conditions: (1) either the learner self-selects a turn without an intention to respond to teacher elicitation, (2) or the learner's contribution receives uptake from the teacher or possibly from other learners (Garton, 2012). Yet, this definition leaves out the cases where students self-select to volunteer a response. van Lier (1988) analysed teacher-student interactions turn-by-turn within dyads and groups, expanded the scope of

learner initiative, and included cases when students are called on to respond to a teacher question.

Other studies (e.g. Jacknick, 2009; Sert, 2017; Waring, 2011), which overwhelmingly employed a conversation analytic methodology, have involved cases where students self-select with or without a teacher prompt. These studies have characterized student-initiated participation in several ways: asking questions, requesting clarification, confirmation and repetition (Garton, 2012), and volunteering for a response (Jacknick, 2009; Waring, 2011). These identified actions emphasize students' orientation to learning practices. Another study by Jacknick (2009), which focused on teacher-fronted activities in an advanced adult ESL classroom in a language school in the United States, described student initiatives on a continuum of ease of self-selection. The initiations projected by the prior turn are placed on the easier end of the continuum, while unsolicited student initiations are regarded as more difficult since they are not projected.

Using a conversation analytic methodology to analyse 14-hour videotaped classroom data in an ESL setting, Waring (2011) identified three types of student initiatives that students exercise to stretch their participation span: types A, B and C, which learners exercised. Type A refers to an unsolicited self-selected student turn to initiate a sequence. The student self-selects, for instance, to ask a question that is not projected by a prior turn. Type B occurs in two forms: the first is when a student self-selects to respond to the teacher's elicitation, which is called the 'step in'. The other form is 'activate source' to refer to a student's self-selection to offer a response without an invitation. Type C involves two groups: 'piggyback' and 'offer the unfit'. The former is when a student exploits an assigned turn to extend their talk, and the latter refers to when a student initiates an insertion sequence which is not suited to the talk's orderly nature. In terms of analytical focus and method to analyse classroom discourse, the current research is the closest to Waring (2011)'s study. However, the context and sample participants in this study differ from Waring's. Therefore, the current study's contribution derives from the fact that it focuses on students studying at universities where taking initiative is highly valued and encouraged at the policy level (Jääskelä et al., 2015; Klemenčič, 2015). In addition, the current study extends the focus of analysis by investigating students' sense of agency and willingness, using the interview as a data collection method.

Additionally, although these studies have established the critical role of student-initiated participation, highlighting that they help increase overall interaction productivity, they

overwhelmingly focused on teacher-fronted occasions with a rigid teacher control on turn-taking. In contrast, the current study aims to look at the same phenomenon on a continuum where floor-getting, namely, turn-taking accomplishment, occurs in interactions ranging from relatively loosely managed to highly managed forms. Thus, one goal is to present student-initiated participation in various EAP classrooms during whole-group interactions in which the interactions are beyond a merely teacher-student dialogue but a "multilogue" (Schwab, 2011, p. 7) with all the participants and encompass student-student interactions as well. The following section reports on the other research on student-initiated participation.

3.5.1 Previous research on student-initiated participation

Some studies have employed quantitative research methods within a discourse analytic frame (e.g., Chika, 2012; Reinders & Loewen, 2013; Shepherd, 2012). Those studies tended to quantify students' self-selections using predefined categories developed from teacher-centred classrooms. For instance, Boulima (1999) focused on interactive behaviours between teachers and students in the content classrooms in teacher-fronted settings (three Moroccan secondary schools), employing Foreign Language Interaction Analysis System, adapted from a study by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Utilising a mixed-method approach, the study quantified the occurrences of student-initiated negotiated interaction (i.e., negotiation of meaning) in twelve hours of recording and showed rare occurrences of student initiations. The findings revealed that teachers mainly control the classroom discourse with fewer student initiations compared to teacher initiations. Therefore, she concluded: "teachers exert the highest control over classroom talk in this grade" (p. 273). Yet, the findings come from a small-scale study limited to a specific context and focusing on one form of practice, i.e., negotiation of meaning initiated by students. Therefore, it leaves out the other possible ways students could initiate and make a difference in classroom discourse.

Observations and coding schemes are other standard methods of researching classroom interactions used in studies (e.g., Norris-Holt, 2005; King, 2013). They are based on categories created by the researchers, which are then quantified for analysis. These approaches (e.g., Bellack et al., 1966; Flanders, 1970) are frequently criticised due to their tendency to use pre-theorized and fixed categories that can lead the researcher to be inclined to match participants' utterances to these categories. Thus, they are argued to render the interactional features coded and quantified representations (ten Have, 2007).

A study that used coding schemes to label student-initiated participation is Norris-Holt (2005). The study quantified junior and senior high school students' levels of participation in English classes in Japan, focusing on the difference between the two age groups. Results of the observation scheme showed that junior students displayed more solicited and unsolicited participation in classroom activities than senior students. The study has also drawn attention to the variables underlying students' initiative actions by investigating their willingness to self-select in order to volunteer for a response.

More recent studies (e.g., Garton, 2012; Jacknick, 2009; Li, 2013; Sert, 2017; Waring, 2011) have mainly adopted qualitative measures. In particular, CA has been used frequently to investigate the student initiations in classroom discourse both in EFL and overwhelmingly ESL settings. These studies have focused on the interactional consequences of students' self-initiated sequences of talk and depicted a more complex student-initiated participation whereby learners created learning opportunities and displayed agency. For instance, Duran and Sert (2021) have shown that students launched questions to frame and contextualize the topics that were not latched on the prior discourse, and this way, they created learning opportunities for themselves. Similarly, Sert (2017) analysed 14-hour videotaped interactions collected from lessons in a secondary English classroom in Turkey to explore the link between learning opportunities and learner initiatives using a conversation analytic methodology. The analysis of self-selected turns during pre-watching activities showed how learners made deliberate efforts to expand their linguistic knowledge.

These student initiations have also been argued to display students' sense of agency as they expand their engagement in larger stretches of talk by doing more than required of them, influencing both their and others' learning. (Ahn, 2016; Clarke et al., 2016; Garton, 2012; Greer, 2016; Reinders & Loewen, 2013; Sert, 2017; Waring, 2009, 2011) In a study that explored a 2-hour videotaped language classroom interaction, Waring (2009) documented a case where a language learner moved out of strings of IRF patterns and re-established participation structure by initiating question sequences. The study shows how the student's departures from IRF can expand the roles and responsibilities the students take on and the possibilities of learning opportunities in classroom discourse. Likewise, an outside-classroom study by Greer (2016) offers insights into the ways learners develop interactional competence by launching post-expansion sequences by doing more than the task requirement. However, the data in this research is too small in size (11 min) with one

single focal student in two-party interactions. For that reason, it is difficult to make claims regarding the emergence of the same patterns in multi-party classroom discourse—furthermore, the transferability of the learning item into other interactional contexts.

These studies have considered students more autonomous and given prominence to their responsive actions to teachers' prompts, offering insights into the ways students impact classroom discourse. For example, in Ko's (2014) study, students' multiple responses (i.e., more than one student responds) to teacher questions served numerous functions: repeating a previous response, modifying or extending the previous turn, challenging each other, and co-constructing a response together. Thus, those responsive student actions are shown to display students' collaborative effort and joint orientation to learning practices. Similarly, Ahn (2016) conducted a conversation analytic investigation of agency in online language-exchange interactions between Korean and American language learners at the university level (Korean learners as learners of English, American learners as learners of Korean). Taking a sociocultural stance, the study showed how learners exploited affordances to create learning opportunities and displayed their agency by initiating a sequence to discuss linguistic forms and meaning.

Overall, the studies have compelling results that underscore the importance of student-initiated participation as a generator of different interactional patterns in language classrooms and have suggested pedagogical changes for democratising classroom discourse. Therefore, welcoming learner initiatives is paramount to allowing learners to exercise agentive behaviours (Fagan, 2012; Rainio, 2008; Sert, 2015; Waring, 2013b; Waring et al., 2016). For example, Sert (2015) argues that teachers' failing to handle learner-initiated turns resulted in losses of opportunities for their learning. Likewise, Fagan (2012) also provided evidence regarding the negative management of learners' self-selections in an ESL English classroom by the teacher who either glossed over/ignored learner contributions or provided answers in place of learners who were already invited to respond or initiated the topic themselves.

Whilst there has been a growing interest in student-initiated participation, i.e., learner initiatives, the reviewed studies have mainly centred around form-focused contexts in teacher-fronted classrooms. In addition, the focus has been mainly on general English classrooms in language centres at the secondary or high school level of education. Only recently, a few studies have shifted their attention to graduate-level (e.g., Takahashi, 2018) and undergraduate-level (Duran & Sert, 2021), where English is used as the

medium of instruction (EMI). However, to the researcher's knowledge, none of the above-cited studies focused on EAP classrooms at the tertiary level of education during whole-group interactions. Thus, a more detailed analysis of student-initiated participation is needed because these classrooms are sites where students develop a sense of agency as members of the academic community. The current study aims to fill this gap by focusing on a context that has remained under-researched. In addition, much of the research focus has been centred around the form-focused context in teacher-fronted classrooms, whereas this study differs in its attention to interactional contexts where turn-taking is loosely managed. Having reviewed the research under the rubric of classroom discourse, the following section turns to research regarding the other individual factors influential on students' participation.

3.6 Other factors affecting student-initiated participation

This section primarily addresses two interrelated constructs regarding student participation: their sense of agency and willingness to orally participate in classroom discourse. While exploring learners' turn-taking practices, self-selection, in particular, one cannot disregard their agency to fully understand the complex nature of classroom interaction and participation patterns. As agents of their learning, students also play a vital role in shaping the discourse (Larsen-Freeman, 2019). More specifically, by self-selecting themselves as the next speaker, they show their "will to act", which has often been linked to their agency (Larsen-Freeman, 2019; Vitanova et al., 2015).

It is proposed that agency is desire-driven (Duran, 2015), as in willingness to initiate communication, which is the act of self-selecting themselves as the next speaker in order to participate in classroom talk. When the learners have the desire or the will to act/initiate, they will self-select to partake in an interaction. Thus, as an enactment of their agency, students' willingness to initiate can be tracked in their act of self-selected turns, which is the unit of analysis in this study. Their willingness to initiate/communicate, more precisely to understand why students choose to contribute or remain silent, becomes an important question to be explored. Thus, this section's aim is twofold. First, it discusses the learner agency in relation to the practice of self-selection. Second, studies on students' willingness to communicate in classroom contexts are reviewed along with variables influential on their participation.

3.6.1 Student participation as an enactment of agency

In higher education settings, the goal is to achieve an agentive student profile who has "a combination of academic learning skills and self-control that makes learning easier, [….] in other words, they have the *skill* and *will* to learn" (Woolfolk et al., 2000, p. 384). However, agency is often considered to be in constant tension with the social structures that position individuals disempowered by their very existence (Lindgren & McDaniel, 2012). Educational institutions are social structures that dictate students to "construct who they are without their agentive involvement" (Bamberg, 2006, as cited in Block, 2015, p. 22). On the other hand, individuals wish to expand their freedom of action within those institutions and assert their identity. Thus, the dilemma between agency and control becomes a vital issue in classrooms. McNeil (1999) describes this dilemma as the contradiction of control. Problems emerge when promoting agency clashes with classroom management and curriculum requirements.

However, one should not lose sight of the fact that students are not passive receivers of discourse. As Miller (2014, p. 9) states, "being positioned as disempowered is not the same as having no agency". Students take up individuals' responses and populate them with their own words, making them active participants of discourse. Larsen-Freeman (2019) suggests that empowering learner agency within the structure of the educational institution is possible. It can be done by making room for agentive involvement whilst acknowledging that educational structure limits individuals. Learners' active participation is one form of learner agency, which shows their creative responses to the classroom discourse and their learning path. The learners may be more disadvantageous at exercising agency due to the classrooms' limiting social structure and the power dynamics that lead to "asymmetries of affordances" (Larsen-Freeman, 2019, p. 63).

Stevick's (1980) distinction between control and initiation in classrooms is of interest here in that it proposes that agency is manifested through the initiation of talk. Control is the teacher domain that manages two tasks: providing feedback and structuring the classroom activity. However, Stevick argued that students are not without agency and display agentive actions through their initiative acts, which refer to "decisions about who says what, to whom, and when" (1980, p. 17). Drawing on this definition of learner initiative, van Lier (2008) classified learner initiative into four domains: (1) topic selection, (2) selection to speak, (3) speaker allocation and determining activity, and (4) sequencing the talk and activity. Based on these domains, he examined various classroom

interactions and identified six learner attributes as forms of their agentive behaviours on a continuum ranging from passive to more agentic students: passive, obedient, participatory, inquisitive, autonomous, and committed.

One of the domains, selection to speak, which is of particular interest to this study, is attributed to such learner traits as participatory, inquisitive, autonomous, and committed. In his analysis of extracts from different classroom contexts, van Lier (2008) asserts that self-selection to respond to a teacher question requires an extra level of agency instead of learners' works of formulating the responses in their heads without saying anything. For that reason, in his "agentive ladder" (p. 169), learners' self-selections are placed higher on the continuum. Defining agency as the ability to make a difference with an initiative act (Hunter & Cooke, 2007; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001), studies approached students' self-selections as manifestations of their agency. This current study has also sided with this stance and investigates how learners exercise self-selections as displays of their agency in EAP classrooms and how they interpret their initiative actions.

The term agency has been described from various perspectives in multiple disciplines, including Applied Linguistics and has taken on many meanings. Some models of agency stress the relationship between individual and environment (e.g., Block, 2015), whereas some overemphasise the role of internal processes in exercising agency (Martin, 2004; Vitanova et al., 2015). Although a precise definition of the agency has proved elusive, the following sub-section defines the construct for research purposes whilst reviewing the proposed definitions of agency in the literature.

Defining Agency

The modernist view defines agency as "the capability of individual human beings to make choices and to act on these choices in ways that make a difference in their lives" (Martin, 2004, p. 135). This perspective underscores two components of agency: deliberate *choice* and *action*, putting a great deal of emphasis on rational and individualistic self (Vitanova et al., 2015). It is suggested that taking charge of their actions does not only qualify individuals as agents of their developments; instead, they are required to make those changes consciously and undergo a process of continuous reflection, which points out reflexivity as a further critical component of agency. Although this conceptualization of agency identifies its major components, it is not without criticism. For example, Block (2015) criticizes the tendency in applied linguistic research to give far too much importance to the self as the shaper or determiner of their actions and describes it as "over-

agentive" (p. 22). Adopting a realist view, Block (2015) argues that self is interrelated to social, economic, physical, and psychological structures/realms. Agency can only be fully comprehended if the individual's actions are interpreted in relation to such structures as educational institutions.

Agency is also closely linked to the concept of power, another central term when defining agency versus institutional structures. To enact their agency, individuals should employ a range of casual powers (Giddens, 1984, as cited in Gao, 2010, p. 25), that is, to display willingness and capacity to achieve their intended goals. This conceptualisation of agency does not merely underscore learners' self-regulated learning ability but also encompasses their capacities to "secure the rights to speak" (Norton, 2000, p. 8), which is a particular focus in this thesis. Gao (2010) suggests that learners may need to critically identify the contextual elements that are being constantly negotiated and reconfigured and the social processes of the particular contexts to create speaking rights for themselves. This perspective is also inherent in the sociocultural view of agency.

According to sociocultural perspectives, agency is a "socioculturally mediated capacity to act", a frequently quoted definition by Ahearn (2001, p. 112), offered as an alternative to the individualistic modernist view. It indicates agency as an individual's capacity and highlights its situated nature and the role of mediation. Emphasising the situated nature of agency, Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001) state that "agency is never a property of the individual but a relationship that is constantly constructed and renegotiated with those around the individual and society at large" (p. 148). Inherent in this perspective is the idea of individuals purposefully using their capacity or power to re-make and re-invent their world and experiences as a result of these interactions with their surroundings. Hence, they are engaged in a reflective process of reconstructing themselves. It has also been suggested that agency is more than deliberate control over actions; instead, it "entails the ability to assign relevance and significance to things and events." (Lantolf & Thorn, 2006, p. 143). These definitions capture the multifaceted nature of the term.

Within classroom contexts, agency is characterized by three major features: individuals' ability to self-regulate, interdependent nature (interdependence between self and sociocultural context), and individuals' awareness of their actions (van Lier, 2008). In this sense, agency is self-regulatory, which potentially leads to more knowledge acquisition. van Lier also defines agency from a sociocultural perspective: "agency is situated in a particular context and that it is something that learners do, rather than

something that learners possess, i.e., it is behaviour rather than property." (2008, p. 171). The emphasis on context refers to the view that learners act in and by the group surrounding them in a cultural environment. van Lier (2004) proposes "affordance" to indicate the relationship between individuals and their environments. Affordance refers to the potentials that "make action, interaction and joint projects possible" (van Lier, 2010, p. 4). Learners' perceptions, goals, and actions can turn those potentials into real opportunities. In this context, the learner may display an individual or collective agency. The latter is a higher agency level because "it would draw together the creative energies and symbolic capacities of a larger number of learners." (van Lier, 2008, p. 169). Extending the scope of definition, Gao (2010) considers agency to be individuals' will as well as their capacity to act. This addition highlighted that "whilst an individual's capacity to act is widely accepted as being socioculturally, contextually and interpersonally mediated, it also needs to be understood in terms of a person's physical, cognitive, affective, and motivational capacities to act." (Mercer, 2012, p. 42).

When defining agency, such dichotomies as an active and passive learner or self-initiated and controlled activity come to mind to regard active learner as successful and self-initiated activity as conducive to agentive actions, and the latter binaries as negative. Furthermore, the descriptions of the agency so far indicate acts performed by the learners, namely active learner participation. However, some challenge this view arguing that active participation, although enactment of agency, does not always guarantee development. For example, Fogle (2012) proposes deliberate resistance to participate and silence forms as students' enacted agency. Agreeing that agency can be enacted in different forms, including silence, this research is more concerned with investigating students' active participation, particularly how they secure speaking rights.

Agency has also been approached within the complexity theory, which provides a more holistic view of agency that is comprehensive of both learners' actions situated in the context and their feelings and beliefs that may influence their behaviours (Larsen-Freeman, 2019; Mercer, 2012). Mercer (2012) suggests that agency is composed of two intertwined dimensions, expanding the scope of agency. One is the sense of agency that indicates how agentic individuals feel, and the second dimension is agentive behaviour indicating individuals' observable agency through their actions. This division is relevant to this study's analysis process, which investigates students' agentive behaviours by identifying their self-selections to enter classroom discourse and their sense of agency by

interviewing them regarding their active participation. Furthermore, a socioculturally informed view of agency is highlighted. Agency, thus, refers to individuals' deliberate choice and/or capacity to create opportunities for their learning by their initiative acts in a socially constructed world. This conceptualization regards learners as complex individuals who "make sense of and engage with contexts and can also change and influence contexts." (Mercer, 2012, p. 43) instead of being passive reactors to contexts.

This section has presented a review of approaches to the construct of agency and how student initiations can reinforce their sense of agency. The research to support this argument has been discussed in detail in section 3.5 and will not be mentioned due to space limitations. The following section seeks to provide a theoretical position on the students' willingness to communicate and the factors that influence their actions.

3.6.2 Student willingness to initiate: Insights from L2 WTC research

Oral participation has been linked to the construct of willingness to communicate and various variables affecting student participation (MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre et al., 2003; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Yashima et al., 2018). Since the L2 learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) has been reported to affect the frequency of student talk in L2 (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2003; Wen & Clément, 2003; Yashima et al., 2018), there has been an increasing interest in understanding the complex nature of the construct.

McCroskey and Baer (1985) first put forward the construct of willingness to communicate to explain the learners' intention to enter a discourse in L1, given a chance. It was later applied to the L2 context by MacIntyre et al. (1998), who defined willingness to communicate in L2 as learners' "readiness to enter into a discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (p. 547). WTC is the last step before the actual action of initiating communication (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010) and displays learner's conscious intention to initiate a communication "given a choice" (MacIntyre et al., 2001, p. 369) or "when the opportunity arises" (MacIntyre et al., 2003, p. 590).

This current study underscores one particular aspect in the definition of L2 WTC, one that emphasizes the learners' control over their volition: their intention to initiate communication manifested in their action to take the floor when the opportunity is given and when they create or seek opportunities for themselves. As the study's main objective is to investigate student-initiated participation, digging into underlying factors of

learners' willingness to initiate communication is of utmost importance. WTC, or more precisely willingness to initiate (WTI), will be used interchangeably, with the latter being a bit more nuanced in its attempt to underscore the initiative action itself. The following pages review the contributions that existing literature on L2 WTC has made.

Several models have been proposed to explain the complex nature of WTC in a second language. The models display many diverse conceptualisations, integrating psycholinguistic, contextual, linguistic and educational perspectives (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). One of the most influential models of L2 WTC was proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998), which is known as the heuristic pyramid-shaped model (see Figure 3.1 below). The pyramid model gives much importance to psychological constructs such as self-confidence, attitudinal factors, and motivational orientations as they are placed at the higher levels of the pyramid. In contrast, social and contextual constructs remain at the lowest layer, indicating a more indirect impact on WTC. The desire to communicate with a specific person comes before the WTC, and it refers to a deliberate preference, whereas willingness emphasizes readiness to initiate the communicative act (Wen & Clément, 2003).

Figure 3.1: Pyramid (Heuristic) model
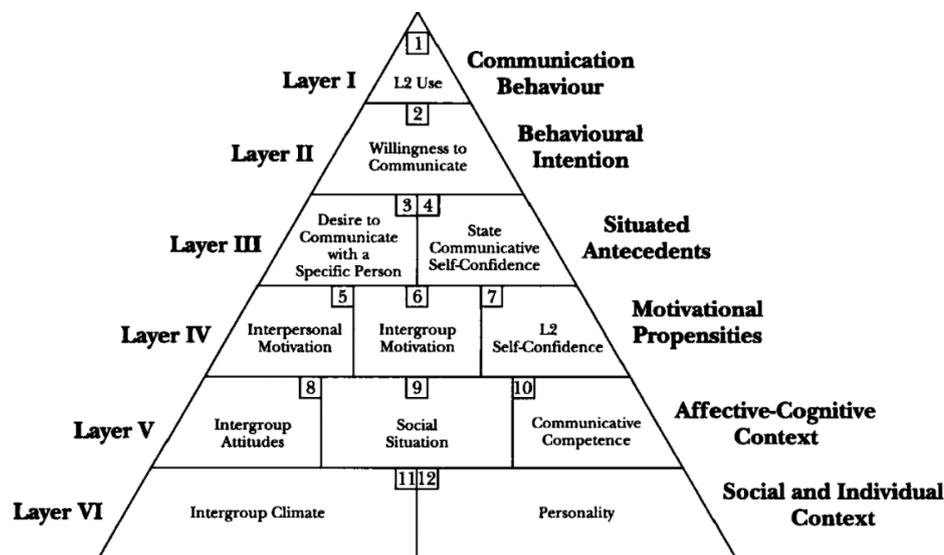
Note: From MacIntyre et al. (1998, p. 547)

Extending beyond trait-like factors, this model conceptualized L2 WTC in a way that integrates linguistic, communicative, and social psychological variables as a predictor of L2 learners' WTC. In other words, they proposed that a single factor cannot be enough to explain WTC; instead, a combination of enduring and situated factors can account for it. They distinguish between situational factors (state-like variables) and enduring factors

70

(trait-like variables). Trait-like factors are long-term properties of an individual or environment, including motivation, social context, communicative competence, group climate and personality. They tend to be "stable over time and across situations" (MacIntyre et al., 2001, p. 372). State-like factors, which include topic knowledge and desire to speak with a particular person at a specific time, represent more transient features that are primarily dependent on the immediate context.

Earlier research (Clément et al., 2003; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2003; Wen & Clément, 2003; Yashima, 2002), inspired by this model, mainly focused on the impact of learner's stable tendencies influential on their L2 WTC, employing largely quantitative approach and psychometric scales. Using this model, those studies have contributed to our understanding of the underlying factors. Most of them, however, overstated the impact of psychological variables over other variables and suggested a linear interaction between the underlying variables (Cetinkaya, 2005; Clément et al., 2003; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2011; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2003; Wen & Clément, 2003; Yashima, 2002). For example, studies have shown that while self-confidence as a psychological variable can influence students' WTC, other contextual factors such as topic knowledge, peers, and teacher can indirectly impact their WTC (Clément et al., 2003; MacIntyre et al., 2001).

Earlier studies were also characterized by their over-reliance on quantitative measures, such as questionnaires designed based on the L1 WTC scale used by McCroskey and Baer (1985). Weaver (2005) pointed out that using items in the scale of the L1 WTC version was problematic because many hypothetical situations described in the scale did not apply to the L2 situations. For that reason, Weaver (2005) designed a scale, particularly for use in L2 WTC research. Thus, it has been stated that there is a need for a more comprehensive model to account for WTC because it is not always a linear interaction between factors influencing the L2 learner's WTC.

Later, the influence of social turn in the SLA field (Block, 2003) led to a shift from monolithic mainstream assumptions regarding the language acquisition process and learner characteristics to more ecological and socio-cultural perspectives (Mercer, 2016). Thus, the importance of context and culture on the spatial and temporal levels has become more important in WTC research. Within this perspective, Kang (2005) proposed a further definition that emphasized the dynamic and multi-layered nature of WTC affected by a collective impact of psychological and situated variables emergent in the context.

According to Kang (2005), WTC is a "dynamic situational concept that can change moment-to-moment, rather than a trait-like predisposition" (p. 277). Studies within the view adopted a mixed-method research strategy to map out fluctuations on both macro and micro levels (Kang, 2005; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Peng, 2014; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011; Yashima et al., 2018). For example, in their study in a Japanese university context over a semester with 21 participants, Yashima, MacIntyre and Ikeda (2018) showed how the frequency of self-initiated student contributions changed over time depending on the situated and individual variables.

From a sociocultural perspective, students' contribution is shaped by their individual as well as collective thinking in a situational form of interaction in the classroom (Mercer & Howe, 2012). Since participation depends on students' willingness to produce talk, their participation is dependent on their own individual preferences or traits and situated contextual antecedents. In other words, students' behaviours are context-dependent and dynamic as they interact with their social surroundings. For that reason, the secondary aim of this study is to approach the concept of students' willingness to initiate/communicate from a comprehensive perspective that encompasses emergent, situated variables that give rise to students' self-selected turns. With this aim in mind, an overview of the variables influencing students' willingness to communicate is presented below.

3.6.3 Variables influencing students' willingness to communicate

Research into the L2 learners' WTC in various settings has suggested an interdependent relationship between L2 WTC and various psychological, contextual and linguistic variables (Cooper & McIntyre, 1994; Engin, 2017; MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019). Following the current trend in L2 WTC, a brief overview of immediate and distal antecedents of WTC is presented under three broad categories: (1) affective, (2) contextual/situational and (3) linguistic factors.

Affective factors

Research on individual differences in the SLA field in both ESL (Cao & Philp, 2006; Chichon, 2019; Clément et al., 2003; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2001, 2003; MacIntyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Wood, 2016) and EFL context (Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Cetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Wen & Clément, 2003;

Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2018) has shown that affective variables such as motivation, self-confidence, speaking anxiety, perceived interactional opportunity, beliefs and attitudes are associated with L2 WTC. Utilising statistical techniques, earlier research in ESL and EFL contexts is mainly characterised by their focus on social and psychological factors. It has now been established that L2 WTC is in/directly related to perceived communicative competence, L2 anxiety, motivation, and personality (Cetinkaya, 2005; Clément et al., 2003; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2001; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002). Below is a summary of these affective factors affecting students' WTC.

Self-confidence

Among all affective variables, self-confidence has been commonly shown to have a strong and direct effect on WTC (MacIntyre et al., 2003; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2018). Self-confidence is defined as a lack of anxiety and a good level of self-rated communicative competence (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre et al., 1998). This definition indicates the two main components of self-confidence: perceived communicative competence in the target language and speaking anxiety. Self-rated or perceived competence refers to the individual's feeling that they can communicate in the target language. Anxiety refers to emotional or behavioural reactions to situations that are perceived as uncomfortable enough to lead to worry and tension. The most common symptoms of feeling anxious include physical unpleasantness such as increased heart rate, trembling voice, blushing, shaking or sweating hands and cognitive difficulties such as freezing up or difficulty in concentrating (Simsek & Dörnyei, 2017).

Research has shown an inverse relationship between these two components, i.e., perceived communicative competence and speaking anxiety (Cao, 2009, 2013; Cao & Philp, 2006; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Syed, 2016; Yashima et al., 2018). MacIntyre and Doucette (2010), for example, looked at perceived competence, speaking anxiety, and WTC of learners of French inside and outside of the classroom in a Canadian context. Quantitative analysis showed that learners with hesitation tended to experience higher levels of anxiety and lower level of perceived competence.

Likewise, Cetinkaya (2005) investigated the Turkish college students' WTC in a Turkish university setting (n=356) using both questionnaire and interview data. The findings suggested a direct impact of perceived communication competence on their WTC. A more

recent study by Simsek and Dörnyei (2017) with 20 Turkish learners of English at an intermediate level in a tertiary setting showed that anxiety could be influential as a trait and situated attribute affecting students' participative performances. Some participants described themselves as anxious individuals. The language learning environment was just one of the contexts where they felt the detrimental effect of anxiety, indicating a link between general anxiety and language anxiety.

Research into the debilitating effect of anxiety on students' willingness to volunteer to contribute in language classrooms has revealed that familiarity with the tasks, knowing what to expect, and preparation time in groups before the whole class experience help stabilise the anxiety (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Peng, 2019; Yashima et al., 2018). For example, Peng (2019), who investigated 8 Chinese students' perspectives on the impact of individual and environmental factors on their WTC in a university setting, reported that having enough time for preparation was pivotal. Otherwise, students refrained from volunteering responses when they were invited to provide an impromptu answer.

Motivation

Motivation and attitudes are also in/directly related to L2 WTC (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2001; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019). Studies in ESL contexts have shown a significant relationship between attitudes towards the L2 community and L2 WTC (MacIntyre et al., 2001). In contrast, studies in EFL contexts suggested a strong link between integrative motivation and WTC.

Among a group of first-year university students who enrolled in conversational French courses, MacIntyre et al. (2003) compared immersion and non-immersion students in terms of WTC, integrative motivation, communication apprehension, perceived competence, and frequency of L2 use. Self-reported questionnaire results showed that the groups differed in all the factors except for motivation. Motivation was strongly associated with WTC among the immersion group, whereas no significant correlation was reported for the non-immersion group. The study infers that this might be associated with the absence of the need to use the language in a setting where the target language is not used outside the classroom.

The EFL studies that looked at the relationship between motivation and L2 WTC were informed by Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model; however, they modified the

model to adapt it to the ethnolinguistic contexts of studies. For instance, Yashima (2002) redefines motivation by proposing the concept of "international posture" as a replacement for attitudes. International posture refers to the psychological inclination toward what English symbolizes for EFL learners, such as interest in going abroad for work or study, willingness to make international friendships and a positive attitude toward the target culture. He examined the relationship between affective factors on learners' achievements and proficiency in a Japanese university context. The findings obtained from the questionnaire indicated a direct impact of international posture/attitude on motivation and L2 WTC, whereas motivation was found to be indirectly influential on WTC through self-confidence.

Perceived Interactional Opportunity

Students' perceptions of the interactional resources available to them are determinants of their willingness to contribute to a greater extent (Bernales, 2016; Cao, 2013, 2014; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019). Communication requires "the cooperation of at least two people" (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Cooperation becomes even more vital in a classroom environment, as the number of speakers might complicate the turn-taking/seeking practices. For that reason, unspoken and/or established rules usually operate to ease the cooperation among the interlocutors and provide a smoother interaction flow. These rules can shape available interactional resources for students. Depending on how teachers communicate them (usually through repetitive turn allocation patterns such as calling upon a student or a solicit via a question to invite student participation), they can become normative practices for turn-taking (Gardner, 2015). At this point, students' interpretation of or preference for these rules comes into play. Regardless of the availability of these opportunities, how students perceive them can influence their actions. For instance, Bernales (2016) reported that students turn seeking behaviours were shaped by the turn allocation norms set by the teacher, and since they were used to called upon if they needed to articulate their thoughts, they tended to wait for teacher to invite them. Studies also reported that students failed to volunteer answers because they thought their peers were too quick at taking the ground (Cao, 2013) or they failed to fail ask questions to ask for help when they encountered a linguistic difficulty arguing that it would waste other's time (Cao, 2014).

Personality

Several studies also pointed out the relationship between L2 WTC and inherently more stable factors such as personality. According to the general taxonomy of personality traits, namely the "Big Five", five domains have been investigated in SLA to be linked to language learner success (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Mercer et al., 2012). These are extroversion vs introversion, neuroticism vs emotional stability, conscientiousness, openness-to-experience, and agreeableness. These characteristics refer to the traits that are inherently found attributes that are usually stable over time and across situations. Exploring the effect of personality at the trait level, studies have shown an indirect path from personality to WTC through more immediate antecedents of L2 WTC (Cetinkaya, 2005; Elwood, 2011). A quantitative study with twelve Japanese learners carried out by Elwood (2011) reported that extroversion (versus introversion) was the strongest personality trait that affected students' willingness to communicate.

However, this classic Big Five does not account for the more situated behaviours of individuals. At this point, The New Big Five model proposed by McAdams (2006) provides a more helpful explanation that encompasses the interplay of inherent tendencies and the situated external factors. His model integrates dispositional traits that reflect more stable attributes and characteristic adaptations referring to context-dependent constructs. Studies within this perspective proved that these regularities are subject to change over time and show a developmental nature, although the personality traits somewhat reflect the regularities (Simsek & Dörnyei, 2017; Cao, 2009, 2013).

In her longitudinal case study, Cao (2013) investigated the construct of WTC in an academic English (ESP) class of 12 adult advanced-level students in New Zealand. Using observation, reflective journals, and stimulated recall interviews, she reported a single student as a case study and demonstrated fluctuations observed in the student's WTC level over five months. The findings revealed that the participant's shy nature negatively impacted her willingness, especially in whole-class situations, although it was not as inhibitive in smaller groups.

Contextual/Situated Factors

An increasing body of research has contributed to our understanding of contextual factors on a micro level. Studies carried out in educational settings have, thus, provided more insights into the situational factors in relation to L2 WTC in classrooms, such as topic,

interlocutors, classroom atmosphere, and task type (Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Bernales, 2016; Chichon, 2019; MacIntyre et al., 2003; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019). A summary of these emergent factors in the classroom context affecting students' WTC is presented below.

Topic

One situated antecedent is the topic that refers to the issues with background knowledge on the topic, familiarity with the topic, interest in the topic, and topic sensitivity. Research has repeatedly reported that familiarity with the topic and having ideas or arguments give rise to WTC (Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Cao, 2013; Chichon, 2019; Kang, 2005; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019). Conversely, the lack of background knowledge adds more burden on learners' shoulders and results in a decline in oral participation. This decline can be related to fear of comprehension problems, lack of arguments to express, and lack of lexical reservoir on the given topic. For instance, Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015) showed that topic knowledge becomes more determinant of students' communicative behaviours than their lexical repertoire of the target language. Similarly, Chichon (2019), which took place in a pre-sessional course in the UK with 6 Chinese students, also showed that students acted timid with complex topics on which they did not have enough knowledge.

Interest in the topic is also known to generate excitement among learners, leading to increased willingness (Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Kang, 2005; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018). Dörnyei (2009) describes interest in the topic as participants' curiosity, engagement, and excitement. For example, Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Bielak (2016) reported that students displayed increased WTC when they had an interest in the topic, whereas some showed a degree of weariness with the topic and the task, which led to reduced WTC.

Interlocutors

A further situated antecedent is interlocutors. The classroom context inherently involves two major speaker parties: teacher and students, which naturally limits a student's interlocutor options to a teacher and peers. These social surroundings with these two parties inevitably shape student participation in classroom discourse (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018). Familiarity with the

participants, their involvement, fluency level, and in some contexts, gender and age can be determinant factors on students' willingness (Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Chichon, 2019; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2003; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018; Wen & Clément, 2003).

Given the historical position of the teachers as the linchpin of the classrooms, their influence is all-pervasive on different levels, including topic selection and initiation, assigning tasks, management of speakerships, and choosing the methods for the delivery of the content (Nystrand, 1997; Walsh, 2002). Particularly, in EFL contexts such as China and Pakistan, teacher role, more specifically teacher's teaching style, teacher immediacy, involvement, attitude and personality, emerged as a dominant factor (Cao, 2013; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018; Wen & Clément, 2003).

Teacher immediacy refers to verbal and non-verbal communication behaviours that may help establish a good rapport or closeness between students and the teacher (Lee, 2020; Peng et al., 2017; Wen & Clément, 20031). These teachers' verbal and non-verbal communication behaviours have been broadly mentioned to influence students' willingness or unwillingness (Kang, 2005; Lee, 2020; Peng et al., 2017; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019). For example, Kang (2005) reported that students felt insecure when they received tokens of backchanneling that indicated boredom on the teacher's part. Conversely, active responses (e.g., "oh really!", "oh my gosh!") along with a smile or an expression of active listenership on their face provided a safe and pleasant conversation experience. Furthermore, the teacher's follow-up questions were also regarded as tokens of interest in what students had to say. For instance, students showed an increased excitement to continue communicating due to the tutor's interest, as indicated by the tutor's several follow-ups. In addition, gestures that were realized positively encouraged student contribution and supported the rapport between teacher and students. Likewise, Peng, Zhang and Chen (2017) investigated the impact of multimodal semiotic resources such as gesture, gaze, and language on WTC in a Chinese university context. Their analysis of videotaped classroom observations, interviews and diaries showed that multimodal affordances contributed to students' perception of teacher immediacy behaviours, which, in turn, affected their WTC level.

Studies have also shown that familiarity with peers and spending enough time to have a certain level of bond with them help create a less tense atmosphere, whereas peers' negative attitudes can lead to drops in contribution levels (Cao & Philp, 2006; Cao, 2013;

Chichon, 2019; Kang, 2005; Syed & Kurzborska, 2018). It has been shown that students were willing to engage with peers they think are friendly (Syed & Kurzborska, 2018), and students' WTC would decrease with strangers (Cao & Philp, 2006).

Adding further insights to this, studies have also shown that peer's fluency and proficiency level is another underlying reason for students' un/willingness to communicate, influencing students' anxiety level (Chichon, 2019; Kang, 2005; Peng, 2019). While some research (e.g., Kang, 2005) has shown that in the presence of more proficient peers, students could feel reticent to engage, other studies (e.g., Chichon, 2019) reported that highly proficient or fluent interlocutors might encourage their peers to use the L2.

Interactional context/pattern

The research has revealed that interactional context is one predictor of students' willingness to initiate (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005). Interactional context considers the setting where the learners in the classroom have their discussion. It is characterized by group size, which refers to the number of people the students have to interact with in a group. During the teaching cycle, the class can be divided into dyads, groups of three or more people or work as a whole. Wen and Clement (2003) suggest that group size is closely linked to group cohesiveness which considers the strength of the relationship between group members. They went on to assert that in smaller groups, a cohesive feeling can be easily formed, as the learners have less pressure and responsibility to lesser people, making it easier to support each other. Studies have provided confirming findings and shown a consistent preference for smaller groups over teacher-fronted or whole-group activities (Cao & Philp, 2006; Cao, 2013) because larger groups decrease students' sense of security, leading to anxiety (Kang, 2005). For instance, de Saint Léger and Storch (2009) presented supporting findings regarding students' disfavour of whole-group contexts as they felt "exposed" (p. 280). However, they provided inconclusive findings regarding students' preference for smaller groups as students' responses were not uniform. Whilst some students chose smaller groups, others found dyads unattractive and artificial.

Classroom atmosphere

The climate in the class is a shared atmosphere and is constantly being affected by the environment's properties which involve the dynamic of the relations among people in

conjunction with the task orientation, the nature of the interaction (e.g., friendly versus stressful, dull versus enthusiastic), and the teacher relation with the whole environment (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). These properties contribute to the overall group dynamic, also known as internal group cohesiveness, which considers the strength of the relationship between group members (Ibid). The findings from different research contexts identified classroom atmosphere as a recurrent theme, influencing students' willingness (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Peng, 2019; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). For instance, it was found that an active class atmosphere generated more student talk, whereas a quiet atmosphere pressured them and was realised as a negative force leading to discouragement among students to contribute (Peng, 2019). Furthermore, findings from Peng and Woodrow (2010) suggested that classroom dynamics had a direct impact on WTC, affecting students' communicative confidence. Likewise, Khajavy, MacIntyre and Barabadi (2018) reported that classroom climate was positively associated with WTC and enjoyment and negatively with anxiety among secondary school students (n=1528 aged between 12 and 18).

Task type

A further main contextual factor is task type which refers to all sorts of activities and projects used in the classroom. Task focus, requirements, familiarity, and complexity have been shown to bear on students' communicative behaviours (Cao, 2013; Cao & Philp, 2006; Chichon, 2019; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018; Peng, 2019). The impact of contextual factors such as familiarity with the task was investigated by Yashima et al. (2018) in an EFL classroom in a Japanese university setting, and the findings suggested that repeated discussion tasks helped reduce the anxiety level among students as they knew what to expect. As a result of repeated task experience, participant students expressed that they attempted to overcome the individual challenges that they would typically experience during a discussion task, while some made efforts to participate.

In addition, studies have suggested that students had preferences for certain types of tasks (Bernales, 2016; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). For instance, a study by Peng (2019) investigated 8 Chinese students' perspectives on the impact of individual and environmental factors on their WTC in a university setting. The findings indicated that some participants expressed willingness to work on particular tasks such as games, debates, and retelling stories, whereas others found retelling stories and debates difficult, discouraging their participation. In some cases, their preference for

the task was a more decisive factor than topical knowledge and kept them engaged and motivated regardless of their lack of background knowledge on the topic.

Linguistic Factors

Many factors such as the topic of discussion, the degree of relationship with interlocutors and the place of communication have been widely investigated to be influential variables on learners' willingness to communicate (Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017; Cao, 2009; Fallah, 2014; Wood, 2016; Woodrow, 2006). Of all the factors, the language of communication was the most pivotal factor (MacIntyre et al., 1998). The change of the communication language leads to variations in many different dimensions and thus further complicates the nature of the discourse. For that reason, WTC may not be observed to be transferred from L1 to L2 due to the further variations and complexities of another language (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Two variables have been associated with the linguistic dimension: proficiency in the target language and the reliance on L1 or code-switching.

Proficiency refers to being competent on many levels, including lexical, grammatical, and phonological aspects. Particularly, communicative or interactional competence becomes prominent in all classroom interactions where students have to produce oral output. Studies showed that learners' resources in the target language influence students' willingness to communicate (Cao, 2014; Chichon, 2019; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2016; Wood, 2016). Chichon (2019) suggested that participants in a pre-sessional course in the UK experienced comprehension problems on both lexical and contextual levels that led to an unwillingness to talk. Participants were not able to engage in discussions when they lacked topical vocabulary. The findings also showed that the learners, all of whom were Chinese and hence shared the same L1 knowledge, reverted to their L1 when they encountered a linguistic difficulty.

As the means of communication is another language, it doubles the speaker's burden in an interaction, as the production of L2 requires extra cognitive load. This increased strain on cognitive faculties can overwhelm the students (Wood, 2016; Peng, 2019). An affirmative finding is provided by Wood (2016), which explored the complex and dynamic interplay between fluency and WTC among four adult Japanese learners of English with non-Japanese interlocutors in Canada. The qualitative analysis revealed that students' WTC decreased when they encountered a communication breakdown caused by proficiency-related reasons such as failure to retrieve a vocabulary, uncertainty about the

accuracy of a sentence and conscious effort to formulate the language. These inhibitive breakdowns led to anxiety, which, in turn, jammed their cognition. Hence, it led to a low level of L2 WTC that also caused reduced fluency among participants.

Similar findings have been observed in other studies in academic English classrooms in university settings (e.g., Cao, 2014; Peng, 2019). For example, Cao (2014) reported that when adult students struggled with comprehension problems because of unfamiliar lexical items, they experienced the detrimental effect of anxiety, embarrassment, fear, and frustration and eventually withdrew from participating. Pronunciation is another aspect of the linguistic dimension that has been reported to be linked to L2 WTC. For instance, Peng (2019) reported that when students in a Chinese university setting acted reticent when they faced difficulty with pronunciation. They described their speaking mostly as unintelligible and tended to revert to their mother tongue, Chinese, during the whole semester.

The review presented how different factors influence students' willingness to participate in classroom activities. The current study differs from the previous research in two respects. First, it employs a conversation analytic lens to investigate students' self-selection, which is regarded as the public display of their willingness. Second, the study conceptualizes the willingness to communicate in narrower terms by focusing solely on students' self-selected terms. Thus, a new terminology has been proposed: willingness to initiate (WTI) that guided the analysis process.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has been divided into five sections. The first section has defined the scope of participation in this study, encompassing verbal and non-verbal conduct accomplished by all parties. Within this frame, this study aims to focus on turn-taking, more specifically self-selection practice, in their sequential environment, in whole-group settings. Second, the chapter has reviewed the theoretical positions. Research that conceptualizes L2 learning was covered under the rubric of three research traditions: interactionist view of SLA, SCT perspective of SLA and conversation analytic tradition. It has been argued that an extensive body of research has provided convergent evidence on the critical role of interaction in L2 learning. Particular attention has been given to the SCT as the main framework underpinning this current study due to its emphasis on the role of social interaction in the learning process. has been presented. In this inquiry, applied CA is employed as an analytic tool.

After establishing the theoretical premise of the study, the third section has discussed the nature of classroom discourse with a focus on turn-taking and sequence organization as two key concepts of classroom discourse that shape participation and related studies. Fourth, the chapter has reviewed previous research on student-initiated participation. Finally, the last section has presented two interrelated constructs: agency and willingness to initiate communication in order to understand the role of context external factors on student-initiated participation.

4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodological premises the study is based. First, it presents the epistemological stance, which guided the methodological practices and strategies employed in conducting this research. The chapter introduces Conversation Analysis (CA) as an analytical framework for the data collection and analysis of classroom interaction to uncover student participation structure in their sequential environment. It is argued that CA provides tools to explore how students create participation opportunities that are enabled through turn-taking practices (Lerner, 1995).

A second method used in the study was the semi-structured interview to further explore the student perspective in relation to their self-initiated participation as displays of their sense of agency and willingness to initiate communication, two important themes that emerged from the data itself. Furthermore, the chapter describes the data collection sites and provides a detailed account of how data was collected, including the piloting stage. Then, data analysis procedures are illustrated. Finally, the chapter concludes with the issues of trustworthiness.

4.2 Overview of the study

The aim of this study is twofold. First, it seeks to examine the characteristics of student-initiated participation in EAP classrooms while shedding light on the extent to which student-initiated participation influences classroom discourse. Second, it sets out to understand students' reflective thoughts with respect to how they perceive their role through their participation and why they choose to initiate at times when they do. To that end, the study focuses on the following questions:

1) What is the nature and role of student-initiated participation in university EAP classrooms during whole-group interactions?

Sub-questions were also formulated to help clarify the focus of the investigation:

   a) When do students predominantly self-select to participate in classroom interactions?
   b) How do they affect the interactional trajectory in classroom interaction?
2) What are the students' thoughts and underlying reasons for their participation in EAP classrooms during whole-group interactions?

a) What do the students think about their participation?

b) What are the underlying reasons for them to initiate participation?

To answer these research questions, the study adopts a qualitative research approach to data collection and analysis with a social constructivist position to interpret the data. The table below summarises the paradigm underpinning the research, the research strategy, tools, and data analysis methods.

Table 4.1: The outline of the methodology adopted in the study

Research paradigm	Approach	Methods of data collection	Methods of data analysis
Interpretive and Social Constructivism	Predominantly qualitative multi-method research design	Capturing naturally occurring talk	Applied CA
		Semi-structured interviews	Thematic Analysis

4.3 An interpretive and social constructivist approach to enquiry

The study favours an interpretive and social constructivist stance to learning and exploring human behaviour. The interpretive paradigm assumes that researchers' role is to make sense of the world around them, and the objectivity of their interpretation resides in their ability to separate themselves from the focus of inquiry. Alternatively, the constructivist paradigm favours a relativist ontology and a subjective epistemological stance (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). It agrees with the notion that there are multiple realities and that knowledge is not discovered or transferred but constructed through their meaning-making quest based on their experiences in social environments, as in language classroom contexts (Applefield et al., 2001; Creswell, 2014; Kaufman, 2004; Yilmaz, 2008). This stance indicates that the social world cannot be separated from those individuals who also shape it.

Particularly, social constructivism considers language as a potential tool to uncover the meaning and truth, which makes it suitable for the inquiry of classroom interaction. Thus, in this study, language classroom contexts are regarded as social environments where participants engage in an ongoing interactional process of co-constructing social reality. They continually modify and recreate meanings as they have new experiences, indicating that reality is fluid and changing. This quest is, in essence, exploratory, which requires a qualitative research strategy, as explained in the following section below.

4.4 Research strategy

Qualitative research agrees with the notion that participants engage in creating the social reality and assumes that their behaviours can be observed and documented via qualitative methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Given that the study is concerned with how students self-select to create participation opportunities, a qualitative research strategy can provide the researcher with the necessary tools to explore the students' participation on a turn-by-turn basis. In addition, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) argue that qualitative research is multi-paradigmatic in the sense that it can both be interpretive and involve positivist and naturalistic conceptions of human experience. Therefore, qualitative research can rely on various methods, approaches, and techniques, including narrative analysis, observations, and graphs. Investigation of such a complex phenomenon inevitably requires the employment of a multi-method approach. Thus, leaning towards a qualitative research methodology, this study approaches the research process from a more pragmatic stance in the sense that it employs multiple exploratory methods and techniques to provide a thick description of the phenomenon under investigation using CA and semi-structured interviews.

The CA approach as a research methodology is in line with constructivist tradition. Schwandt (2003) points out that "we do not construct our interpretations in isolation but against a backdrop of shared understandings, practices, language, and so forth." (p. 305). CA focuses on how participants construct a shared understanding of their actions in interaction by relying on interactional rules and practices (Seedhouse, 2013; Wooffitt, 2005). As a qualitative method, the interview also allows us to uncover unobservable phenomena such as beliefs, goals, and perceptions of social actors who undertake interactional actions (Denzin, 2001). The students' lived experiences concerning their active participation in English language classrooms are the secondary phenomenon of interest in this study. This focus reflects an interpretive and social constructivist stance as well. Moreover, in line with the constructivist paradigm, qualitative research favours naturalistic methodological procedures (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). The current study also utilised data collection methods to capture naturally occurring data by recording classroom data and students' accounts via interviews.

So far, the ontological and epistemological stance that influenced the decisions on the choice of major strategies for the inquiry has been covered. Below, the rest of the chapter

describes the primary methodological research processes to investigate the research questions.

4.5 The analytic approach to classroom interaction

Among many methodologies, this study adopts a conversation analytic lens to investigate classroom discourse as it is often argued that CA can be used in describing the nature of the classroom interaction as a complex, emergent, dynamic, and context-bounded entity co-constructed by all participants in granular details (Antaki, 2011; Heritage, 2005; Sert, 2021), which is well-suited to the study's aim. Therefore, this section begins with an overview of CA's theoretical underpinnings and presents a description of applied conversation analysis as an analytical framework employed in this study. This will include its theoretical principles and applications, a discussion of its strengths and why it is employed as a research method in analysing L2 classroom interaction. Finally, the issues of validity and reliability are discussed, and limitations for using applied CA are addressed.

4.5.1 Ethnomethodological underpinnings of CA

As an offshoot of Ethnomethodology (EM hereafter), which was developed by Garfinkel (1967), CA was greatly influenced by EM, particularly by the works of Garfinkel and Goffman (Liddicoat, 2007). Therefore, CA's underlying foundations in EM will be briefly mentioned as they are crucial to understanding the CA approach to data analysis.

The central focus of EM is on the social order in everyday life (Garfinkel, 1967; Liddicoat, 2007). It challenges the view that people's social conduct is predetermined by social structures such as gender and class. Rather, Garfinkel (1967) argued that examining social order as pre-established meanings is problematic because they might rely on researchers' theory rather than individuals' knowledge and adopted a bottom-up perspective meaning that the focus was on describing what people do as opposed to a top-down approach to see how pre-defined norms shape what people do. Another influential figure in the development of CA methodology is Erving Goffman, who brought attention to 'social order' that can only be understood through empirical evidence by focusing on the 'actual instances of social interaction'. Goffman's (1983) approach to social interaction is about what participants do in talk-in-interaction by asking questions such as 'why this, at this moment and in this way?'. From this perspective, talk is not studied as semantic units but as a social accomplishment (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). This way,

Goffman established the notion of 'interaction order', arguing that the practices people employ are systematic.

Influenced by Garfinkel and Goffman's works, Harvey Sacks initially started the study of interaction with his investigation of calls to a suicide-prevention centre. Later, CA was developed as a research methodology, as we understand it today, through a collaboration among Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson in the 1960s within the field of sociology. Recognised as an autonomous area to investigate the social action performed through talk, CA has its distinctive assumptions and principles which still draw on EM. The most fundamental principles are those: (1) an understanding of talk as social action; (2) action is structurally organised; (3) talk creates and maintains intersubjective reality; (4) the context-shaped and context-renewing feature of talk; and finally (5) the emic (participant-relevant) approach to inquiry. (Peräkylä, 2004; Seedhouse, 2005). These assumptions and principles about the organisation of conversations form the basis of analytic tools that CA employs. Thus, they are explained briefly in the sub-sections below.

Talk as social action

The first principle is that talk is the primary vehicle through which people conduct social actions (Liddicoat, 2007; Goodwin & Heritage, 1990; Schegloff, 1991). Goodwin and Heritage (1990) state:

> Social interaction is the primordial means through which the business of the social world is transacted, the identities of its participants are affirmed or denied, and its cultures are transmitted, renewed, and modified. Through processes of social interaction, shared meaning mutual understanding, and the coordination of human conduct is achieved. (p. 283)

In this sense, talk is not simply the production of utterance. Every turn in talk does something, whether it be in mundane conversations where we accept offers, decline invitations, complain, or talk-in-interaction in institutional settings such as classrooms where we lecture, assess, ask, explain, etc. Thus, one side of the analytical work is to figure out how these actions are done and, most importantly, what the consequences of those actions are. This focus on describing the organisation of interactions reflects a fundamental shift in perspective: from analysing talk for what it tells about the speaker's underlying motivations/thoughts/psychology to analysing talk in its own right to understand how interaction works and what it does (Liddicoat, 2007).

Interaction order

The second principle is centred around the structures of interaction. CA assumes that language use is not purely idiosyncratic and certainly not haphazard; rather, it is "orderly at a minute level of detail" (Stivers & Sidnell, 2013, p. 2). Thus, the CA researcher seeks to identify means, patterns, and practices such as turn-taking and sequence organisation that form this orderliness in talk (Drew, 2005). This interaction order does not only apply to social interaction but also to institutional forms of interaction, including but not limited to classrooms, courtrooms, and healthcare institutions.

The role of context

The third principle concerns the role of context, which is primary to the analysis of talk. Two different approaches to the context will be discussed here: context as external to talk and sequential context. Context as external to the talk refers to macro-level factors such as education, gender, or race, as well as micro-level elements such as relationships between participants (Markee, 2013). From this point of view, analysts aim to show how these macro and micro-level factors are intertwined with each other. CA's approach to context on the macro-level is agnostic, meaning that it does not make any a priori claims before the analysis (Seedhouse, 2013). Instead, CA focuses on the local and sequential context of the talk and is only concerned with talk-external context when it is found in the details of the talk (Drew & Heritage, 1992). In addition, from the CA perspective, talk is both context-shaped and context-renewing (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Seedhouse, 2005, 2013). That is, the current talk or turn is shaped by the immediately preceding turn-at-talk and also sets up the context for the proceeding turn. Thus, the CA analysis is bottom-up and data-driven (Seedhouse, 2005).

This highly localised approach to context has been the topic of heated debates for a long time and criticised for dealing with a very limited sense of context. However, CA argues that it does not reject the impact of the context in the traditional sense but states that it should be the focus of interest where it is manifested in the talk. While the debate is still ongoing, a quote from ten Have (2007) might conclude this subsection here: "ethnographic research in addition to CA can be helpful to build up a knowledge base that is sufficiently similar to what a member knows to understand what is going on." (p. 78).

Intersubjectivity

A further assumption that CA relies on is that talk creates and maintains intersubjectivity, i.e., how participants understand each other. CA does not make any claims regarding the people's psychological state (Heritage, 1984; Peräkylä, 2008; Seedhouse, 2009), but what the analysts have access to is "the expression of mind and the ways in which these expressions are received and understood by co-participants" (Peräkylä, 2008, p. 115). Although they cannot know what participants mean, they can monitor what participants say and do.

Through this collaborative activity, the participants display their understanding of each other's talk through their orientation to the sequential structure of the interaction (Heritage, 1984; Atkinson & Drew, 1979). For example, by producing a positive/negative answer to a request, the speakers publicly show that they have understood the preceding turn as a request. The participants also display intersubjective understanding by performing expected actions at specific moments in the talk, which shows their understanding of 'where' in the state of talk they are (Peräkylä, 2004). These understandings are crucial for the smooth unfolding of the interaction as well as for maintaining social relations among participants.

Emic perspective

Finally, CA adopts an emic (participant-relevant) approach that concerns participants' perspectives as their point of departure (Markee, 2013, 2015) instead of an etic viewpoint. This emic perspective is concerned with the members' observable behaviours and the means that they employ to make sense of and act on the circumstances they find themselves in (Heritage, 1984). In this regard, CA's emic view does not rely on participants' "authentic accounts of subjective experience" (Silverman, 2001, p. 90), i.e., self-reports adopted by other ethnographic methods such as interviews. Rather, CA is concerned with how "participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of actions are generated" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 12). In this regard, CA does not access participants' cognitive or psychological states but rather "trace(s) how participants analyse and interpret each other's actions and develop a shared understanding of the progress of the interaction" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 166). Seedhouse (2004c) describes this as a display of socially distributed cognition.

Having reviewed the theoretical origins and ethnomethodology-rooted principles of CA, the following sections discuss the key CA findings regarding the structures and practices of organisation of talk and provide justification for using CA as a research method in this study throughout the chapter.

4.5.2 Aims and interactional practices of CA

CA's central goal is to "describe, analyse, and understand talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life" (Sidnell, 2010, p. 1) by using recordings of naturally occurring talk (Peräkylä, 2008). Put simply, the CA analysis concerns how people perform an action through talk-in-interaction, not how they think they perform this action, by bringing together a large collection of instances of a particular action. With these goals and assumptions in mind, the analysis is done in fine-grained detail to uncover the repetitive patterns and their impact on shaping the nature of the talk. The recordings of naturally occurring talk comprise the primary data (Drew, 2005), which provides authentic instances of actions in talk-in-interaction. This allows an impartial, unbiased, and more accurate documentation of what goes on in the interaction.

CA analysis relies on key analytic concepts such as turn-taking, sequence and preference organisations and repair to explicate how individuals deal with social interactions. In this section, only two interactional structures will be addressed: turn-taking and sequence organisation, as they form the analytical tools used to analyse classroom interaction in this study.

Turn-taking organisation

The turn-taking mechanism is central to the organisation of social interaction and concerns about when and whom to talk and when to stop (Drew, 2013). There are two components of turn-taking system: 'turn constructional component' and 'turn-allocational component' (Clift, 2016).

Turn constructional component refers to the units that the turns are composed of (Sacks et al., 1974). These units, as "building blocks" (Schegloff, 2007, p. 3) of turns, are called 'turn-constructional-unit' (TCU). TCUs form a recognisable action in a turn and involve grammatical shapes such as a sentence, a clause, phrase, lexical items or even fillers. How speakers recognise the opportunities or obligations in their interactions to act, namely, to take turns, depends on those units. That is, completion of a TCU(s) or possible completion of a TCU-in-progress makes a transition to the next speaker relevant. This is called

transition-relevance-place (TRP) (Schegloff, 2007, p. 4). The grammatical structures and prosody of TCUs are organisational resources that make them recognisable. This socially acquired knowledge about the language ensures the participants recognise when a turn starts or possibly ends. This points out that the turn organisation does not haphazardly occur and that turns are not arbitrary units dangling together; instead, there is a set of rules that apply in turn-taking organisation.

The turn-allocation component deals with turn distribution. The conversational turn-taking system relies on a set of rules that constitute the turn distribution mechanism (Sacks et al., 1974; Goodwin & Heritage, 1990). In their foundational paper, Sacks et al. (1974) identified two turn-allocation techniques: current-selects-next and self-selection. In mundane conversations, these two basic rules of turn-taking operate to manage turn distributions. Rule one involves three sub-rules: 1a, 1b and 1c. The first sub-rule (1a) is turn nomination, where the current speaker selects the next speaker explicitly or tacitly (Schegloff, 2007). A turn can be assigned to one or more participants. A canonical example of this type of turn allocation is a question addressed explicitly or tacitly to one or multiple participants. This technique is commonly observed in classrooms as well.

The second sub-rule (1b) operates when the current speaker's turn does not involve a next-speaker selection technique, and a participant wants to take the floor at a legitimate point during the interaction. This type of turn-taking is called self-selection, which is particularly relevant to this study. The participants self-select themselves by fashioning a TCU at a turn relevance space that they have claimed, and to get the floor requires to act first. Sub-rule 1c applies when the current speaker wants to go on with his turn if there is no voluntary speaker or assigned turn. The second rule says that when rule 1c has been applied, the same rules (1a, 1b, and 1c) apply again.

Analysing the turn-taking structure in classroom settings is of utmost importance since they have "the potential to alter the parties' opportunities for action and to recalibrate the interpretation of almost every aspect of the activities that they structure" (Heritage, 2005, p. 225). For instance, turn-taking rules can profoundly shape the opportunities for participation by managing who speaks next and to what extent they can produce talk, such as asking a question or responding to a question in classroom discourse.

Furthermore, turn-taking organisation is fundamental to interaction in terms of reciprocity and the interactive nature of the classroom context. "For there to be the possibility of responsiveness – of one participant being able to show what they are saying and doing is

responsive to what another has said and done" (Schegloff, 2007, p. 1). This requires an inspection of the turns produced by co-participants to see what the other party is doing through a particular turn, recognise the possible responses that are made relevant and what outcomes are being sought. For that reason, turn-by-turn analysis provides insight into students' actions during a task. A CA-based investigation makes it possible to see how students come to have an opportunity or face an obligation with a turn (Schegloff, 2007, p. 3) to act during the activities.

Sequence organisation

Another fundamental structure in CA is sequence organisation, defined as the "organisation of course of action enacted through turn-at-talk -coherent, orderly, meaningful successions or 'sequences' of actions or 'moves'" (Schegloff, 2007, p. 2). Sequences are composed of a basic unit of sequence construction: adjacency pair, which is the smallest unit of talk composed of adjacently placed two turns by different speakers (Ibid). Of relatively ordered turns, the first turn is called the first pair part (FPP) and the second speaker turn is the second pair part (SPP). Examples might involve question-answer, invitation-acceptance/rejection, greeting-greeting etc. These actions are initiated by the first speaker who has produced FPP, thereby initiating and making an action relevant. The second speaker's turn is responsive to the first action. According to Schegloff (2007), a minimal two-turn adjacency pair can be expanded through additional turns. He identifies three primary expansion sequences: pre-expansion, insert expansion and post-expansion. Pre-expansion sequences are placed before the FPP, insert expansions are registered between the FPP and SPP, and finally, post-expansion sequences follow SPP. Space precludes full account of expansion sequences. See Schegloff, 2007 for detail. CA employs these units to understand participants' interpretation of sequences of actions. The sequence organisation shaped by student self-selection can take on a different shape in classrooms and needs a detailed investigation to uncover its distinctive features.

4.5.3 CA in L2 classroom interaction research: Applied CA

Although CA began with examining mundane interactions (referred to as basic or pure CA), it was later applied to a broader range of forms of interaction in various institutions, including educational settings (known as applied CA). The application of CA in institutional settings relies on the key findings of CA regarding the organisation of ordinary talk (repair, turn-taking, sequence organisation, etc.). Applied CA concerns how

these organisations are adapted to the goals of institutional settings (Seedhouse, 2004c, 2005; ten Have, 2001), such as classrooms. The classroom interaction, thus, is one form of naturally occurring data with its distinctive characteristics from ordinary talk. This study follows the second line of the research process, i.e., applied CA.

The objective of applied CA is twofold: One is to describe operations in social institutions in talk (Heritage, 2005) by using the resources CA provides. The second is to make suggestions for improvements (Drew, 2005; Antaki, 2011). As previously discussed in the literature review, CA-informed classroom interaction research has expanded our understanding of how classroom interaction is organised (Seedhouse, 2004b) and how participants carry out the works of the classroom (e.g., Hazel & Mortensen, 2017; Waring, 2008). The research has displayed features regarding "distribution of knowledge, access to conversational resources, and participation in the interaction" (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 49), which is also the main objective of this current study.

CA's analytic descriptions have also informed the pedagogical practices (Waring, 2008) and professional training and development programmes (e.g., Sert, 2015; Walsh, 2013). Adopting a CA's lens and concepts in the analysis, this study's implications are, too, oriented to improving classroom discourse and developing more informed interactional behaviours to improve the education quality, focusing on systematic ways participants engender participation frameworks in classroom interaction.

4.5.4 The rationale for using CA to analyse L2 classroom interaction

This section discusses why CA was deployed to investigate L2 classroom interaction in preference to several other approaches, including system-based coding schemes (e.g., Flanders, 1970), observations, and Discourse Analysis (DA). These approaches are briefly reviewed, and arguments are made for using CA-based analysis.

Observations and coding schemes are based on categories created by the researchers, which are then quantified for analysis. Although these approaches (e.g., Bellack et al., 1966; Flanders, 1970) enables a quick treatment of large samples of data (Hardman & Hardman, 2019), they are often criticised for their tendency to use pre-theorised and fixed categories (Seedhouse, 2004a; Sert, 2015), and the researcher naturally is inclined to match participants' utterances to these categories. They are also criticised for rendering the interactional features coded and quantified representations (ten Have, 2007). Furthermore, they tend to overlook other interactional features such as silence and non-

verbal elements. As a result, important features can be lost as the researchers tend to be fixated on the coding schemes. Also, they might "fail to acknowledge different contextual needs for teachers and students in different contexts" (Sert, 2015, p. 15) because their interpretation/observation of one practice at a specific moment is applied to other pedagogical contexts. DA approaches to L2 classroom talk mainly draw on descriptive models (e.g., Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Hardman, 2019), using pre-defined categories to code the cycles of talk. Such DA-based models have been widely utilised due to their easiness in identifying the cycles in interaction and ability to quantify a large amount of data swiftly; however, they can be challenging due to their tendency to code the data based on pre-defined categories, which is not suited to the aim of this study.

On the other hand, CA is argued to be useful in describing the nature of classroom interaction as an emergent and locally managed accomplishment (Hall, 2019; Peräkylä, 2004; Sert, 2021). From CA perspective, the participants create and shape the immediate interactional context through a mutual understanding that is created "through a sequential architecture of intersubjectivity" (Heritage, 2005, p. 105). In other words, participants orient to the immediate prior turn, and by taking the next turn, they shape the context for the next speaker. By orienting to the actions in prior turn, they display a mutual understanding. This theoretical position offers a lens through which the researcher explains how students' actions are related to ongoing classroom activities. Additionally, it highlights that CA does not require a predetermined structure or category to analyse the data; instead, the data speaks for itself, allowing flexibility. From this perspective, student-initiated participation can be treated and defined on its own terms. Moreover, CA is well-known for its focus on capturing talk, prosody, and embodied actions at a minute level of detail. Identifying such granular details is well-suited to the aim of this study because the focus on these micro details, such as micro pauses within or between turns, hand gestures, timings of bodily movements and the talk. Such micro details contribute to the identification of actions and turns-at-talk, allowing data-driven interpretations to help identify student-initiated participation patterns.

4.5.5 Reliability, validity and generalisability in CA

CA has developed its procedures and techniques to maintain the rigour of the research. This section covers how the issues of validity, reliability, and generalizability were approached throughout the study for the trustworthiness of the research.

The validity of the research is about how interpretations of data can be supported by the data (Seedhouse, 2005). Analysts "cannot make any claims beyond what is demonstrated by the interactional detail without destroying the emic perspective and hence the whole internal validity of the enterprise" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 180). In this sense, the validity of CA research is ensured by adopting an emic perspective; that is, a researcher can only make claims based on participants' interpretations that can be tracked in the micro-details of the talk (Seedhouse, 2004c). As noted in the analysis, the participants' initiative actions were interpreted in their displayed orientation to the talk. The next-turn-proof procedure was employed to provide evidentiary interpretation of the student's actions. Thus, the descriptions were based on what participants did in these institutional settings.

The data sessions organised regularly in different universities provided another opportunity to further ensure the research's validity. Seedhouse (2004c) asserts: "it is standard practice for CA practitioners to take their data and analyses to data workshops and to send their work to a number of other practitioners for comment before sending them for publication" (p. 255). The data segments were presented to receive other researchers' comments in CADSS Group, organised biweekly by Southampton University, in CASLC group by the Sociology Department in the University of York, organised twice in each academic term in weekly DARG sessions by Loughborough University. The study was also presented at the IESPTA conference held at Oxford University in 2018 and the CELP conference held at the University of Malta in 2019.

External validity, i.e., generalisability, concerns "the extent to which findings can be generalised beyond a specific research context" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 180). Generalisability is regarded as problematic in qualitative research, particularly in CA-based studies, due to its context-bounded nature (Peräkylä, 1997; Seedhouse, 2004c). CA analysis deals with granular details in micro-moments at talk. Seedhouse (2005) argues that these micro-details in interaction are elements that make up the "machinery" (p. 18). In this regard, analysis of individual instances on a micro-level can reveal general or normative elements on a macro-level. In this sense, the generalisability of qualitative research within the CA approach depends on the similarities other contexts may display (Peräkylä, 1997). For example, students' turn-taking strategies to secure speaking rights in one institutionalised setting can surely shed light on the patterns of talk that emerged out of students' turn-taking actions in other classroom settings. The students' self-

selection behaviours observed in this study can also be noted in other EAP classrooms elsewhere.

As to reliability, Peräkylä (1997) describes three sources to ensure reliability in research: selection of what to record, technical quality of recordings, and the extent to which transcripts represent the primary data. Another aspect of reliability concerns the replication or repetition of the research results. In this study, the transcripts are not the primary data as in any other CA studies; thus, the recordings were shared with other researchers in the data sessions mentioned above to receive feedback and check the accuracy of the analysis. This enabled other researchers and colleagues "to analyse the data themselves, to test the analytical procedures" used in this study, and this way, "all of the analyses of data in this collection are rendered repeatable and replicable to the reader in so far as this is possible" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 179). Screenshots of video recordings also supported the accuracy of transcripts. Lastly, an HD quality camcorder was used to ensure precise visuality, which was crucial in obtaining non-verbal features of interaction that students employed to establish participation frameworks. The quality of verbal interaction was supported by a voice recorder.

4.5.6 Limitations of CA-based analytic perspective

While CA can provide means and tools to examine the naturally occurring talk on a fine-grained level, which is pivotal to identifying the interactional patterns in their sequential environment, it is not without its drawbacks. One possible limitation concerns its emic approach to the interpretation of data. Since CA is only interested in how participants orient to the practices and their interpretation of the ongoing events, context-external factors such as age and gender are somewhat disregarded. However, it can also be argued that CA deals with such factors when they are publicly made visible in the details of the talk.

Another limitation of the CA-based analysis of classroom talk is related to the generalisability of the findings. It is often argued that the close focus on the instances on a granular level might jeopardise the generalisability of the research findings. However, generalisability is not a concern in qualitative research such as a CA study. It is also argued in this study that these granular details might be revealed in similar interactional contexts (Peräkylä, 1997; Seedhouse, 2005). Therefore, the study's findings can be helpful in other EAP settings that share contextual and interactional similarities with the

current study. Nevertheless, as a qualitative study, it should be noted that the study remains limited in focus and scope.

A further limitation of the study concerns the pairing of SCT as an exogenous theory and Applied CA to investigate classroom interaction. The issues regarding this pairing have been discussed in section 3.6 and thus will not be rehashed here due to space limitations. It suffices to say that this study belongs to the cohort of research that describes the interactional process of student participation in which learning opportunities can be created and negotiated. To this end, the data analysis relies on the emic approach of applied conversation analysis, focusing on its strengths as an applicable method to analyse language classroom talks (Seedhouse, 2005; Drew, 2005). However, as discussed earlier, the study comprises CA's agnostic stance by employing the Vygotskian approach to learning and solely deploying Applied CA as a methodological tool.

In addition, Applied CA moves away from one of the main principles of CA practice, the unmotivated looking, by pointing out what to look at, whereas pure CA informs us how to look at the data. Since the focus of inquiry in this study is student participation in general, the phenomenon under investigation was pre-specified to some extent. As a result, little room was left for looking for any other possibly important element in the data. Therefore, it may be argued that the analytic framework employed in this study comprises CA's fundamental practice of unmotivated looking.

A final limitation concerns the potential constraints of transcribing social interaction and the issues of reliability (Sert, 2015). In CA studies, "transcripts are not the data of CA, but rather a convenient way to capture and present the phenomena of interest in written form" (ten Have, 2007, p. 95). The researchers work with video captures to analyse the data but utilise the transcripts while presenting their analysis in written format. While doing that, they might act selectively regarding what to transcribe and what to leave out. The researchers' theoretical stance or approach might affect this selective process (Sert, 2015). Nevertheless, Hepburn and Bolden (2013) argue that this selective approach with a focus on specific issues and practices being can benefit the researchers, saving time. Thus, to minimise these limitations, a micro-detailed approach to transcription was adopted while focusing on particular interactional issues and leaving out details that were not relevant to this study's inquiry saved time and effort.

4.6 A Qualitative approach to interview data

As the secondary aim of the study is to understand students' perspectives, interview as a method of data collection was utilised since it offered the opportunity to explore areas that would otherwise be inaccessible using other methods such as observation or video-recording (Creswell, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007). The interview is a method that "allows persons who are inclined to tell stories about themselves" (Denzin, 2001, p. 25) to share part of their experiences. In this regard, it enabled gathering non-observable data essential for understanding student perspectives of their actions in the classroom where they were positioned. More specifically, it was used to develop an in-depth understanding of how students made sense of their participation and role in classroom interactions and the influential factors on their willingness to participate. The aim was to generate empirical data through students' voices as the owner of the action in question to interpret the unit of analysis, which is argued to contribute to the interpretation of student-initiated participation and understanding of how students structure their participation.

A semi-structured interview protocol was adopted to gather data from individuals, as it enabled to follow a structured plan while allowing for room for flexibility. On the one hand, having pre-specified topics and questions eliminated the challenges that are most likely to emerge due to the mechanics of conducting an interview (Creswell, 2014). On the other hand, it allows room for interviewers to ask open-ended follow-up questions and for interviewees to elaborate on and explain particular issues. Developing the interview guide required careful and rigorous planning. It involved two main stages of planning: developing topics/questions and designing the interview guide.

First, the guiding questions were developed. Although it is advised to create an outline of the topics at the start before designing the question, this study favoured a reverse strategy. Namely, the questions were tailored-made to elicit participants' stories and experiences, which were, in turn, generated specific topics of investigation. Additionally, field notes regarding interviewees were enlisted as probing questions. The main areas of interview discussion included general demographic information, how they made sense of their participation and what affected their willingness to initiate communication.

The questioning technique used for the interviews was also designed as indirect questions, which have been reported to be effective in attenuating social desirability bias (Fisher, 1993; Jo et al., 1997).

Second, the design of the interview guide was developed and formatted. The guide was developed in English, which was then translated into Turkish for Turkish participants by the researcher herself and was checked and verified by a Turkish research student. For the Turkish and English versions, see Appendices C and D.

4.6.1 Limitations of Interview protocol in this study

As is the case with every method in social science, the semi-structured interview has its pitfalls. According to Cohen et al. (2007), such concern is related to several issues. First, the theoretical stance and attitudes of the researcher might lead to subconscious bias, which might affect the interview process. The second issue concerns the co-construction of knowledge by the interviewer and interviewees. The researcher may ask leading questions to support their preconceived notions. In addition, the researcher's misconceptions regarding the participants' responses might lead to reliability and validity problems. The prompts might influence the participants, shaping their way of reporting events. Likewise, the adequacy with which participants can accurately report information is controversial.

In addition, some scholars assert the power dynamics during the interview process, arguing that there is an imbalance in power between the interviewer as a knowledge seeker and the interviewee as a respondent (Holstein & Gubrium, 2003). The interviewer sets the stage, determines the topics, and directs the questions in line with the research aims. This positions the researchers as more powerful individuals who have ongoing control over the narration of the stories to the world. On the other hand, interviewee loses their chances to control the narrative soon after the interviewing process.

Furthermore, the most common criticism of this method concerns the validity and reliability of the data it generates (Creswell, 2009). The possibility that respondents might produce answers to the likeness of the researcher might have affected the correctness of the analysis. To overcome this limitation, leading questions were avoided, and interviewees were given a chance to clarify their points. Additionally, the researcher followed up on unclear or seemingly inconsistent responses by asking clarification questions and repeated the previously asked questions by reformulating them. Last but not least, piloting was conducted. Nevertheless, being a small-scale study and the issues mentioned above, it should be noted that the validity and reliability of the interview analysis remain elusive despite the measures taken.

Another limitation concerns the relatively small-scale nature of the study. Since the study is an extensively qualitative study that aims to explore the social phenomenon in its setting with an in-depth understanding, a small number of participants was sufficient. To ensure reliability, the data collection was carried out till the saturation point (Charmaz, 2006). Nevertheless, the findings are not necessarily generalisable beyond the study's setting. A further limitation was related to the reluctance of some participants to commit to such an undertaking due to its time-intensive nature and their upcoming exams and assignments at the time of the data collection. These practicalities caused instances of short completion of interviewing process, which prevented an in-depth exploration of participants' thoughts.

4.7 Research context and participants

The study recruited participants who were students in higher education studying English for academic purposes. The participants were drawn from three universities in North Yorkshire in the UK and three state universities in Turkey. The study considers student participation as the main focus, particularly student-initiated participation. Therefore, the selection of the classes in these institutions was purposeful. First, the focus of classes was mainly on speaking skills, where students had speaking opportunities in a task-based teaching setting. Second, the classes were small in number of students ranging from 5 to15. The study design included one phase of data collection in two different contexts, Turkey and the UK. Although there was no intention of comparing the two main contexts of the data source, it provided a good reference for a broader picture of the unit of analysis. Below is a description of each university in each setting.

4.7.1 Turkish context (EFL)

Turkey was the first research field that was visited for a period of 8 weeks, April- May 2017. The data collection sites were three institutions, anonymised as University A, B, and C (hereafter referred to as such). All universities had the same organisational structure. They had a language centre where students study for a year or less to reach the desired level of English proficiency to continue their undergraduate majors. According to the higher education system in Turkey, students must successfully complete English language courses because the medium of teaching is English in students' majors, involving English Language and Literature (ELL) in University A and B and Business and Management (BS) in University C. In the ELL department, the medium of instruction

was solely in English, whereas in the BS department, 70% of courses were taught in English.

It should be noted that before entering the university, the students had to take a university entrance exam, a standardised test across the country, to be accepted to these universities. The students, therefore, had the same educational background but varying English proficiency levels. Therefore, they were divided into groups based on their proficiency level in these language centres. The courses were designed as skill-based courses, and therefore, the students had speaking and listening, grammar, and writing modules. Each module was assessed individually. In addition, there was a final examination at the end of their language course for the students to pass in order to continue their education, and this assessment was benchmarked at IELTS 6.00.

In University A, the recorded sessions were taken from the speaking and listening skills module taught by the same teacher (anonymised as Teacher 1) in two different groups of students whose proficiency levels were considered intermediate, B1 according to CEFR. In this module, the teacher used a course book designed for listening and speaking skills. In University B, students were more proficient users of English, namely B2 upper intermediate. The focus of the module was speaking, listening, and critical thinking skills, which were essential for students' major degrees, i.e., ELL. Therefore, different activities such as role-plays, presentations and discussions were used. In University C, the focus of English was also to improve students' speaking skills and vocabulary knowledge related to their major degree programme. Therefore, the materials were specifically chosen by the instructor to assist and prepare learners for the modules in the following years. Proficiency levels among participants were observed to range from B1 to B2.

All the teachers constantly used the English language, and there was almost no room for their mother tongue. They were often observed to encourage students to use English when they tended to revert to their L1. The teachers held an undergraduate degree in English Language Teaching and a master's degree in English language teaching and had experience teaching in their institutions for over five years. The teacher in University C had a study abroad experience of more than one year.

4.7.2 The UK context (ESL)

Recruiting participants in the UK was a particular challenge. Although language centres in several universities across the UK were contacted, only three universities agreed to

participate in the study. The data was collected over a period of 2 months at teachers' convenience between January-March in 2018.

The dynamics of the classroom in each group, on the one hand, were different in many different aspects, such as the number of students in the class, students' majors, teacher background and experience, and the composition of students from different nationalities. On the other hand, all the classrooms shared the same educational focus since they were required to meet a certain level of academic English; hence, the focus of instruction in all groups was to improve the proficiency of learners in all four major language skills, academic writing, reading, speaking and listening. In addition, the proficiency level of the groups was quite similar, ranging from B2 to C1 (CEFR).

In University D, a two-hour writing skill class as part of an in-sessional course was recorded. The course was designed to support international students in their writing as they were assessed based on their written assignments in their majors. University E was slightly different in its curriculum and course design. Students were required to attend a one-year foundation course, which promises an English language ability and academic expertise to study for an undergraduate degree. The data comes from the English Skills module focused on writing, speaking, reading, and listening skills and enhanced academic skills in these four language skills such as referencing, critical evaluation and synthesis. In addition, students were offered optional subject-specific modules to choose from according to their discipline. The module was taught by a teacher (Teacher 5) with over a 40-year of teaching experience. Only a single 2-hour session of the English Skills module was recorded in three different groups with this teacher, who only agreed on a single visit for each group of students.

Lastly, the classes in University F were part of in-sessional courses, which are optional and provided to international students who have already commenced their degree programmes. The course was called Advanced English and designed to support non-native students in areas of difficulty such as developing students' verbal participation, boosting their confidence in using the target language, academic socialisation through study skills such as critical reading/writing, using sources, synthesis of ideas, and other relevant academic skills. Two groups of students with different teachers participated in from this university. One group (Group j) was recorded three times over three weeks, while the second group, k, with a highly experienced native-speaker teacher, was recorded once.

The students came from different L1 backgrounds, including Russian, Turkish, Serbian, Polish, Chinese, Korean, Pakistani, Indian, Arabic, Polish, Mexican, Iraqi, and African. In addition, all teachers were highly experienced native speakers of English. Two of the teachers had over 30 years of experience, and the other had over ten years of teaching experience. The table summarises the participants and the contextual details of data collection in both contexts:

Table 4.2: An overview of data collection sites, participants and recorded sessions

Context	Institutions	Participants		Proficiency level	Recorded sessions	Focus/ Module
Turkey	University A	Teacher 1	Group 1 (No=11)	B1	6 (70-min)	Speaking & listening skills/ foundation course
			Group 2 (No=10)	B1	5 (70-min)	
	University B	Teacher 2	Group 3 (No=15)	B2	1 (70-min)	Speaking & listening skills and critical thinking/ Foundation course
	University C	Teacher 3	Group 4 (No=8)	B1	1 (70-min)	Advanced English/ Foundation course
The UK	University D	Teacher 4	Group 5 (No=5)	B2-C1	1 (2-hour)	English Skills/ In-sessional program
	University E	Teacher 5	Group 6 (No=8)	C1	1 (2-hour)	English Skills/ In-sessional program
			Group 7 (No=14)	B2	1 (2-hour)	
			Group 8 (No=8)	C1	1 (2-hour)	
	University F	Teacher 6	Group 9 (No=5)	B2-C1	3 (2-hour)	English Skills/ In-sessional program
		Teacher 7	Group 10 (No=6)	B2	1 (2-hour)	
Total	6	7 teachers	90 students		31-hour	

4.8 Ethical considerations

For ethical consideration, this study was informed by the ethical guidelines of the University of York and the Statement of Ethical Practice for the British Sociological Association (The British Sociological Association, 2002, 2017) for its more detailed guidance on visual ethics. The ethics application for the study was made to and approved by the University of York Department of Education's Ethics Board before data collection.

4.8.1 Informed consent

The universities were first approached through emails to obtain permission from the head of departments of language centres. The agreed institutions were then visited to meet the potential teacher and student participants. These face-to-face meetings allowed the researcher to explicitly discuss the nature of data collection and plan the process with the instructors. The initial contact also helped develop trust and establish a good relationship with the participants, which is crucial to obtaining participants' consent. The informed consent forms were obtained from instructors and students (See Appendix A).

Some participants expressed positive feelings about being a part of the study. They hoped their contribution would impact the ongoing education policy in their institutions, no matter how small it was. Besides, some stated that they felt excited to see the study's findings. This shows that participants were content with being a part of the research rather than regarding themselves as an item in the study.

4.8.2 Disclosure

Disclosure refers to the revelation of the researcher's identity and objectives of the study (Flowers, 2011). It was a critical decision to make for the research integrity, as the amount of shared information may cause "any response bias or even non-participation" (Dörnyei, 2007). The rightful treatment of the participants who willingly provided data for the research also deserved careful thought. Teachers were fully informed about the objectives of the study because their collaboration was needed, and they deserved to understand how the data collection process would affect their teaching and confidentiality. In this regard, teachers about the objectives of the study. However, the students were informed only broadly about the aims without indulging in the core of the research, as this might cause them to be conscious of their behaviour in the researcher's presence and focus on specific behaviours to deliberately present them favourably. This consciousness might potentially

result in reports of students' spurious or misleading behaviours or self-reports and thus increase the social desirability bias (Fisher, 1993; Jo et al., 1997).

4.8.3 Video and audio recording

Confidentiality of the data can rightfully create concerns for participants, particularly when visual data collection is involved due to being relatively invasive compared to other data collection techniques. To relieve participants' concerns, they were assured that the management of collected data would only be in an identifiable format to a strictly controlled group of audience, and their identities would be kept anonymous. The participants' consent allowed the presentation of data for research purposes and publication. The audio recording devices were also utilised to record the interviews. Participants were ensured that the recordings of their interview accounts would never be shared under any circumstances.

4.8.4 Anonymity and confidentiality

The universities where the data collection took place were anonymised and named in alphabetic order (University A, University B, etc.). The geographical description of the participating universities was kept to a minimum to maintain anonymity. The educational contexts were defined with a relatively thick description to provide the readers with enough information to make sense of the data; however, the similarity of how language courses are generally run across both countries made it easier to conceal the identity of the universities.

To protect the identities of the participants, their actual names were replaced with numerated labels such as S1, S2, etc., in which S stands for 'student'. It was a practical strategy compared to using pseudonyms, as the number of classrooms was high, and each extract presented included different student participants. The video recordings were also kept in a password-protected computer with no public domain access.

4.9 The role of the researcher

The observer's role is generally "defined by the psychical and psychosocial or emotional distance the observer puts him/herself and the observed" (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015, p. 173). Based on the research purposes, the observer can have different roles, including being completely off-site or a complete participant, as shown in the figure below:

Figure 4.1: Roles of the observer
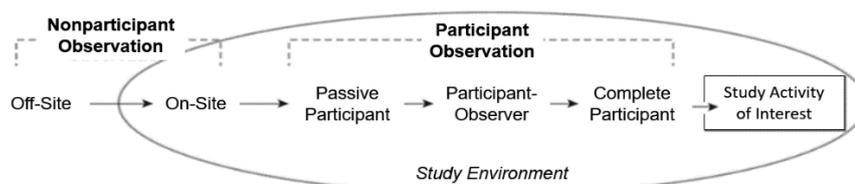
Note: From Roller & Lavrakas (2015, p. 173)

As an integral part of data collection, the researcher was present as an observer participant in the classrooms where the recording took place, playing a non-participant role during the whole process. The non-participant observation was overt; namely, the observed groups were aware that they were being observed, who was observing, and the observer's goals. This overt observational technique inevitably involves contact with participants and thus may move the observer closer to the risk of losing a stance of an objective researcher. Therefore, contact with the participants during video recordings was minimised to maintain the credibility of the research. Besides, it was neither immensely long research nor one where the observer had dual roles as a researcher and an employer.

On the other hand, establishing a good rapport with teachers was crucial to collecting data in a friendly manner. Therefore, the researcher avoided any full immersion in interactions while maintaining courtesy, which was paramount given the researcher's position as a guest. However, in addition to having video equipment as an obtrusive element to the confidentiality of the participants and the learning-teaching process, the presence of the researcher "runs the risk of being an obtrusive observer" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 187). To minimise the obtrusiveness, arrangements were made to meet the participants and set the equipment in advance. The researcher, where possible, sat at the back of the classroom to be away from students' gaze. It was also helpful to locate the camera in a corner in the classrooms

Finally, another limitation could be related to the observer's paradox (Labov, 1972), which refers to modifications of language used by and an increase in the performance of participants when they are being observed (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Although precautions were taken to minimise any effect that the observation might have on the normal cycle of the teaching and learning process (as discussed above), it would be difficult to tell whether the observed groups acted naturally. However, it was reassuring that no negative feedback of any sort was received. Neither the teacher participants reported any change in student behaviours during the researcher's presence during the data collection process.

4.10 Data collection instruments

As the classroom can provide opportunities to find out how interaction leads to more student interaction, an exploratory qualitative approach to data collection was adopted, utilising naturalistic data collection methods. The instruments used to capture naturalistic data were video recordings of classroom interaction and interview data. This approach provided data grounded in its context with an inductive, bottom-up, data-driven, open-ended data analysis process.

4.10.1 Piloting stage for video and audio recording

The purpose of piloting was to validate data collection procedures and evaluate the data analysis process. First, the recording devices were tested to foresee any problems such as data loss, technical problems of equipment, and anything related to the inexperience of the researcher that might affect the usability of the data. A sample of 4-hour classroom data recorded in lessons taught by three different teachers was collected for the pilot study. Before the recording, the position of the camera and audio recorder was tested, attempting to choose the optimal setting for shooting, and optimal camera settings were adjusted. Another concern was related to technical equipment. They were checked for their durability and usefulness, and the testing proved that a backup battery was necessary for longer-duration shots.

4.10.2 Video recordings of classroom interaction

The primary research data is comprised of video and audio recordings of real classroom discourse. 31 hours of recording constitute the sample for the study. Each lesson was captured using an HD quality digital camcorder positioned in the front corners of every classroom and a voice recorder at the back of the classroom with the researcher to prevent any data loss due to students seated far from the camera. Although it seems more intrusive than audio, video recording, which has also become a standard for data collection in CA studies, offers better solutions for the appropriate type of data. In this study, there was a need to identify the speakers and the non-linguistic features, particularly those relevant to turns, such as hand-rising, gaze, and gesture. Therefore, it was crucial to incorporate these visual features into the analysis, although the verbal aspects of interaction were the primary concern for the study. A further advantage was the ease of transcribing a video-recorded lesson in terms of the richness of the data it would offer.

The recordings were initially reviewed extensively. The initial intention was to capture everything related to student talk in the classroom, as no decision was made regarding what context would be optimal for the study. Later, it became more evident that the focus was going to be on whole-group interactions, where the students seemed to struggle more than the interactions in smaller groups. Therefore, the relevant extracts were selected to be considered for transcription and analysis. The audio recording device was useful to prevent any data loss and eased the transcription process whenever the video recordings were unintelligible.

4.10.3 Piloting the semi-structured interview guide

The second data collection tool was a semi-structured interview protocol. The interview protocol was also tested to evaluate the quality of recordings, construction of interview questions, and participants' reactions to the interviewing process. After two 2-hour video-recorded sessions in a UK university classroom and two 2-hour videotaped sessions in a Turkish university classroom, 4 participants were interviewed. The interview accounts of 4 participants were audio-taped by a voice recorder.

The clarity of the questions was evaluated based on the feedback received from the participants. They reported that they needed clarification regarding certain expressions, such as 'whole-class teaching' or 'self-selection', because it was possible that they were not familiar with the technical counterparts of these standard classroom practices. Thus, such concepts were noted as technical concepts that needed to be explained. Additionally, some questions were omitted as they were unlikely to lead to the information sought. A few questions that emerged from participants' accounts and proved to be important were also added. Piloting also showed that some participants could behave timid, whereas some of them were more insightful about their experiences and more capable of providing long comments. Therefore, an accommodated strategy proved helpful for relatively quiet students.

4.10.4 Semi-structured interview

A relatively low structured protocol with open-ended questions was used to minimise the researcher's control of the process. The participation was voluntary; however, the decision was also made depending on students' participation level, which was identified based on researchers' notes during the observation process. Thus, at least one student from varying degrees of participation- low, relatively high, and high contributors- was

chosen to cover a broader spectrum of participants. However, this classification was not equally reflective of each group, as the low contributors mostly refused to participate in the interview. The figure summarises the interviewee profile in each country:

Figure 4.2: The number of the interviewee in each context
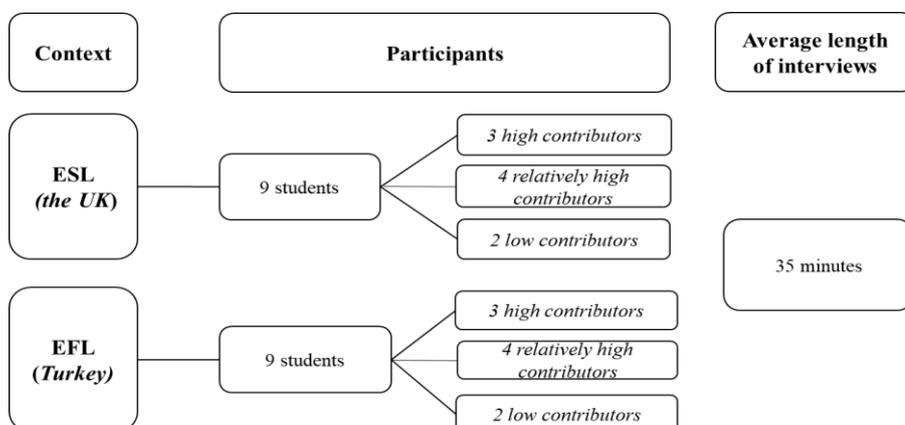
The length of the interviews ranged from 30 minutes to over 1 hour, with an average length of 35 minutes. Turkish participants were interviewed in their first language to reduce the linguistic and cognitive load. The proficiency of those participants was relatively lower compared to the participants in the UK context, and they expressed their concerns regarding using English during the interview. Therefore, the choice of communication language was partly out of necessity and to increase participation. It should also be noted that most Turkish students also inserted English words and sentences here and there during the interview.

4.11 Data analysis

The primary focus of this research is student-initiated participation during whole-group interactions in EAP classrooms. With this focus in mind, the analysis involved the examination of raw oral data, namely, the recordings of lessons and interview accounts of student participants. The following parts explicate the analysis process for each data set, respectively.

4.11.1 Data analysis procedures for videotaped lessons

It is a common practice in CA research to compose a large collection of a particular instance as a recurrent pattern and explicate it in detail (Wooffitt, 2005). In contrast, this study does not aim to identify a new practice but rather to develop our comprehension of an existing phenomenon in various EAP classrooms, namely student participation, in particular one aspect of student participation (how they initiate participation). The

analysis was guided by the aim of comprehensively describing student-initiated participation on a turn-by-turn basis during whole-group interactions to answer the first overarching research question.

Data Selection

As is the case with every CA research, the initial stage of analysis started with an "unmotivated looking" (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 9) that enables the analyst to notice any important phenomenon rather than searching for something predetermined. Although the interest was student participation, no specific focus was identified beforehand. The process involved watching videos repeatedly and transcribing the moments identified by bold student participation. The decision to focus on how students initiate participation during whole-group interactions was made. The interactions, where turn-taking rules were not pre-defined and where students were not nominated by someone else, provided cases where students-initiated communication by self-selecting themselves as the next speaker. The whole-group interactions in which students provided chorus responses, responded upon being nominated or followed a pre-defined turn-taking practice were disregarded because they would provide no basis for the analysis of students' self-selection practice whilst the primary focus was identifying the interactional places of these recurrent incidents. Therefore, these interactions were selected to be transcribed.

Transcription

After the data selection process, the next step was transcribing the data so that analysis could be carried out. The transcription process is the first analytical contact with the data itself, which is an in-depth exploration of the spoken data and, thus, the initial analysis. In CA tradition, it is underscored that transcription is not the data itself but the "detailed representation of sequential contexts to which participants observably orient" (Markee, 2015, p. 10). Nevertheless, it appears to be the only way of data representation and entails a great deal of consideration regarding the level of detail in transcription. The analysis depended on conceptualising the student-initiated participation focusing on turn-by-turn analysis. Thus, the investigation required representing the fine details of turn-taking and seeking devices that the speakers utilise, including different linguistic, suprasegmental, and paralinguistic features such as fillers, pauses, and gestures (Mondada, 2013).

For this aim, the selected interactions in videotaped lessons were transcribed using Jefferson's (2004) transcription notation system (See Appendix B). In addition, embodied

actions were transcribed following the conventions developed by Mondada (2019). Adopting those notation systems enabled the researcher to focus not only on 'what is said' but also 'how it is said', as well as 'what bodily actions accompany the talk'. The choice for using them was also due to two reasons. First, they offered ease of mind for the researcher as they have been widely used in CA research (ten Have, 2007). Second, the researcher was familiar with those conventions, which was time-saving due to her previous experience.

A few points regarding the transcription process in this study need to be mentioned. The first point concerns the titles of extracts. Throughout the study, the CA conventions were followed to name the extracts, as in the example below:

Extract 5.1: Really? [TR_A_GR1: Session 3]

In the example, the first number (Extract 5.1) stands for the number of chapters, and the latter is the order of extracts in the chapter, as in Chapter 5, Extract 1. Each extract was titled with a phrase/word/sentence (e.g. Really?), which served as a reminder of the main interactional practice in the interaction. Finally, the information in the brackets refers to the context and group of participants. For example, in TR_A_GR1, TR stands for Turkey, A for university A, and GR1 for group 1. The last bit is self-explanatory, the order of sessions observed in one group.

In addition, certain labels were used for participants for ease of transcription and to protect participants' identities. For students, for instance, S1, S2, S3 etc. were used in order of who spoke first, 'ss' for more than one student talking in overlap, and T represents teachers. A further convention regarding transcription relates to how talk-external details such as embodied actions were transcribed. The researcher's comments and students' embodied actions were provided in double parenthesis, and translation of L1 productions, if any, were provided right below the relevant L1 contribution and in italic.

Finally, to ensure accuracy in demonstrating the ongoing interaction, Elan software was used in order to represent the granular details such as turn onsets, timings, overlaps and pauses in the most accurate way. The software enabled utmost accuracy in measuring pauses and seeing the overlaps. The software also provides the researchers with an area of control to fine-grain bodily actions. A screenshot from the software is provided below:

Figure 4.3: Elan software
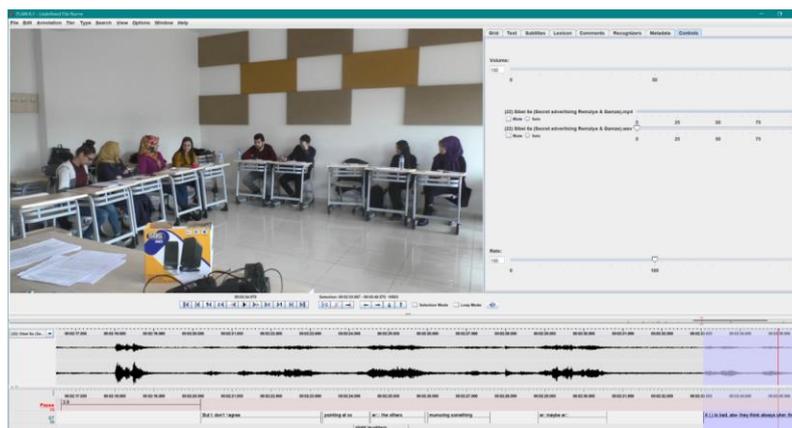
Moreover, as ten Have (2007) argues that transcription of interactions tends to be selective, the transcription of embodied actions in this study was also selective to focus on the non-verbal behaviours relevant to the analysis.

Analysis procedure

In CA convention, the analysis begins with the central question, "why that, in that language, right now" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 174). Following this procedure in the analytical process of this study, all extracts were analysed to understand how students initiate and organise their participation frameworks during the whole-group interactions. This was typically carried out with organisational practices of CA, including sequence organisation and, in particular, turn-taking. To identify the initiative act, the focus was on one specific turn-taking rule: self-selection. As the unit of focus in this study, an example of this particular technique is provided to clarify what is meant by the 'self-selection technique'. The extract is from Sacks et al. (1974):

Extract 5.1: Self-selection technique [Sacks et al., 1974, p. 703]

```
Jim:         Any a' you guys read that story about Walter Mitty?
Ken:    →    I did,
Roger:  →    Mm hmm
```

In this extract, Jim self-selects to direct a question. Jim has designed his turn in a way that addresses the entire group. Since there are multiple people in this conversation, and none of them has been singled out as the person being addressed, anyone can self-select to provide a response. Then, two self-selected turns by Ken and Roger have been identified. This indicates that self-selection can be observed when there is a solicit (Ken and Roger's turns) and without a solicit (Jim's turn). This definition of self-selection forms the basis of analysis in this study as well. The analysis, thus, depends on the criteria, including

those cases where students self-select to respond to a prompt or self-select to start a sequence without any prompt. Applying these two broad criteria resulted in a significant number of students' self-selections, which will be presented in the analysis chapters. In this collection, the cases in which students raised their hands to initiate an action were also considered self-selection and included in the collection because the focus was on their initiation in a sequence, not how they managed to perform the initiative act.

4.11.2 Procedure for analysis of interviews

The data were analysed thematically to answer how students made sense of their participation and the underlying reasons influential on their willingness to participate. Thematic analysis neither draws on any theoretical position nor is focused on theory development (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Being free from any theoretical ties, it provides flexibility while approaching data and aims to depict a rich and complex account (Ibid). Therefore, it offers a great advantage to the study to identify, analyse, and report patterns within data concerning students' participatory actions in the classrooms.

In the analytical process, the generic analytical moves for conducting a thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) were followed, namely, transcription, familiarisation with the data, coding, data display and interpretation, which are presented in the table below:

Table 4.3: A step-by-step procedure of interview analysis

Process	Description
1) Organising and managing data	Transcribing and classifying the electronic files.
2) Familiarisation with the data	Reading the written records repeatedly to find keywords, recurrent incidents, and writing memos.
3) Coding	Created categories by bulking the data into analysable units, namely, themes and descriptions. The coding process involves more than one round: 1. Initial coding: Everything that seems noteworthy is coded, and a list of codes is formed. 2. Searching for themes: Similar codes are merged, and broad categories of themes are reached.
4) Reviewing themes	Themes are further refined, and a map of themes is created.
5) Defining themes & displaying extracts	Introducing themes by presenting vivid extracts from the data.

The data analysis process began with transcribing the audio-taped files of interviews verbatim, which was the initial contact with the data. Transcribed interview accounts were formatted in Microsoft Word documents and were later categorised based on research sites (Turkish context and the UK context) to make it more manageable. The data organisation format is presented below:

Figure 4.4: Organization of the data files
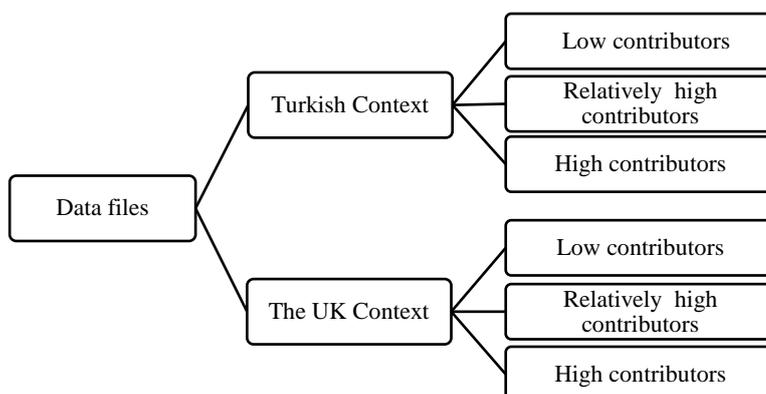
The files were transferred to the software called NVivo 12 for an easy and practical coding process because the software helps to keep the codes classified while enabling categorising the information. In the software, the developing themes are called "nodes", from which child nodes could be listed hierarchically. The software can also produce basic charts that eased the representation of descriptive data.

Next, the researcher began making herself familiar with the data, which had already started with the transcription. The familiarisation process involved engaging with the data actively by reading the written records repeatedly to find keywords, asking questions, and writing memos. The process, which is also recommended by several researchers (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Creswell, 2014), was fundamental to ensure that the researcher was ready to analytically label the data. The areas of interest in the interview guide were informed by the relevant literature. Therefore, the researcher had ideas as to what nodes (codes) could be developed tentatively. The familiarisation process also helped to see the emergent codes.

The further step was the coding stage, which involved bulking the data into smaller categories and labelling them. The areas of interest were broadly listed as follows:

- Their thoughts on their actions, i.e., their sense of agency,
- why they chose to speak out, more precisely self-select or
- why they remain silent.

115

During the coding process, every segment or chunk that seemed noteworthy in relation to the areas listed above was coded to answer the question. An appropriate array of coding approaches was used in accordance with the aims of the research question. A deductive approach was adopted when the unit of data selected for coding reflected the same interpretation identified in the literature regarding the factors influential on students' participation. For example, factors such as topic interest, motivation, teacher role, and classroom dynamics, which affect students' willingness to participate in classroom discourse, have been reported in previous research (e.g., Cao & Philp, 2006; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima et al., 2018). Therefore, these labels borrowed from the literature were used to tag the data in this study. Likewise, some chunks of data required customised codes to answer specific research questions. As a result, some codes (i.e., students' sense of agency and enacted agency) were developed for this study. For example, students' sense of agency was divided into three sub-categories depending on how they felt about their actions, and the resulting child codes were triumph moments, contentment, and dissatisfaction.

The coding process carried on until all the data was coded. The next step of the coding process, which is searching for the themes, was themeing the data (Saldaña, 2013). A theme is not a code in itself but "an outcome of coding, categorisation, and analytic reflection" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 175). Themeing the data involved a comparative process in which the whole corpus of codes was reviewed, the relationships were considered, and similarities and differences were identified. Similar codes were merged till a meaningful description for the codes was reached. For example, the teacher role and peer role merged under the tag 'interlocutor'. Interlocutor, topic, and classroom dynamic were further classified as contextual factors. Likewise, sense of agency and enacted agency were labelled as 'agency'.

The fourth stage involved reviewing and refining the themes. After the last round of the revision process of codes, codes were clustered based on their ties. This process produced two broad themes that emerged from the data: students' agency and students' willingness to initiate communication in L2 classrooms. Eventually, a list of codes with descriptions and examples from the data was generated to detect if there was any ambiguity.

Once the process of refining the themes was completed, the reliability of the coding scheme needed to be assessed. The intra-rater reliability rate, which is the rater's self-consistency in rating the same behaviour over time, was measured. To calculate intra-

rater agreement, the researcher coded some random data drawn from each group of participants from each context at different intervals (2-month period) to detect the consistency of coding. The coding correlation agreement was 0.91. As a result of the reliability test, two areas of dispute were identified. One is about how the existing codes were organised, i.e., overlapping child codes that could be merged under a parent code. The 'teaching style' of the teacher was initially treated as a separate node under the parent node 'contextual factors'. This particular code was placed as a child node under the 'teacher factor'. In addition, 'classmates' and 'the teacher' were initially treated as separate sub-themes as contextual factors affecting student participation; however, they were merged under the sub-theme 'interlocutors', which encompassed all speaking parties.

The second issue concerned how the themes used reflected the data coded. One change was needed regarding the name of a particular code (later referred to as a sub-theme): perceived interactional opportunity, as referred to in the literature, to define students' perception of available opportunities to contribute. This sub-theme was renamed "students' preference for interactional opportunities", which was considered a better fit for the description of how students acted based on their perception of the best timing to contribute to classroom interactions. An example is provided from the pilot data:

> I just wanted to contribute so that teacher would not be the only person who was speaking, so maybe they would feel encouraged by my initiative too.

In this quote, it seems that the student was the first individual who responded to the teacher's prompts. His taking initiative seems to be rooted in his desire to fill the gap of silence and not to leave the teacher alone while hoping to encourage his friends. This indicates his preference for the timing of his self-selected turn, which would not be described by "perceived interactional opportunity", which indicates lesser control over interactional opportunities.

4.12 Trustworthiness

This section describes measures considered to ensure the trustworthiness of this research. It should be noted that the discussed issues particularly concern the interview data because validity and reliability issues regarding CA analysis were extensively covered in section 4.5.5. The nature of qualitative data differs in many ways from quantitative research; therefore, alternative concepts were proposed instead of the constructs of validity and

reliability (Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, the level of rigour in qualitative research involves four components, namely credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2012).

Credibility is a parallel criterion for its quantitative counterpart, internal validity. Several techniques have been suggested to ensure the credibility of the findings, including triangulation, member checking, and reflexivity. Mackey and Gass (2012) suggest that using supplementary data collection methods helps provide a more accurate picture, as they offer multiple perspectives. The study relies on multiple data sources (recording and interviews) to present a more comprehensive and multi-layered description and corroborative evidence.

Another criterion for credibility is "collecting data in as many contexts and situations as possible to make certain that the picture provided in the research is as full and complete as it can be" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 180). The data sample is representative of different cultural and institutional settings. However, it should be noted that this representativeness is not in number but underscores that the same analysis was carried out in different contexts with a small number of people. It is hoped that the findings in the study could be applied to similar language classrooms.

A further step to improve the credibility of research is through member-checking and reliability checks (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Member checking refers to "a quality control process by which a researcher seeks to improve the accuracy, credibility and validity of what has been recorded during a research interview" (Harper & Cole, 2012, p. 1). All participants were offered the opportunity to review the transcripts once they were ready to change or add any comments they made on the written records, as well as provide any corrections to the interpretations of the researcher. This was done during the interview by asking confirmation questions multiple times and at the end of the data collection period with separate meetings with every participant. This informant feedback, also known as respondent validation or member checking, was offered to improve the accuracy of the transcripts, and thus maintain credibility of the research data. It was also a mark of respect for participants and allowed them to feel a sense of inclusion.

In addition, intra-rater reliability checks were performed many times, and the process of intra-rater checking continued until the end of the writing process. However, the interrater reliability check was not performed because the process involved raters immersing themselves in the classroom recordings as there were many references to the specific

moments in the observed classrooms, and the co-constructed interview data by the researcher and the participants might be challenging to decode by an outsider. Additionally, it required familiarity with the type of analysis carried out in this study. Given that it is difficult to find people familiar with this particular research topic, it would require intense training and time on the interrater coder. Another reason was COVID-19 restrictions which involved the closure of the university and a lockdown process at the time of the data analysis and caused a lack of communication among colleagues. As a result, the researcher did not have an appropriate context or timing to carry out the inter-rater reliability check.

Transferability/external validity in qualitative research is ensured by providing a comprehensive and thick description of the context (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Guba, 1981). The purpose of the thick description is to create "verisimilitude statements that produce for the readers the feeling that they have experienced or could experience, the events being described in a study" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 129). In other words, it would help others to decide whether the results can be transferred to their contexts, depending on the similarities. Using multiple methods in this study enabled different sources of data to enhance the descriptions. A dense and detailed description of contexts, participants, and interaction episodes, locating them in a wider context through detailed information of lessons, was provided. Students' comments on their actions were particularly cross-referenced with the interactions when possible.

Also known as reliability in quantitative research, dependability refers to the consistency of the analysis and findings. It concerns whether the same results are expected if the research was to be repeated (Guba, 1981). In qualitative research, dependability can be obtained through detailed descriptions of procedures followed during data collection and analysis. Throughout the current chapter, the procedures were explicated and justified. Multiple data sources provided a valuable means to confirm and backcheck the interpretation of data.

Confirmability refers to "the neutrality of the findings" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 56), i.e., the objectivity of the research. In qualitative research, objectivity involves monitoring the extent to which the researcher's pre-established beliefs influence the interpretation of data (Guba, 1981). Ensuring confirmability requires transparently communicating the findings, providing evidence for the interpretations, and practising reflexivity (Ibid). To sustain confirmability in this study, the details of the analytical process to the fullest were

provided. Finally, the researcher's reflexivity is another procedure where the researchers "self-disclose their assumptions, beliefs and biases" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 127). Note that while the researcher recognises her influence on the process, any instances of biased interpretation and reporting were avoided as much as possible. Further details regarding the researcher's role were discussed in the previous section, 4.9.

4.13 Summary

This chapter has addressed the methodological processes of the study, including the context, participants, and data collection and analysis procedures. The purpose was to ensure the process was communicated in dense detail and transparently to fully inform the reader. In addition, important issues such as ethical considerations, transcription of talk, and the issues of trustworthiness have been discussed. The following two chapters are result chapters that present the analysis of data.

5 Conversation analytic investigation of student-initiated participation

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings related to the first research question, 'what is the nature and role of student-initiated participation during whole-group interactions in university EAP classrooms?'. Thus, it investigates and unpacks how students secure speaking rights through the practice of self-selection to locally participate in various micro-contexts in L2 classroom interaction, employing multimodal resources, i.e., verbal and embodied actions (Mortensen, 2008; Schegloff, 1998). By carrying out a turn-by-turn analysis of student participation focusing on the self-selection practice, the chapter demonstrates how students' self-selections in different sequential positions can lead to alternative participatory frameworks. More specifically, an outline of cases where students (1) initiate an action and (2) how they respond to initiating actions is presented. Additionally, with a focus on the interactional consequences of students' self-selections, the analysis also demonstrates (3) how these self-selections are oriented by co-participants and to what extent they can influence the trajectory of the interaction and learning activities.

The study defined student-initiated participation by the difference in the sequential position of students' self-selected turns. The difference in their sequential position generated two main repetitive patterns of student-initiated participation in the data: 1) Solicited student-initiated participation as a responsive action, and 2) unsolicited student-initiated participation as an initiative action. As section 5.2 presents, their self-selection to perform a responsive action, hereafter referred to as solicited student-initiated participation. It is argued that those solicited self-selections were projected by the prior turn that defined the design and boundaries of solicited initiations. The analysis also shows that these initiations were expected to be affiliative with the prior turn to maintain the progressivity of the talk (Stivers & Robinson, 2006).

Students' self-selections to initiate an action, on the other hand, referred to those where they self-selected in the absence of a prompt and hence were called unsolicited student-initiated participation. It is argued that unsolicited student initiations can positively impact the trajectory of interaction and learning activities by creating interactional space for discussions, inquiries, criticality and reflections. This pattern is covered and exemplified with extracts from the data in section 5.3. The chapter concludes with a summary of the main observations in Section 5.4.

5.2 Solicited student-initiated participation

The most descriptive characteristic of solicited student-initiated participation was the way they were composed, which formed the basis for their identification. They were designed in response to a previous turn-at-talk. The specific feature in this pattern is the presence of a general invitation made by the teacher or, in some cases, a student in control of the activity. It can be argued that these self-selections are not initiatives on the grounds that they are responsive in nature. However, the analysis showed that students acted on their 'will' when there was no speaker nomination. It also underscores that their initiating turns were an indication of students' enacted willingness to participate in classroom interactions.

The analysis generated four types of solicited student initiations. The difference between these four sub-groups lies in their functions through which students perform an action in interaction. The table below illustrates the typology of solicited student initiations:

Table 5.1: Typology of solicited student-initiated participation in EAP classrooms

	Volunteering a response	Volunteering for initiation	Interjected Initiation	Disjunctive Initiation
Sequence initiating	x	✓	x	✓
Position in sequence	The SPP (Responding to the base FPP)	The FPP/SPP (In response to the base FPP)	The SPP (Responding to the base FPP)	The SPP/FPP (Responding to the base FPP)

Volunteering a response referred to the cases where students' response was conditionally made relevant by the prior turn, and students provided an expected response type to a teacher/student prompt. Volunteering for initiation was slightly different in the sense that the students were invited to contribute; however, they decided the content of their responses, such as asking a question in response to the teacher's prompt. Interjection involved cases where students volunteered to respond to a prompt designed for another individual. The last sub-group is disjunctive initiations which were unfitted to the initiating action in the prior turn, making them unprojected actions.

As to the frequency, these sub-groups were not evenly distributed in the data. The tables below show the percentages of solicited student initiations across sub-groups in EFL and ESL datasets, respectively. Table 5.2 presents the number of solicited student self-

selections in the EFL context. Out of 550 self-selections, 47.7% of these turns accounts for solicited student initiations.

Table 5.2: Frequencies of solicited student initiation types in EFL setting [out of 100%, n=550]

	Volunteering a response	Volunteering for initiation	Interjection	Disjunctive	Total
Number	221	12	11	18	262
Percentage	40.2%	2.2%	2.0%	3.3%	47.7%

Out of a total of 262 cases, volunteering a response can be singled out easily with a considerably higher percentage than the other three types. Volunteering for initiation covered a minimal amount of data with only a few cases. The interjection group (1.97%) involved only 11 incidents, and disjunctive initiations accounted for 3.05% of all initiations.

Table 5.3 presents the number of solicited student self-selections in the ESL contexts, where 689 cases were recorded.

Table 5.3: Frequencies of solicited student initiation types in ESL setting [out of 100%, n=689]

	Volunteering a response	Volunteering for initiation	Interjection	Disjunctive	Total
Number	223	17	17	35	292
Percentage	32.4%	2.5%	2.5%	5.0%	42.4%

The same pattern was observed in the EAP classrooms in UK university settings. Volunteering a response was noted to be frequently exercised solicited initiation sub-group accounting for 30.91% of all initiations, whereas the other three solicited initiation types showed minimal occurrences ranging from 1-5%.

The number of the sub-group volunteering a response in both socio-cultural contexts could be partly attributed to the fact that teachers generally control the interactions and exploit the invitation to reply turn-allocation procedure in classrooms. Students, thus, could be said to design their participation frameworks in response to teacher prompts. Furthermore, the fewer occurrence of interjection and disjunctive types was not surprising either since they are initiative actions that have not been sequentially projected. Particularly, interjection would be accepted neither in mundane conversations nor in classroom talk because it does not follow rules of politeness (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990).

The following sub-sections demonstrate these sub-groups of solicited initiations with examples from the data.

5.2.1 Volunteering a response

This type was the most frequent subtype of solicited student initiations across both datasets, as Table 5.2 and Table 5.3 illustrate. Solicited student initiation for volunteering a response falls in what Waring (2011) calls 'Type B (step in)'. In this initiative, students self-selected to respond to a prompt produced by the teacher or another student who addressed the entire class. The cases involved instances where students bid to reply or reply directly to a prompt. Mehan (1979) suggested that students must decide if the teacher's turn is designed as an invitation to bid as part of the initiation act or as an invitation to reply and design their turns accordingly. In this study, students rarely treated teacher turn as an "invitation to bid", which requires students to deploy non-linguistic resources such as hand-raising or vocal turn constructional units such as "May I ask …?".

As Table 5.4 below reveals, the number of times students bid a turn was not many relative to replying directly. The embodied turn-seeking practice, i.e., hand-raising, accounted for only 14% of all responsive actions performed by students. The hand rising practice was mainly performed to keep the floor to themselves rather than in response to the teacher's invitation to bid. Students' hand-raising and the teacher's nomination of the bidder compose a basic sequence, i.e., an adjacency pair. In other words, embodied turn where students raised their hands normatively projected a second pair part in which the teacher nominates one of the bidders or the only bidder. This unit can also be conceptualised as an insert-expansion sequence (Schegloff, 2007). The analysis showed that this insertion unit was sometimes not completed. The reason was that the students mostly chose to begin talking after or during raising a hand without waiting for the teacher's nomination.

Table 5.4: Frequency of students' ways of entry to interaction for responsive actions

Number of times students replied directly		238 (82%)
Number of times students bid a turn to reply	Via embodied turn, i.e., hand-rising,	41 (14%)
	Via verbal TCU	10 (4%)

They rarely launched a pre-sequence to verbally express their intention to respond as in the example from the data: "I can start err I would like to choose ...", in which the student does not wait for a verbal "go-ahead" response but instead announces that she would

respond and continues her turn. Replying directly was the dominantly exercised turn-seeking practice with the highest percentage, 82%. In other words, Students' overreliance on replying directly could be attributed to their age, educational level, and the small number of students, which lessens the need to display an explicit embodied action as part of an initiation act.

The first pair-part "sets constraints on what should be done in a next turn" (Sacks et al., 1974, p. 717). Therefore, the design of the teacher turns whereby they produced prompts predominantly influenced and shaped students' entry to interaction. In return, how these prompts were designed and where they were positioned in a sequence led to variations in solicited student-initiated participation patterns. The figure below summarizes the patterns observed:

Figure 5.1: Patterns of solicited student initiation for volunteering a response

(1)	Prompt → S1 → Prompt/follow-up→ S1/2→ Assessment/Prompt
(2)	Prompt → S1→ S2→Sn→ Assessment/Prompt
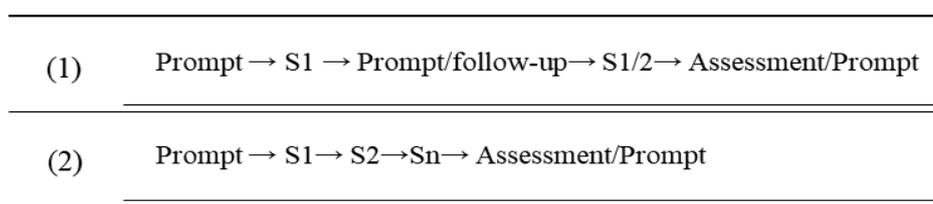
As the figure illustrates, the first pattern was frequently observed when one student's response was found sufficient. Then, the teacher would move on to the next, and the cycle would continue. This sequence series resulted in strings of small sequences, forming the pattern T→ S1 → T → S1/S2, aka the IRF.

Deviation from this pattern was also observed, which led to another typical pattern in the data: T(prompt) → S1→ S2→S3, a successive string of solicited initiations to volunteer a response. The teacher's third turn usually provides an assessment that either accepts or rejects students' answers (Mehan, 1979; McHoul, 1978). When accepted, another sequence is initiated; when rejected sequence can be expanded. However, what is interesting is when the teacher neither accepts nor rejects student responses. In the study, teachers' withholding the assessment move and delaying the third position sequence led to successive solicited student turns that provided candidate answers. The extracts below illustrate each pattern; Extracts 5.1 and 5.2 exemplify the first pattern, and Extracts 5.3 is an example of the second pattern.

Volunteering for a response within the IRF sequence (T→ S1 → T → S1/S2)

In Extract 5.1, the objective of the task is to clarify the difference between claim and fact and how to integrate them in academic essays correctly. To that end, the task involves statements that are to be identified by students either as a fact or a claim. The extract comes from the beginning of the task. The teacher starts by ensuring that students can distinguish between the two terms before moving on to the task.

Extract 5.1: What is a claim? [UK_D_GR5: Session 1]

```
1    T:    ↑BUt first of a:ll, we need to establish (.6) that we
2          all clear (1.4) what a claim is (2.5) ↑Where in a
3          paragraph would you generally find a claim?
4          (21.0)
5    T:    what is a ↑clai::m?
6          (2.5)
7    S1:→  a statement or judgement ◦I think◦
8    T:    a statement o::f:?
9          (.6)
10   T:    what kind of statement?
11         (4.2)
12   S1:   mm:: of anything [uhuhu hu heh I don't know
13   T:                     [uhuhuh heh
14         (2.9)
15   T:    what does it represent? It is a statement, a clai::m,
16         (   ) a statement represents ↑what?
17         (3.4)
18   S2:→  the general idea?=
19   T:    =yeah the main idea ↓isn't it (.) It's an expressio:n
20         (.2) o::f a ma:in idea so where: in a paragraph
21         are you going to ↑find that?
22         (2.2)
23   S3:→  in the first part?=
24   T:    =yeah the first part, yeah? It's <rea::lly another
25         way of saying a topic ↓sentence, (1.6) ↑yeah? (.8)
26         u:sually, at the very beginning of a paragraph, (.)
27         ↑not always:, sometimes it is at the end of a
28         paragraph where it kinda summarizes the main ↓claim.
29         (7.6)
30   T:    tsch ↑is it the same as a fact?
31         (4.0)
32   S2:→  ◦no◦
33   T:    No?
34         (1.3)
35   T:    what is the difference?
36         (11.0)+(0.8)
37   S3:→       +raises hand+
38   T:    yeah.
39   S3:   er:: there is evidence for a fact (1.0) and the claim
40         is something (.) you need to prove:?
41         (1.2)
42   S3:   [◦so you need- ◦
43   T:    [↑by using evidence?=
```

```
44  S3:  =yeah by using evidence or  (3.2) o:kay:: uhhuh I
45       th<u>in</u>k it is something more:: (.) more broader it can
46       be true and it can be false (   ) so.
```

The teacher's prompt regarding the position of a claim in a paragraph (lines 02-03) is a known-answer question (Schegloff, 2007) designed to invite student participation in order to request knowledge display. Here, the teacher's question makes an answer relevant in the immediate next turn. However, no student proceeds to take a turn despite a substantially long waiting time (21 seconds in line 04). This "noticeable/official absence" (Schegloff, 2007, p. 20) of a responsive action signals trouble that halts the progressivity of the interaction and delays the works of the classroom moving forward. Here, as the pursuer of an answer, the teacher has to perform extra interactional work to keep the task moving along. Thus, she provides a further prompt (line 05), reverting back to the main question regarding the definition of a claim in 02. However, nothing comes for over two seconds; hereafter, S1 self-selects to produce a response, which is then treated as less than acceptable. Insufficient responses are most likely to be extended with solicits that ask for further explanation (Mehan, 1979; Lerner, 1995), which is also the case at this moment in interaction. The teacher stays with the same student, recycles S1's words and produces a half constructional unit halting at a point that requires S1 to complete the turn (line 08). Such recognizably grammatically incomplete TCUs with a rising and continuing intonation contour index teacher request for elicitations from students to complete the TCU (Koshik, 2002). Without waiting long enough for the student response, the teacher expands her turn with a reformulation of the same question to make explicit what is expected in the next turn: "what kind of statement". After S1's report of insufficient knowledge, the teacher has no option but to reformulate the question and direct it to the whole group. S2 self-selects in line 18 but provides a hesitant response, as indicated in her questioning tone. This student has been regarded as the representative of the class as a single unit (Lerner, 1993). Therefore, the teacher accepts this as a valid description and does not elicit elaboration or alternative responses, marking the end of the sequence.

The teacher then launches another question-answer sequence by reinitiating the topic regarding the position of a claim in a paragraph (lines 20-21). After a 2.2-second pause, S3 provides a tentative but correct response in line 23, which is indicated by her questioning tone that awaits teacher confirmation or acceptance. And teacher evaluation in the form of acceptance of the student's answer proceeds. So far, the teacher questions are designed in a way that builds on student responses to construct an explanation of what

a claim is. Once the teacher finds a single student's answer sufficient, she makes a transition to the next point by launching another question. The fact that she does not elicit other responses from other students (e.g., by asking questions like "anybody else?") strongly indicates that her aim is not to discuss but to request knowledge display.

After defining 'claim' and where it can be found in a paragraph, the teacher introduces the second term, "fact". A brief yes/no question by the teacher in line 30 receives a weak response "no" in line 32 from S2 after a relatively long silence. The teacher produces a tacit request for further elaboration by repeating S2's response in line 32. When S2 does not take the opportunity to contribute further, the teacher introduces another prompt to elicit a response, "what is the difference?". However, no one volunteers for an extended period of waiting time. The silence is cracked by a student's intent to talk, hand rising in line 37. After the teacher's go-ahead response, S3 explains the difference (lines 39-40), which ends in a slightly hesitant tone that seeks the teacher's confirmation. Since sequence organization in classroom interaction differs from mundane talks, a student response would typically make a teacher's third turn conditionally relevant. At this moment, the teacher does not react immediately, delaying the evaluation move for 1.2 seconds (line 41). When not receiving a reaction to her response and confirmation request, S3 seems to feel obliged to 'keep going' and attempts to extend her response. However, it overlaps with the teacher's turn, designed as a completion (Lerner, 1995) of S3's prior turn. At the end of the teacher's turn, the rising intonation indexes the completion as a follow-up question that projects either a rejection or acceptance. S3 accepts the teacher's production of completion and expands her turn by providing further explanation. The interaction moves along in the same manner of sequence structure for the rest of the task.

In sum, this particular segment shows the prevailing organic sequence organization in the classroom interaction: the three-part exchange sequence (the IRF). The generic teacher solicitations in those sequences usually are known-answer questions (Schegloff, 2007, p. 223) that lead to IRF patterns. This pattern was observed more commonly when the prompts were known-answer questions that requested knowledge displays and when the teacher's agenda mainly was to check the understanding/accuracy of student knowledge before moving on to the next task. The teacher questions in this extract might create participation opportunities for students by inviting them to share the floor and guiding them to reach pre-defined responses. Nevertheless, it is difficult to describe them as scaffolds but instead, evaluation moves of the triadic sequence because they are designed

to keep student contributions within the closed discourse format of the IRF (van Lier, 1996).

The same pattern was also found in sequences of unknown-answer questions when the objective was to trigger students' critical thinking and discussion skills rather than to request knowledge displays. Particularly, those questions/prompts (e.g., 'what do you think....?') commonly pertained to opinion-oriented interactions such as discussion tasks, which are referred to as fluency-based contexts (Seedhouse, 2004c). In those interactional contexts, students self-selected to express their opinions and arguments. However, it was noted that their contributions remained disconnected, stand-alone opinions that were only linked within the topical sense. Extract 5.2 illustrates an example of such cases. The extract comes from a post-listening discussion about the consequences of building a highway in a national park located at the crossroad of the wildebeests. The goal of the task is to develop students' critical thinking by providing arguments in favour of or against an idea, as the teacher's question through lines 01-08 indicates. The turns that are the centre of attention are in bold.

Extract 5.2: migration of wildebeest [TR_B_GR1: Session 1]

```
01  T:    ↑recently the government of Tanzania wanted to build
02        a highway across the serenity national Park (.2)
03        ↑Road would have cut across the migration of the
04        wildebeest, (.3) what arguments could be made against
05        building this highway (.)what arguments could be made
06        in: favour of building it.
07        (.9)
08  T:    do you have arguments for or against it?=
09  S3:→  =yeah, actually because of this highway (.) maybe
10        they cannot move another place and they cannot (.2)
11        find any foo:d, water, so maybe they: cannot continue
12        their lives [it's (                        )]
13  T:                [uh hm they may become extinct] ↓dimi
                                                      ↓innit
14  S3:   yeah ((nodes her head))
15  T:    Uh huh.
16  S6:→  it will cause chaos, maybe.
17        (0.5)*(0.8)
18  T:         *raising her eyebrow*
19  S6:   ↑it will cause a chaos.
20  S6:   yeah
21  T:    ↑chaos, uh ↑huh, [among the wildebeest ↑uh huh
22  S6:→                   [yeah because of the circle get
23        damaged [er:: instinc(.)tively,] instinctively so=
24  T:            [uh hmm, uh hm, uh hm. ]
25  T:    =uh huh because it's m:- probably it's from their
26        nature [they will still try to: migrate uh huh=
27  S6:          [yeah
```

```
28  T:    =an:d there might be some accidents, (1.1) causing
29        +loss: of people and animal+s
30  S7 →  +raises hand            +
31  S7:   maybe they will- they will adopt the new nature
32        and they will find new sour[ces.
33  S2:                              [yeah
34  S7: → chan[ge of route.
35  T:        [maybe: possible so it can be so yeah
```

Immediately latched to the teacher's reformulated question in line 08, S3 self-selects to argue against building a highway claiming it would lead to the extinction of the wildebeest. In the middle of this student's talk, the teacher overlaps and accepts the student's argument by reformulating it. Since the teacher's turn ends with a tag question "↓dimi" (meaning 'innit') in a falling intonation, formulated to elicit a preferred response, S3 produce a confirmatory "yeah" accompanied by embodied action, head nod in line 14. Rather than expanding the sequence by inviting other students to add to S3's argument, the teacher seems to close the sequence somehow prematurely with a non-minimal post-expansion "Uh huh." in line 15 to indicate acceptance and understanding of the student talk in the previous sequences (Schegloff, 1981).

Sequence closure is treated as a turn transition relevance place by other students. Therefore, it is observed that S6 self-selects to express her position towards building the highway. It seems that S6's self-selection has been premature because it fails to secure a mutual gaze with the recipient in the construction of a turn (Goodwin, 1980). Without such embodied work, participants might need to launch an insert expansion to perform repair work in order to establish intersubjective understanding (Schegloff, 1992). Here too, the teacher launches a repair sequence directing her gaze towards the speaker with raising eyebrows to indicate some sort of inadequacy in the prior turn. Thus, S6 repeats what has been said in her earlier turn, only more loudly. Despite arguing against it, S6's talk shows no alignment with neither S3's argument nor the teacher talk in the prior turn. At the end of her turn, the intonation contour indicates no further talk is about to come. She also produces a confirmation token "yeah" in the following line, which further signals turn ending and projects a teacher turn for evaluation. It receives a half reformulation from the teacher in line 21 that accepts the S6's response and ends the turn with "Uh huh" to indicate attention and encouragement to elicit more. Thus, it seems that S6 treats the first "Uh huh" as an encouragement token in the middle of the teacher's turn and launches her turn immediately after this moment, which leads to an overlap (lines 21-22). While S6 provides further elaboration, the teacher repeatedly produces the same token in various formats to display attention and engagement with S6's argument (line 24). Since S6 ends

her talk with the turn-final conjunction "so" (Walker, 2012), the teacher picks up to reformulate S6's response. In addition, she further elaborates on behalf of the student. If the teacher had expanded the sequence by requesting further elaboration rather than doing it herself, she might have opened up the classroom discourse for S6 and potentially other students, ensuring their inclusion (Hardman, 2016). She then closes down the sequence and moves on to the next student, who puts his hand up in the middle of the teacher's turn. Upon receiving a non-vocal go-ahead token from the teacher, S7 produces a response favouring building a highway, which receives support from another student, S2, in line 33. However, the teacher ignores S2's aligning turn with S7, and when S7 concludes his turn, the teacher provides a sequence-closing remark in line 35 and moves on to the next student.

The teacher could have incorporated S2's alignment token "yeah" to trigger a more interactive discussion, which could have moved out of the Initiation-Response-Feedback strings (Waring, 2009) and created a more constructive opinion-sharing task context. Additionally, she could have invited those who disagreed with S2 and S7 to expand the circle of participants with varying opinions. It could make it more of a discussion task to develop students' critical skills. Nevertheless, the interaction in a fluency-based context remains teacher-directed as a result of the design of the teacher's third turn.

Volunteering for a response forming successive initiations

As noted above, the second pattern involved cases when students initiated a responsive action one after another, which led to a more open discourse format: Prompt → S1→ S2→S3→ Assessment/Prompt. This pattern is tied to the teacher's third turn, which leads to substantial variations in sequence organization (Schegloff, 2007). When teachers delay or withhold their third position turn (the E or F move within an IRF) or invite others to build on the prior turn rather than providing an assessment, a string of successive solicited student initiations to volunteer a response can follow.

Extract 5.3 below involves examples of students' solicited initiations following a teacher invitation to comment on the prior turn and when the teacher delays the third turn to provide an assessment. The extract comes from the beginning of the interaction in which the class is discussing the use of tag questions before moving on to the main task, identifying intonation contour in provided tag question sentences. A few lines are omitted due to space limitations, and the interaction is provided in two parts for the ease of the readers.

Extract 5.3: Tag Questions [TR_A_GR1: Session 2]

Part 1: Asking people's opinions

```
1    T:    Why: do we use it?
2          (15.0)
3    S1:→  er:: (.5) to ask (1.0) °person's opinion.°
4          (.5)
5    T:    to ask people's ↑opinion (.3) hm[:
6    S2:→                                   [No:
7          (1.3)
8    S3:→  .hh [to be: approved (.9) er: (.5) approved
9    T:        [No:?
10   T:    approve hm: ↑to get approval
11   S3:   °yes° ((slight head nod))
12   T:    o:kay:: (.) which one (.) to get people's opinions
13         or: to get app↓roval?
14   S2:   °to ge[t approval°
15   S1:         [Both (S)
16   (s)   to get approval
17   T:    to get app↓roval (.9) hm: ↑can't I ask people's
18         opinions?
19   S4:   we ca:↑n.
20   T:    we can: uh huh heh
21   S1:   uh huh £yes£
22   T:    Do you agree::?
23         (.8)
24   T:  Nobody +agrees with ↑Nilgun?+
25            +pointing at S1,#1    +
26   S1:   *↑£real(hh)ly:: Uheh huh *
27         *with palms facing up, #2*
28   S3:   yes:: [(  )-
29   S2:→        [it is beautiful, ↑isn't it? (.) yes there
30         is opinion actually
31   T:    yeah you're asking people's opinion (.)it is a ↑nice
32         dre↓ss, ↑isn't it? (.) ↑so you ask their opinion
33         what they think about it
```


#1   #2   #3

The interaction begins with a teacher solicitation that seeks to check students'
understanding of tag question forms in line 01. After a substantially long silence, S1 self-
selects in order to reply, followed by a teacher turn that merely repeats the student's
response (line 03). The repetition in the teacher's follow-up move does not perform any
evaluative action but indicates the teacher's understanding of the response. Then, after a
short intra-turn pause, the teacher produces a passive recipiency token "hm::."

(Jefferson, 1981; Schegloff, 2010) with a stretching, which signals an agnostic stance towards validating S1's response. This way, the teacher leaves the response channel open for the others to chip in, creating opportunities for participation and elaboration.

The lack of a strong form of validation of S1's answer might also project a counter-response, as in line 06. S2 produces a rejection of the prior turn with a firm "`No:`" that overlaps with the teacher's turn ending. Although there is interactional availability, as indicated by 1.3 seconds of silence, S2 does not take her rejection further. Therefore, the teacher follows up on this rejection in line 09, seeking elaboration. However, it overlaps with S3's turn, which has already started, and S2 loses the floor. S3 produces another candidate response in line 08. The teacher again displays an agnostic epistemic position towards S3's response. First, she produces a partial repeat followed by the same weak acknowledgement token "`hm:`" and, after that, an implicit corrective reformulation of S3's response. So far, the teacher has not revealed the correct answer. After S3 has confirmed the teacher's understanding, the teacher inserts the token "`okay`", which seems to function as a transition point to the next solicitation.

Having received two candidate responses to her question in line 01, the teacher keeps withholding the assessment move and extends the sequence by launching a two-option interrogative which constrains the response options (Raymond, 2011). This interrogative is designed in a way that puts the S1's (line 03) and S3's (line 08) responses to a validity test. By inviting others to provide validity judgements, the teacher creates participation opportunities and leads them to reach a consensus. While two students choose "to get approval", S1 produces a different answer that is not projected by the wh-question "`Both`". However, since S1's reply is uttered in an overlap, it neither accomplishes what it has set out to do nor has been heard by others. Instead, the teacher orients to the students' replies in lines 14 and 16 by producing a repetition followed by the same weak acknowledgement token in line 17. However, she also produces a yes-preferred question (Heritage & Raymond, 2012; Raymond, 2011), "`can't I ask people's opinions?`", which leads the students to reconsider the possibility of both options (lines 16-17). It also takes the students back to the beginning when they have not yet been asked to choose between the two responses in line 9. This further complicates reaching a consensus for a sufficient response. S4 and S1 produce "yes" responses in accordance with the teacher's yes-preferred question. S4's intonation contour stimulates touches of laughter in the subsequent lines (lines 19-20).

In line 22, the teacher invites the whole group to express either agreement or disagreement. Shortly after, she reframes the question in a declarative form by tying it back to S1's earlier response in line 03. This way, she craftily frees herself from displaying an epistemic stance. As figure 1 shows, her embodied conduct also indexes the connection between the question and S1. S1's confirmation checking in a playful tone accompanied by hand gestures also supports that S1 owns her response while expressing surprise and even disappointment due to her peers' inability to produce an affiliative response.

Nevertheless, the teacher's question has a preference organization and projects an affiliative action with S1's response. It can be seen in lines 28-29, in which two students express agreement. Particularly, S2's response provides an example sentence and shows alignment with S1. For the first time, the teacher confirms this student response by a confirmation token "yeah", followed by a reformulation of the student response. Additionally, she elaborates on the example and firmly establishes that the tag question form can be used to ask people's opinions. However, the problem still persists because students need to unpack the next part of the discussion: whether tag questions can be used "to get people's approval/support" or not, which is seemingly addressed by the teacher in lines 34-36 in part 2 below.

Part 2: To get people's approval despite knowing the answer

```
           [……]
34  T:   ↑but then (.) with this question for example, if
35       this dress is ↑nice, ↓isn't it. With this statement,
36       let's say do ↑I know the answer? (.) or::?
37       (1.4)
38  S6:→ yes: [you know
39  S1:→      [You know (.) yes. [(    )
40  S6:→                         [you know
41       er:[: but you wan[t to approved
42  S1:      [but you-
43  T:   [↑it is a ↑nice dre↓ss,] ↓isn't it.
44  S3:  [(it approves        )]
45       (.6)
46  S1:  [er::
47  S5:→ [↑No:: I don't know (.) maybe:: er:: for example,
48       according to Cey↑da: (.3) it ↑isn't nice
49       (1.0)
50  S5:  [°I ↓think.°
51  S1:→ [I know but I *wonder:,
52                    *hand goes up, #3
53  S3:  your opini[on
54  S2:            [opinion=
55  S1:  = °people's opinion°
```

```
56  S3:→ to support (.3) m[y op[inion (.) °my idea°
57  S1:              [I'm [(        ) I:- I-
58  T:                    [I am sure I ↑kno:w
59  S1:→ I am not sure uhuhuhe ↑but (.) I know er: maybe:
60       you can agree me:.
61  T:    o↓kay:: (.) CAN't it be both of them? I may know
62  T:    the answer (.5) or I may not know the answer
63  S1:   °maybe°
64  S6:   yes.
65  S2:   yes.
```

The teacher's turn initial "but then" indexes the persisting problem. The yes/no interrogative, which typically projects a minimal response, is followed by the addition of "or::?" at the end of the turn, indicating that students are expected to provide a more extended answer. However, the way the teacher designs her turn seems to complicate the problem further because the teacher presents another polarity: whether the answer is known to the speaker or not instead of the initial polar question of whether tag questions can be used "to get people's approval/support".

Two students volunteer to respond simultaneously through lines 38-39, which flags up the presence of a competitive environment for students when they are invited to respond. Eventually, S6 manages to hold the speaker position, getting the teacher's and her peers' ears. Although she produces an ungrammatical utterance "to approved", it does not receive any correction because of the current focus of the talk. Instead, the teacher produces a partial repeat of the example sentence, which treats S1's and S6's responses as insufficient. Insufficient or dispreferred responses are "expansion relevant" (Schegloff, 2007, p. 117), meaning that they lead to extended sequences by further student contribution, as is the case here. A few students attempt to initiate a responsive action, but only S5 gets the conversational floor. Her response seems to be in the opposite direction from the previous candidate responses. Again, this initiation does not receive a teacher follow-up move. After 1 second of silence, S5 quietly adds "I ↓think", which might be an indication of hesitancy as a result of the absence of teacher feedback and contrasts with how she started her turn in line 47: a loud and stretched "↑No:::". The teacher's withholding of the assessment move leads S1 to launch another initiation. As figure 3 shows, S1's hand gesture and stretched word at the end of the turn (lines51- 52) are recognised as a problem regarding the unavailability of a lexicon by S3 and S2 (lines 42-43). Eventually, S1's turn is co-completed together with her peers, S3 and S2.

Even after the students' interventions to help S1 and two disaffiliating responses, the teacher does not take the floor and keeps reserving the assessment move. Thus, another

student, S3, self-selects in line 56 to provide an affiliative response with the prior student, S1. Having received similar responses from S3 and S1, the teacher follows up with a clarification question designed in an affirmative form in line 58. S1 produces further explanation. Yet again, the teacher utters "o↓kay::" that neither accepts nor rejects S1's elaboration. Till this moment, the teacher has successfully withheld her assessment move to incorporate more student contributions. However, she launches a negative interrogative to frame a positive response: "CAN't it be both of them", which seeks "assertions of opinion, rather than questioning" (Heritage, 2002a, p. 1428). In other words, the question invites students to assert that tag questions can be used for both cases. It is followed by a reformulated version of the same question. Three students articulate brief yes-responses, followed by a teacher acknowledgement token that is not produced here, which resolves the problem.

Overall, the extract highlights several points. Given that classrooms can be configured by the discrepancy in the distribution of knowledge among participants, this extract shows how the teacher constructs a superior epistemic status, contributing to the action formation process. Taking a lower epistemic stance relative to the teacher, the students tend to self-select more frequently to volunteer a response when the teacher withholds the assessment move, which opens up possibilities for further elaborations.

5.2.2 Volunteering for an initiation

Across all datasets, there were 29 cases where students produced a responsive action to a prompt that was not designed to elicit specific or pre-defined answers. Instead, they were prompted to initiate further student-directed actions or sequences. For instance, a prompt such as 'any questions?' (as the first pair part) can potentially initiate a question-response sequence whose content is chosen by students. Thus, they can be sequence-initiative actions in response to the base first pair-part and can potentially change the focus of the interaction slightly or dramatically by initiating a sub or a new topic. In this regard, they may become re-directive of the interaction. Two prominent interactional contexts were found to be conducive for this sub-group of solicited student initiations:

1) When it was normatively required, and
2) Just before the teacher was about to move on to another activity.

The former was observed when students were normatively expected to self-select to contribute as part of the activity description. For instance, after a student talk, the others

were supposed to ask questions regarding their peers' talk. The latter refers to cases where teachers wanted to make sure the students had one more opportunity to come forward with their questions or comments just before moving on to the next task. This has also been reported in the literature (e.g., Waring, 2011; Jacknick, 2009). Below, Extract 5.4 exemplifies the former interactional context, whereas Extract 5.5 illustrates the latter.

Extract 5.4 presents a few instances of this type of initiation during a simulation activity. Here, students discuss strategies to cope with education and health problems in an underdeveloped country. Students are divided into three groups, each of which is responsible for one of the departments: health, education, and the European Union. S1 and S3 compose the European Union team, and they have introduced their strategies to tackle unemployment, education and health problems before the first line. The extract below comes from the question-answer part of the interaction directed by the European Union team. The extract is divided into two parts for the ease of readers.

Extract 5.4: Notquitethereia [UK_E_GR2: Session 1]

Part 1: Challenge question one

```
1    S1:   yeah I think I mentioned all((looking at notes, #1))
```



```
2    S1:   any questions?
3    S1:   +looks right and then left, #2 and #3
4    S3:   *looks left and then right, #2 and #3
5    S4:→  uh:: (2.0) I have got a ↑question
6    S3:   yeah
7    S4:   so:: you're talking about er: increasing labour in
8          the country .hh an::d my question is are you going
9          to provide us an external country (.) are you going
10         to provide some policies that will reassure (.2)
11         this- what this workforce.
12   S3:   ↑yeah ↑so we are- we want to deal with th- to::
13         collaborate with the government of this coun↓try,
14         so we can bring OUR businesses, that are already
15         stabilized to the country so:: we will ask people to
```

```
16        work and be trained to work for ↑us, (.3) part of the
17        money: will go to us, part of money ↑will go to them
18        (.) and this will increase the GDP and this will:
19        bring more money into their country for their lives
20        and their children's (.) 'coz the: number of: ↑birth
21        rate is rath- is quite ↑high (.) but that is not
22        necessarily a bad thing if:: the country is ↓rich(.5)
23        if you can afford for your ↓kids you live in a good
24        ↓area and you are ↓happy (.) you can choose how many
25        kids you want, (1.5) the problem is that there is
26        a high quantity o- er:: a high rate of ↑birth, and
27        even more high rate of infant morta↓lity so hal- most
28        of the half of their ↑kids (.) born and ↓die
29  S4:   +slight head nod+
30  S3:   &hand gesture&
```

The first line indicates that S1 has finished all she has to say while looking at her notes (Figure 1). Then, S1 invites her peers to take the floor: "any questions?" in line 02. This question triggers students to self-select to contribute, highlighted in bold. Both S3 and S1 glance around the room, turning left and right to see if there is any volunteer (Figures 2 and 3). Interestingly, one is gazing at her left side while the other is looking at the right side of the room. It indicates that they share the responsibility of monitoring the incipient speakers, representing a cohesive group dynamic. In line 04, S4 signals his intent to talk with a turn initial vocal particle "uh::" indicating incipient speakership (Jefferson, 1993). This is followed by S4's main turn component, which is called pre-sequence (Schegloff, 2007), projecting an upcoming action. S4's turn is prompted by the prior turn that creates a ground for critical thinking by offering opportunities to weigh up arguments presented by S3 and S1.

After receiving a go-ahead from S3 in line 06, S4 begins with a sequential marker "so:" (Heritage, 2002b) to link what is forthcoming to what the previous speakers have said. S4 proceeds with a sophisticated introduction, setting a background for his question and then asking for further specifications regarding how they would increase the labour in the country, Notquitethereia. This question has a challenging tone and forces S3 and S1 to justify their strategies by further convincing their peers that they have a legit plan. The question is designed as a polar interrogative that invites the recipient to either confirm or reject a candidate proposition (Raymond, 2011). However, despite being a polar question, it also makes an extended response relevant by pointing at an insufficient or unjustified argument by S3 and S1; thus, it projects further elaboration.

In lines 12-28, S3 selects herself as the next speaker to respond and starts with a "turn-initial" (Jefferson, 1993) in the second/responsive position turn as an acknowledgement

token of the previous turn. The prosody of the turn-initial "yeah" along with the following marker "so" also indicates an extended turn, marking a shift in the speakership (Jefferson, 1993). S3 elaborates on how they can reduce the unemployment rate by bringing European companies into Notquitethereria, which will, in turn, reduce the infant mortality rate and improve the quality of life in general. The response is proceeded by an embodied turn, i.e., a head nod, that signals understanding and acceptance, projecting sequence closure. S3's hand gesture closes the sequence, marking no upcoming talk. It also projects another sequence by indicating that the floor is available for further questions, as indicated by a short gap of silence, i.e., 1 second in line 31. It is a legitimate place for a student to initiate another sequence, as S2 does in line 32 in Part 2 below.

Part 2: Another challenge question

```
31          (1.0)*(1.9)          *
32  S2:→       *raises hand--*
33  S3:  yeah
34  S2:  yeah: er:: you talking about bringing European
35       companies (.) into the country, yeah?=
36  S3:  =mm huh
37  S2:  but have you thought about the effects this will have
38       on the: domestic companies in the country?
39       (.3)
40  S2:  the competition, (.) they will err probably dominate
41       the:: err domestic mar↓ket an:d monopolize the
42       economy making the country's: (1.0) currency:
43       (.) practically: worth[less
44  S3:                        [but apart from the business:
45       (.) the business is where all gonna be good for the
46       the locals because if we are bringing in supermarket
47       er: we are bringing labour for people who will WORK
48       IN the supermarket even if the supermarket is not
49       local company and so because the rate er:: the::
50       the female and male literacy of working which is
51       really low (.) so th- the problem is now increase
52       the rate, ↑and we are the European team, this is
53       all we can do for them
54       (4.0)
55  S4:  ↑alright (.5) if there're no: further questions
```

He initiates a pre-sequence with an embodied turn to display his intent to talk. The hand-up practice has not been performed solely to get the floor but to flag up the presence of another question in response to "any question" in line 02. After a go-ahead token is produced by S3, S2 produces a "multi-unit question" (Sacks et al., 1974, p. 722), first contextualising his question by extracting some information from the prior talk and then directing his question. To contextualise his question, he first seeks confirmation that he has understood the prior talk correctly before launching his question (lines 34-35). In

doing so, S2 ensures that his question will achieve what it has set out to do. In addition, he displays a disaffiliating stance, signalling a counterargument or challenge question. Having received a confirmation token in line 35, S2 directs his question beginning his turn with an oppositional "but" indexing criticism, and challenges S1 and S3's solution to solve the unemployment problem in the country. His question design also indicates an insufficient and unacceptable solution, which would further damage the country's economy. After a short gap in line 40, he expands his turn and portrays a picture of the drastic consequences of bringing European countries into the country. Anticipating the end of the turn constructional unit, S3 starts a responsive turn pre-emptively, which causes an overlap in line 43. She begins with the same oppositional token, "but", indexing a disaffiliating stance that indicates she is going to defend her position. She produces a counterargument underlying the advantages of bringing labour into the country. Interestingly, the response is not followed by an acknowledgement token to highlight understanding or further disaffiliating response—instead, a relatively long silence proceeds, which is treated as no further questions. Thus, S4 closes the extended sequence of talk and transitions to the next topic.

The second conducive environment for this type of initiation was observed when teachers produced prompts to ensure there were no questions or comments before moving on to the next task/point. Thus, they occur in a different interactional environment, i.e., at the end of activities/points as opposed to during the activity as in the previous extract. Below, Extract 5.5 provides an illustration of such cases. The extract comes from the end of a reflective discussion where students are invited to comment on how to improve their presentation skills. The interaction in this extract concerns the effective use of body language and gestures while performing the presentation.

Extract 5.5: Body language and gesture [TR_A_GR1: Session 1]

```
1    T:    do you have any idea how you can improve your body
2          language and gestures [on the stage?
3    S2:                        [hm:
4    S2:   watching video (.3) about it
5    T:    hm:: wat[ching ↑videos
6    S5:           [er:
7    S5:   we can (.) rehearse er: to mirror
8    T:    that is very important ↑right, [talking to the=
9    S7:                                  [practice
10   T:    =mirror ↑people will think that you are cra:zy but
11         er:: don't think about it just try to do it more
12         ↑rehear↓sals=
13   S7:   =practice
```

```
14  T:   ↑practice (.) of course (.2) [that is important
15  S6:                                 [°doing more-°
16  S6:   ↑doing more presentation
17  T:   doing more presentation (.) as the teacher asked
18       from you:: er:: anything to sa[y:?
19  S2:                                 [er[:
20  S5: →                                 [we should attend
21       other people's er:: presentations
22  T:   how can we attend presentations? Ah you mean
23       ↑outside the classroom
24  S5:  yes
25  T:   uhm so you see it doesn't matter if it is english
26       or Turkish (.) body language is used everywhere
27       so that's impor↓tant.
28       (3.0)
29  T:   o↓kay.
```

The teacher initiates the sequence with a question designed as a polar interrogative (lines 01-02). Nevertheless, it does not project a minimal yes/any response but invites students to brainstorm solutions to improve their body language and gesture while performing presentations. The prompt generates a few student responses, each of which is followed by a teacher assessment move, constituting a string of response-evaluation (RF) sequences. The first student who displays willingness to provide a response is S2. Her intent is enacted in line 03 with a vocal turn-initial that overlaps with the teacher question in line 02. This early turn-seeking attempt can only be accomplished in line 04 after the teacher has completed her turn. S2's response proposes that watching others' presentations might help them learn from them. The teacher assessment begins with a weak acknowledgement token "hm::" and proceeds with a repetition of student response. As discussed in Extract 5.3 (tag question), the teacher's repeats along with weak acknowledgement tokens project more student responses, as is the case at this moment in interaction. In line 06, S5 attempts to initiate a responsive action that overlaps with the teacher's turn. Having waited for the teacher's turn to finish, S5 reinitiates a responsive second pair-part arguing that practising in front of a mirror might help improve body language. The teacher produces a positive assessment move in line 08 and uses a rhetorical question, "↑right," designed to stress the acceptance of the student's response, not to seek confirmation. Although the rising intonation contour at the beginning and the slight rising intonation at the end of "↑right," indicates that there is more to come, S7 initiates a responsive action in line 09. However, the teacher blocks the initiation by holding the floor and only when she reaches the end of her turn does she direct her gaze at S7, who produces a single word response "practice" in line 13. The teacher provides a repeat followed by a strong acknowledgement token "of course". A

slight intra-turn pause is treated as a legitimate turn transition place by S6, who initiates a responsive action in line 15. Yet, again, it overlaps with the teacher's turn. Like other students, S6 only accomplishes to get the floor in line 16 and produces a response that is affiliative with S7. This is followed by a teacher repeat that acknowledges the student's response. Moreover, the teacher adds that the point has been mentioned before.

Till this moment in the interaction, S5, S7, and S6 provide affiliative responses that highlight the importance of practice to improve body language use during presentations. Similar student responses one after another have projected that a different response is less likely to be offered. This might have led the teacher to prepare the closing of the topic-in-progress. As previously noted, closure can be carried out with a teacher question such as "any questions?" to ensure that the content is understood and there are no more student comments. To do that, the teacher launches another question-answer sequence within the same turn in line 18, "`anything to say`" to check if there are any volunteers to take the floor. This pre-closing question serves to propose the possible closing of the topic-in-progress. If the recipients of such turn collaborate with the speaker by stating that they do not have anything to ask or add or by staying silent, then the sequence-closing succeeds (Schegloff, 2007). Conversely, if the recipients refuse to comply with the speaker's turn by expressing an intention to talk, the speaker's attempt to close the topic is aborted (Ibid). Here, two students display resistance straightforwardly by their attempts to take the floor to add to the ongoing discussion. In doing so, they have aborted the teacher's attempts to close down the topic and extend the sequence.

S2 begins the turn with a turn-initial token "`er:`" in a low volume and is talked over by S5. In contrast, S5 initiates without such vocal indication in a higher volume and accomplishes holding the floor. Her suggestion to attend other people's presentations to learn from them receives a clarification request from the teacher. The teacher provides a candidate response to her own question in a questioning intonation contour, which makes a next turn relevant for S5 to provide an affirmative or negative response. Upon receiving an affirmative confirmation, the teacher moves on to the next relevant action, providing feedback. This is followed by a 3-seconds silence that is treated as "no more volunteer" by the teacher, who produces a sequence-closing -third (Schegloff, 2007) "`o↓kay.`" in line 29.

It should be noted that students' volunteering for initiation after teacher prompts in interactional contexts, as in the above extract, was not frequent in the data. It might be

explained by the fact that the questions with the word 'any' have a negative polarity" (Heritage & Robinson, 2011, p. 19) because they project a 'no' response. Thus, they invalidate the question's purpose in eliciting further student contributions. Considering that the design of the first pair part bears a significance on the progressivity of the talk, eliciting student contribution using such prompts as 'anything to add' or 'any questions/comments' might endanger encouraging students to initiate. Teachers used these forms mostly to close down the interaction in the data, which marked the activity boundaries. Nevertheless, students, though rarely, enacted agency by preventing the sequence closure.

In sum, these initiative student turns form responsive actions to the prompts such as 'any question' or 'anything to say', which project either a second pair-part as in Extract 5.5 or another question-answer as in Extract 5.4. Despite being prompted to perform specific actions, these initiations can (re)initiate topics. In this sense, self-selections to volunteer for initiation can be regarded as slightly more directive and is likely to change the direction of discussions, unlike the former subgroup (volunteering for a response), which was observed to be mostly constrained by the prior turn to perform a certain responsive action.

5.2.3 Interjected initiatives: A forced and abrupt interruption

Students were also observed to self-select to respond to a prompt designed for someone else. These students' self-selections were unprojected because they responded on behalf of the original recipient. Therefore, they demonstrate deviation from the moral accountability of turn-taking rules in classroom interactions. The moral order refers to "out of the ordinary" in social interaction, not human beings' wrong or right doings (Hazel & Mortensen, 2017). In other words, when they interject to produce a second pair-part on behalf of someone else, they act out of the ordinary (Sacks, 1984), and the sequential position of their turns is not anticipated.

The analysis of the sequential position of this type of initiation proved that students did not only interject to respond in place of other students but also initiated a responsive action designed for teachers, as the figure below illustrates.

143

Figure 5.2: Sequential positions of interjected student initiation

(1)	T/S (turn designed for S1) → S2 (respond)
(2)	S1 (turn designed for T) → S2 (respond)

Extract 5.6 illustrates how a student responds to a teacher question that has been explicitly directed to the current student. The interaction comes from a discussion task where students share their thoughts on product placement advertising and its effect on people.

Extract 5.6: Özenmek [TR_A_GR2: Session 4]

```
01  S4:   er:: I think er: I agree with this sentence because
02        some films or movies, er: main character use (.)use
03        a:: (.) something er:: from brand, er:: her fans (.)
04        her fans emulate, emulate her, and buy it (.) er::
05        her [(         )
06  T:        [what does that me[an?
07  S5:→                        [özenmek
08  T:    ↑Emulate? Rea[lly?]
09  S4:                [yes ]
10  T:    I haven't heard the word before
11        (2.0)
12  S4:   ↑For example, I take all of you:: er:: Mira brac-
13        bracelets,
```

While S4's turn is still ongoing, the teacher interferes, which results in an overlap (lines 05-06). The teacher's turn can be regarded as a repair initiation that seeks to solve a problem of intersubjectivity caused by an unfamiliar word to the teacher. The teacher's interference has pedagogically important consequences. First, it has set out to repair a problem of non-understanding for herself and possibly other students. Second, despite being a "conversational collusion" (Drew, 2009, p. 72) per se, it allows for the progression of the talk with a mutual understanding of what is being negotiated, which is crucial for meaning-making in classroom contexts. The teacher's question is designed for S4, who has used the verb "emulate". The normative expectation is to hear a response from S4; however, another student, S5, intervenes in line 07 to give a definition in Turkish. Although the teacher has not specified the source of the problem in her question design, only referring to the verb with a demonstrative pronoun "that", it is clear that an unfamiliar word is causing trouble and needs to be defined. S5's pre-emptive turn begins in overlap with the last item in the teacher's turn because S5 has been able to project that the last item completes the teacher's turn, as Drew (2009) argues. Besides, the teacher's question is a routinized sentence, particularly in language classrooms, where one can expect when facing difficulties in understanding due to unfamiliar words.

The overlap on the last item indicates that S5 has guessed the problem's source and initiated the repair work by providing a Turkish equivalent of the verb. It is also interesting that S5 has articulated the response in her L1 despite the English-only policy in the classroom. Nevertheless, producing the response in her L1 might have enabled her to act quickly and 'steal' the floor from S4, so to speak. S5's interjection might be explained in different ways. One possible explanation is that the verb could have been discussed between the two students during the individual work phase as the two students' seating arrangements were conducive since they were sitting next to each other. Another explanation would be that the student could have simply wanted to prove herself or be praised for knowing something that the teacher herself was not familiar with. Either way, by interjecting, she has claimed co-membership in knowledge delivery.

Both students present a K+ epistemic stance, i.e., more knowledgeable (Heritage & Raymond, 2012), relative to the teacher for a moment in the interaction by displaying their vocabulary knowledge. The teacher's expression of surprise, "`Really`", in her confirmation request in line 08, also demonstrates the shift in epistemic authority from teacher to students. S4 takes ownership of her vocabulary use and confirms the accuracy of S5's response, leading to an overlap with the teacher's turn ending. Her pre-emptive confirmation token might indicate her eagerness to take the floor back and show her understanding of the verb 'emulate'. Again, the teacher explicitly states that the verb is unfamiliar to her: "`I haven't heard the word before`" This teacher's 'confession' is newsworthy, which would typically project a second pair part that accepts it, as in "oh". However, such a response in an institutional classroom context might be interpreted as an unjust assessment of epistemic status. Thus, an acceptance of such a confession would be discouraging if it comes from the teacher and rude if it comes from the student. Instead, a 2-seconds silence, during which neither student takes the floor to reciprocate with the teacher's turn, follows. Nevertheless, the teacher's openness regarding her epistemic status is important in the sense that it sends the message that it is normal for any participant to encounter unfamiliar words in the current speaker's talk and to initiate repair work to remedy the problematic cases, and it encourages students to do the same. The interaction continues with S4's extended turn in which she shares her opinion on the effects of product placement advertising on people's consumption behaviours, which is not produced here.

Incidents of students' interjections to respond to a prompt designed for teachers were extremely rare. The following extract presents one of the very few examples by demonstrating how a student positions himself as someone qualified to respond to a peer's clarification question directed at the teacher. The short extract is taken from a discussion task where students are required to decode the meaning of a text titled "Nanny State" filled with academic vocabulary (Coxhead, 2000). Here, the teacher checks students' understanding by focusing on specific vocabulary.

Extract 5.7: Mandatory [UK_F_GR1: Session 2]
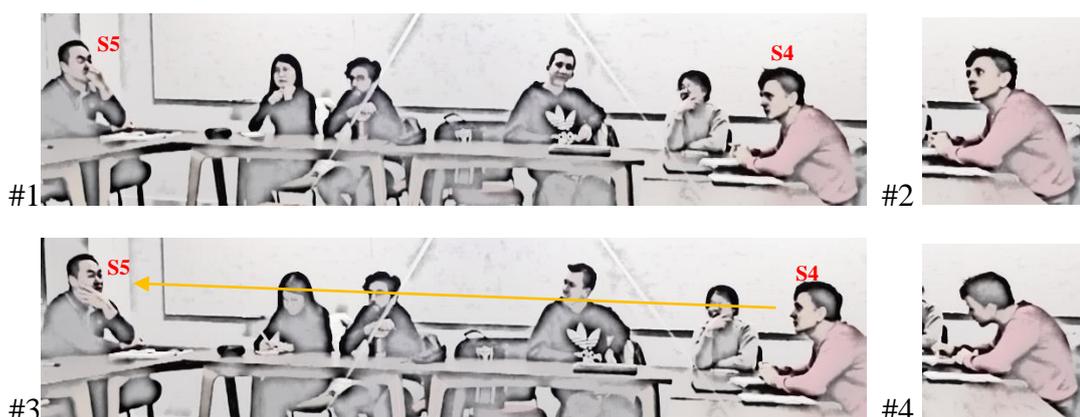

```
1    T:    mandatory?
2          (2.5)
3    S6:   °compulsory°=
4    T:    =yeah
5    S4:   compulsory? ((body position as in #2))
6          (.4)
7    S5:→  compulso[ry
8    T:            [compulsory, mandatory, you have
9          +to do ↓something
10   S4    +jotting down, #4 ----->>
11   S4:   yeah °you have to do (someth-)°
12         -------->>
```

The teacher initiates the sequence with a single word, marked as a question with a rising intonation at the end. After a 2.5-second silence, during which S4 enacts a thinking posture (Figure 1) and quickly directs his gaze towards the respondent student S6 when he volunteers to respond in line 03. The teacher accepts the S6's response with a quick and firm acknowledgement token, signalling that the sequence is bound to be closed (Lerner, 1993; Waring, 2008). Thus, if there is any problem regarding hearing, non-understanding, or uncertainty, it must be resolved before the sequence-closing. This is when S4 launches the clarification request directed at the teacher, as his gaze direction displays, as shown in Figure 2. The turn has been designed for a particular recipient, i.e., the teacher, regulating speakership selection and minimising the overlaps. However, S5

acts quicker than the teacher to respond to S4's query, which has not been anticipated as the responsive turn should have been provided by the teacher. As a result, S4 shifts his gaze towards S5 (Figure 3), who has broken the natural order of speakership by interjecting. The teacher has also launched a responsive turn without knowing S5's interjection, leading to an overlap in line 8. The moment the teacher begins talking, S4's gaze shifts from his peer to the teacher, who repeats the response.

However, there is a difference between S5 and the teacher in their interpretation of S4's question "`compulsory?`" in line 05. S5 treats it as a hearing problem and thus repeats the already mentioned word, whereas the teacher treats it as a problem of understanding. He begins with a repeat and proceeds to explain the meaning of the word "`compulsory`". S4 averts his gaze to his handout while writing down and uttering "`yeah`", confirming his understanding of the word meaning. While writing, he repeats what the teacher has said almost in a whispery volume. This whispery talking and taking notes indicates that the student's problem is most likely to do with the unfamiliarity of the word, not with hearing. Thus, although S5 has positioned himself as someone qualified to provide help by interjecting, the teacher solves the problem in the end.

Overall, both extracts have demonstrated that recipient design does not always guarantee the floor for the assigned next speaker. Though rarely, students breach the normal turn-taking conduct of classroom interaction by 'stealing the floor', so to speak, from the assigned recipient. In classrooms, such violations can be subjected to negative judgments (Hazel & Mortensen, 2017); however, such teacher reactions were not noted in the current study. In interjecting, the students displayed that they have adequate epistemic status to claim speakership to provide responses or explanations. The extracts also highlight the difference in consequentiality of an interjected initiation depending on who the ratified participants are. If the student interjects to respond to a prompt addressed to another student, then it demonstrates co-membership in knowledge delivery. On the other hand, if the interjected initiation steals the floor from the teacher as the addressed participant, then these students' interjections might interfere with the negotiation work to be performed by the teacher and the student who has directed the question.

5.2.4 Disjunctive student initiatives

Some student contributions that followed a prompt were not always fitting in the natural interaction flow because they were not projected answers in a second pair part of an

adjacent sequence. For that reason, they are called disjunctive initiations. Disjunctive student initiations were noted to perform various actions: to share their version of response (17 cases), as a repair sequence to report non-understanding or to solve communication troubles (20 cases), to reject/delay to answer a prompt (11 cases), and to assign turns to another peer (5 cases). Space limit precludes exemplifying each action. Therefore, two extracts from different classrooms have been chosen to illustrate how students initiated disjunctive turns to perform two actions: to share their version of a response and to delay responding to a teacher prompt.

Extract 5.8 illustrates an example where a student rejects producing projected responsive action to a teacher prompt and inserts a sequence to announce that she will share her version of the response. The extract comes from a discussion task about the effects of advertisements on people's consumption behaviours. In this segment, the whole group talks about how advertised brands become known to people and affect their consumption behaviours. It might be helpful to provide a brief interactional history of what has happened before the first line. The teacher has written a made-up brand name on the board and asked if they would buy a mobile phone from this made-up brand. Having received a 'no' response from a few students, the teacher asks a follow-up question in line 01, requiring them to give reasons for it.

Extract 5.8: I want to give another example [TR_A_GR2: Session 2]

```
01  T:    why wouldn't you like to buy it?
02        (1.1)
03  S6:   °I don't know the name°
04  S7:   it is not common [in Turkey
05  T:                     [↑YOU HAVEN'T heard the ↑na[me:
06  S2:                                                [yes
07  T:    +turns to S7 -->
08  S7:   it is not common in Turkey.
09  T:    ↑IT IS NOT COMMON in ↑Turkey
10  S2:→  I want to give £another£ example, er:[:
11  T:                                          [aha[ahah
12  Ss:                                             [ahahah
13        hahah[hahuh huh heh
14  T:         [okay give [me an exam[ple Gulsum
15  S2:                   [er:::
16        a few days ↑ago:, er: I an- my sister and I went
17        to:: (1.0) hmm buy a:: tablet?
18  T:    tablet uh [huh
19  S2:              [tablet er: salesman show us a tablet which
20        brand is (.) Dark (.8) but I [say:
21  T:                                 [the brand is Dark?
22  S2:   Dark yes er:: I say "I want to buy samsung"
23  Ss:   uhahahahuh
```

148

```
24  T:    okay samsung, LG, [mac.
25  S2:                    [yes, yes
26       (1.3)+(.5)                                        +
27            +hand gesture & slight head shake, #1   +
28  T:    okay, [the- they seem *a-                        *
29  S2:        [and
30  T:                              *pointing at S2, #2   *=
31  S2:  =and I bought ↓Samsung.
32  T:    you bought samsung hmm.
```


#1   #2

The wh-question in line 01 is an unknown-answer interrogative that does not project a predefined answer. Instead, it seeks explanations that would vary depending on people's opinions. Therefore, it naturally invites more candidate responses, and the sequence would not be completed upon receiving a single student response, which is the case here. A few students consecutively self-select to produce responsive turns. S6 is the first volunteer who argues that it is an unknown brand name. This is followed by another student, S7, who self-selects in line 04 to provide a similar response arguing that it is not a common brand. However, the timing of S7's self-selection is premature, as indicated by the overlap with the teacher's third turn position, because the teacher is yet to acknowledge the first respondent student's reply with a reformulation in line 05, which sequentially deletes the S7's contribution. Only after the teacher directs her gaze to S7 he then repeats his previous response, which is then accepted by the teacher. The teacher's tactic can be argued to indicate that the teachers can practice a degree of control on the order of speakership, possibly to secure the rights of the current speaker student who is deemed to hear feedback to their responses. Thus, this teacher behaviour also sends a message to the students that they should follow an orderly turn-taking practice. The fact that S7 has not changed his response but merely repeated it may also suggest that S7 also treats the sequential deletion of his response as a sequentially unfitting response, not as a problem of incomplete response.

In line 10, the teacher produces an assessment turn that acknowledges S7's response by repeating it. The teacher's turn ending with a rising intonation contour in high volume invites more candidate responses and thus makes another responsive action conditionally relevant. This is when a disjunctive initiation takes place in line 10 when S2 wants to share an authentic experience from her life instead of providing a reply to the teacher's hypothetical question. She initiates a pre-announcement sequence and continues without waiting for a go-ahead response. The uttering of "£another£ example" in a smiley voice indexes the unfitted nature of this turn and serves as a mitigation device to delicately maintain any potential face-threatening issues because S2's turn can be considered a transgression in participation framework (Hazel & Mortensen, 2017). Thus, the smiley voice mitigates this transgression by creating a semi-jocular frame. It also orients the interlocutors' attention to the forthcoming talk.

Additionally, waves of laughter initiated by the teacher in line 11 and others joining in in lines 12-13 also mark that it is treated as unfit by all recipients. The teacher comes in first when S2 is in the middle of preparing to formulate another TCU, as the filler sound indicates at the end of her turn in line 10. Interestingly, the students remain vague about their stance towards the jocular frame created by S2 and only when the teacher has explicitly oriented to it as laughable do they join in the co-construction of the laughable event. The shared laughter seems similar to an insertion sequence to manage S2's seeming transgression and delicate nature of group relationships at an interactional level.

The teacher then takes advantage of this moment to provide a second pair-part to the pre-announcement sequence previously blocked by S2's attempt to continue talking in line 10. Doing so, the teacher establishes herself as the superior interactant by bestowing permission for S2 to go ahead: "okay, give me an example Gulsum". S2 carries on by telling how she has encountered an unfamiliar brand called "dark" in a tech shop and requested a well-known brand instead. At this point, the class bursts into another roar of laughter. One reason for the laughter is that "I want to buy Samsung" in line 12 constitutes the punch line of S2's story that supports the claim regarding the unpopularity of unknown brands among people. Another reason might be that S2's anecdote resembles the teacher's hypothetical example, which creates a humorous moment. When S2 ends her turn with hand gestures, the teacher gets the conversational floor, most likely to provide feedback in line 28. However, S2 attempt to regain the floor to add on, as the conjunction "and" in line 29 indicates. Therefore, the teacher cuts her talk off and offers

the floor back to S2 with an inviting hand pointing with her palm facing up, and S2 completes her story.

Extract 5.9 provides another illustration of how a student's disjunctive turn delays performing the projected action by the prior turn and hence becomes influential on the ongoing interaction. The class has discussed the characteristics of an entrepreneur before this moment in the interaction. In the extract, the students are supposed to define 'entrepreneur' after discussing it in pairs, as shown in Figure 1 below in the extract.

Extract 5.9: Entrepreneur [TR_C_GR4: Session 2]


```
01  T:   =okay, ↑guys (.) think about all that you have said
02       so far and build a long and nice sentence for
03       entrepreneur Esengul give it a try
04  S2:→ er:: mm: (.3) let me: a little time please
05  T:   yes take your time.
06       (3.5)
07  T:   Alihan you wanna ↑try, whatever you have heard from
08       your friends we have said
09       (.8)
10  T:   just put everything in one sentence
11  S5:  er:: mm:: * (5.0)                            *
12               *puts index finger on chin, #2   *
13       *(2.0)                                    *
14  S5   % put his hand up in the air, #3%
15  T:   +anyone else who + wants to try?
16  S5   +#4              +
17       (2.7)
18  T:   you don't have to worry about everything whatever
19       comes to your mind.
20       (5.0)
21  T:   Dogan +is anyone trying her chance?+ &he heh he
22  S7         +looks up smiling,#5-6       + &looks down, #7
23  S2:→ eh heh *let me please
24          *putting index finger up, while writing, #8
```

```
25  T:   okay
26       (3.1) +(.5)
27  S2          +sits back looking at her notes, #9
28  T:   yes
29  S2:  er: an entrepreneur [who has been in a company, who
30  T:                       [okay
31  S2:  =has like earning money, [who has uhm:: (1.4) taking
32  T:                            [uh hm=
33  S2:  =risk [successfully and opportunities (.3) like that.
34  T:        [exactly
35  T:   okay
```

In his composite turn in lines 01-03, the teacher asks them to formulate a definition of an entrepreneur and selects the next speaker, S2, using the name nomination technique. This is when a disjunctive initiative turn is observed in line 04. It seems that S2 has initially attempted to articulate a response, as the vocalization at the beginning of the turn indicates. However, she later produces a dispreferred response, "let me: a little time please", which delays the projected action, i.e., defining entrepreneur, on the grounds that she is not ready. Such a delay has consequentiality in the progressivity of the interaction (Liddicoat, 2007; Schegloff, 2007). It leads to a halt at that moment and requires another action by any speaker to resume the talk. Since the teacher has not anticipated such a reaction from the recipient, he has no choice but is forced to wait, although his turn, "yes take your time", seemingly grants permission.

After a long gap of silence in line 06, the teacher moves on to another student to enable the progressivity of the interaction and the task. He uses a name nomination strategy to choose S5, who begins with a non-lexical turn initial token "er:: mm:". As Figures 2 and 3 show, S5 seems to be undergoing a cognitive process of organizing his thoughts and formulating a response, potentially displaying his intent to talk. After a substantially long waiting time, the teacher's pre-emptive action in 15 to check if there are any other

volunteers dismisses S5 as the current speaker. The possibility to hear from S5 is thus aborted due to his struggle to provide a second pair-part. Thus, S5 withdraws, as evident in his gaze direction and body posture (Figure 4). However, the teacher's invitation in line 15 seems to fail to generate any responsive actions, as 2.7 seconds of silence shows (line 17). Thus, the teacher attempts to encourage students to volunteer without worrying about making a mistake. Even after 5 seconds of silence in line 20, no one seems to be willing to take the floor.

Thus, in line 21, the teacher goes back to S2 to check if she is ready to share her definition with the group. Interestingly, the teacher does not address S2 directly but instead directs the question at S7, who is sitting next to S2, by addressing S7 via his name and pointing at him with his index finger. This indirect address to S2 via another student might be a mitigating strategy to block any possible dispreferred response from S2. In addition, the teacher's question, accompanied by a nervous chuckle, indicates that he is in a problematic situation and needs student compliance to proceed with the task at hand. S7 treats the teacher's turn as a joke which he orients to by smiling. Thus, constructing a jocular frame and inviting others to join seems to be deployed as a relational strategy by the teacher to manage a delicate situation.

S7's quick gaze shift from the teacher to his peer's notes displays his understanding that he is not the recipient who is expected to respond as well as his unwillingness to talk. The subsequent line, in which S2 replies back to the teacher, confirms that S2 is the recipient of the teacher's question (line 23). She first engages in the shared laughter with a quick articulation at the beginning of her turn, indexing a dispreferred action, i.e., delaying responding, once again. S2's laughter might be mitigating her ongoing unavailability to respond to a first pair part awaiting her. It might also be due to her feeling obliged to join in a laugh because it is the teacher who has indexed his turn as jocular and explicitly invited others to join in. Rejecting to join in would be a relationally risky action (Du, 2022). Either way, S2's contribution to the teacher-initiated laughter displays alignment with the teacher's stance and manages the sensitivity of this moment caused by an overdue response.

Straight after her quick laugh, she repeats her unavailability to produce the projected action, further delaying the task completion. Uttering a partial repeat of her initial turn, "let me please", while keeping her gaze down and writing, she shows her orientation to preparing her response. Additionally, her orientation is also enacted through her

embodied action: halting the teacher with her index finger pointing up (Figure 8) and hence putting the teacher 'on hold'. This is followed by the teacher's minimal response "`okay`" in line 25. So far, the unfolding of the interaction demonstrates that teachers' pursuit of response can only be accomplished if students' actions comply with teachers' first pair-part—otherwise, the progressivity is at risk. After a relatively long silence, S2 seems ready, enacted through her body position (sitting back with hands folding her jacket, Figure 9). Seeing that she has finished writing, the teacher invites her to start speaking with a "`yes`" token and finally receives the delayed response, articulated through lines 29-33.

Both extracts demonstrate that students' disjunctive turns perform various actions and can create a change in sequence organization by performing an unfitting response slot. They can refute teachers' questions by bringing up another example of their own, as in Extract 5.8, or slow down the progression of the ongoing talk and task at hand, as in extract 5.9. The analysis also shows an absolute need for a collaborative relationship for the progressivity of both the interaction and task completion in the classrooms. To manage a level of collaboration and reconciliation, the participants have been shown to deploy various strategies such as laughter (Extract 5.8), creating a jocular frame (Extract 5.9) and explicitly asking other speaking parties to comply with their unfitted action.

The extracts presented so far have shown the occasions where students self-select to articulate a responsive action to a prompt. However, the analysis also observed that student initiations could constitute a first pair-part and shape the next relevant actions, which is explored in the following section below.

5.3 Unsolicited student-initiated participation

In the study, unsolicited student initiations were defined by their occurrence in the absence of a prompt, hence forming the first pair-part of a sequence. Without such an invitation, it could be more challenging for students to secure the teacher's attention. Therefore, the student's achievement is more significant than the one achieved by a solicited self-selection whereby the student has already got the teacher's attention. In addition, they were regarded as more directive since they provided students with the privilege of choosing their topic, which may potentially redirect the topic of conversation.

The analysis has shown that unsolicited student initiations can bear differences in their sequential position. They were observed (1) in a first pair-part position to initiate a new

topic and a sequence, which will be referred to as interpolation and (2) extending a sequence in a first pair-part position or as a sequence-closing third in a post-expansion sequence and (3) by entering other's turn space. The figure below summarizes the categorization of unsolicited student turns:

Figure 5.3: Typology of unsolicited student-initiated participation in EAP classrooms
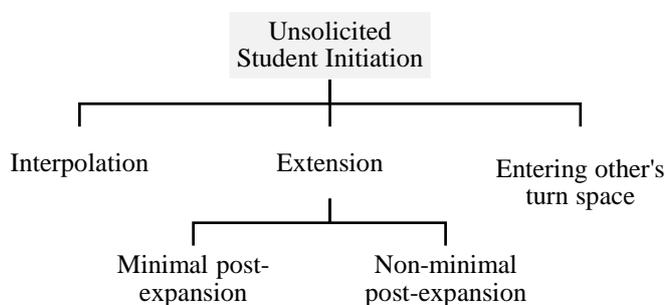
Interpolation involved the cases where students self-selected without being prompted and were featured by their topic initiative nature. The second sub-group, extension, refers to extended sequences in which students made a further contribution. Sequence expansions can have the potential to lead to further extended sequences and serve different purposes. The students' self-selection as minimal post-expansion did not project a next turn and closed down the talk after the second pair-part in the prior turn. In contrast, self-selections that led to non-minimal post-expansions extended the sequence, performing various actions. Finally, the third group, entering others' turn space, involved cases where students self-selected to provide unsolicited assistance. The table summarizes unsolicited student initiations detailing their sequence type and positions within the sequential flow of interaction:

Table 5.5: Position and sequencing of solicited student-initiated participation

	Interpolation: **New sequence initiating**	**Entering other's turn space**	**Extension (Sequence expansion)**	
			Minimal post-expansion	Non-minimal post-expansion
Sequence initiating	✓	✓	x	✓
Pair type	The FPP in a new sequence	The FPP in a side sequence	Sequence closing third	The FPP in post-expansion
Sequential Position	▪ After completed sequences ▪ during ongoing turns ▪ at activity boundaries ▪ within sequences	▪ During ongoing turns by entering other's turn space	▪ After the base SPP	▪ After the base SPP

These subtypes were not evenly distributed in both sociocultural contexts, as some were exercised more predominantly than others. The tables present the percentages of unsolicited student initiations across sub-groups in EFL and ESL datasets, respectively. Table 5.6 presents the total number of unsolicited student self-selections in the EFL context. Out of 550 self-selections, 52.4% of these turns accounted for unsolicited student initiations.

Table 5.6: Frequencies of unsolicited student initiation types in EFL setting [out of 100%, n=550]

	Interpolation	Extension	Entering other's turn space	Total
Number	57	217	14	288
Percentage	10.4%	39.5%	2.6%	52.4%

Of all, the most exercised sub-group was the extension subgroup, with a relatively higher percentage, 39.5%. It is followed by interpolation with 10.4% and entering other's turn space with a small amount.

Table 5.7 presents the total number of unsolicited student self-selections in the EAP classrooms in UK university settings. Out of 689 self-selections, 57.6% of these turns accounted for unsolicited student initiations.

Table 5.7: Frequencies of unsolicited student initiation types in ESL setting [out of 100%, n=689]

	Interpolation	Extension	Entering other's turn space	Total
Number	71	306	20	397
Percentage	10.3%	44.4%	2.9%	57.6%

A similar distribution of sub-groups was observed in ESL contexts. The extension was the most exercised solicited initiation sub-group accounting for 44.4%, followed by interpolation with 10.3% and entering other's turn space with 2.9%.

The following sub-sections demonstrate unsolicited initiations in those sequential positions with examples from the data.

5.3.1 Interpolation: New sequence initiating turns

This group of unsolicited initiation was characterized by both initiation of action and their resemblance to topic proffering sequences where speakers initiate a topic (Schegloff,

2007). First, they initiated a new sequence and made a second pair-part conditionally relevant by initiating a new action. In this regard, their occurrence was somewhat unpredictable. Second, these self-selections introduced new topics or sub-topics, creating a diversion from the direction the interaction was initially headed. It should be noted that although students started a new sequence to proffer a topic, those topics were not entirely different but related to the previously exhausted topics and mainly occurred in close proximity to them.

Unlike Mehan's (1979) observation, which argued that in order for students' contributions to be accepted, they need to come at proper junctures, i.e., after completed sequences, this study observed that unsolicited initiations were noted;

- in-between completed sequences,
- rarely at activity boundaries
- within sequences
- during an ongoing teacher/ student turn.

The following extracts demonstrate how students self-select to perform various actions, exemplifying their occurrences in different sequential positions. Extract 5.10, taken from one of the EAP classrooms in Turkey, illustrates how an unsolicited student initiation, with the teacher's clever manoeuvre, triggers an opening of a reflective moment. Here, they brainstorm on possible ways to improve their presentation skills. It is important to provide a brief interactional history before the first line. As part of the graded assessment, a student has made a presentation on which her peers and the teacher have provided evaluative comments. Hiding the score from students, the teacher has also graded the student's performance. This presentation has been the last one, marking the end of the assessment period for the whole group.

Extract 5.10: It could be better [TR_A_GR1_Session 1]

#1   #2   #3
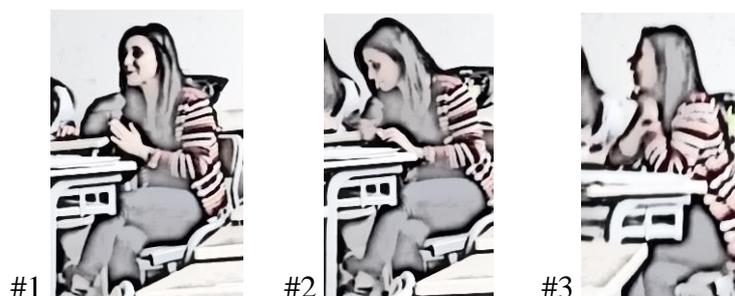
```
1  T:    *that's it. (.) thank you so:* much fo+r your ef↓forts
2        *'amen' hand gesture, ((#1)) *       +gaze down((#2))->>
```

```
3        (4.0)
4        ->+
5  S3:→  it+ could be better.=
6  T:     =↑it could be better (.) ↑Ho::w could it be better:?
7  S3:    e: for example e: I er looked e (.3) I forgot
8         something and I:: ha- had to look (1.0) to my pa↑per
9         and I couldn't fi↑nd because I wrote er very £little£
10        eh huh huh uh [huh
11 T:                   [you wrote down <in a small: fonts>
12 S3:    yes:
13 T:     okay:.
14 S3:    er: (.) it could be better ((nods her head))
15 T:     uh hm
16        (3.0)
17 T:     anyone else:
18        (2.5)
19 T:     ↑Nilgun?
20 S6:    mm: (2.0) er: (2.0) it could be better er:: we could
21        prepare ((circling hands gestures)) (1.0) more.
22 S6:    °yes.°
23 T:     (of course)yes.
24        (1.1)
25 S5:→   er:: (.8) my presentation e: could be better er but
26        we: shou:ld do presentation not once, we- °I think°
27        we should do twice or more because: er: I am a bit
28        Excited because I: first (.3) did (.) so: it can
29        be:: more than (.4) on↓ce.
30  T:    ((nodding head)) I think we could ↑agree with you on
31        tha:t (.) having lots of presentation >as the
32        administration as the manager< decided THAT they::
33        GRA::de the presentation (.) you had to do just one
34        presentation but if you: want to improve yourself
35        (.) just to be better when you go to your department
36        ↑you are welcomed.
```

The teacher's utterance "that's it" and thanking, accompanied by hand gestures (figure 1), announce the end of the task, i.e., student presentations, and indexes the transition to the next activity. Straight after, her quick gaze shifts from the class to her notes (Figure 2), accompanied by a relatively long gap of silence in line 03, which flags up a moment in between activity boundaries. It is a legitimate moment for a student to claim speakership regarding any point discussed in prior sequences before moving on to a new activity, as does S3 in line 05, to comment on her overall performance. Although S3's initiation does not target a different topic but stays within the same scope, it makes an original contribution by performing a different action, i.e., reflecting on her own performance instead of providing feedback for her peers. Soon after, when S3's initiation achieves the teacher's immediate attention (Figure 3), it becomes directive of the teaching practices and interaction by initiating a reflective discussion task that the whole group is oriented to.

The way the teacher handles S3's initiation (i.e., interpolation) contributes to creating a reflective interactional space for students to evaluate their overall performance critically. First, the teacher accepts S3's contribution by repeating the exact formulation in the prior turn. Then, she incorporates it by following up on S3's comment, inviting elaboration and reflection using a 'how' question. S3 explains how a mistake while preparing for the presentation negatively has affected her performance and slowed her down. This is followed by the teacher's confirmation of understanding in line 11 when the teacher provides a reformulated version of S3's talk. S3 confirms the accuracy of the teacher's understanding with a firm and brief "yes", which is treated by the teacher as signalling that no further talk is upcoming. Therefore, the teacher closes the sequence by closing token, "okay", in line 13. Nevertheless, S3 goes on to repeat what she has articulated before "it could be better" accompanied by a head nod to stress the importance of her observation, which aborts the teacher's effort to close down the sequence. The teacher accepts this repeat with a minimal acknowledgement token, finally indexing the sequence completion.

For a fairly long silence (line 16), nothing comes. The teacher then offers the floor to others to provide their reflections, which is followed by 2.5-seconds of silence in line 18, during which no one self-selects. Thus, the teacher resorts to the name nomination strategy to choose the next speaker in line 19. The nominated student, S6, seems to experience trouble articulating a response, as is evident in the long pauses within her turn, repetition of the same statement from the prior turns, and hand gestures that imply a word search (Schegloff, 2007). This is one of the disadvantages of name nomination as a turn-allocation strategy since there is always a chance that the teacher will choose a student who is not ready to contribute. For students, this runs the risk of losing face in front of their peers. Despite her observable struggle, S6 adds to the discussion, arguing that they need to allocate more time for the preparation phase. She expands her turn by adding a finalising "yes" token in the following line to mark the end of her turn. This turn-finalising token can be interpreted as a strategy to block any teacher follow-ups, which seems to have become successful in orienting the teacher to the configuration of sequence closure. Thus, the teacher collaborates with S6 and produces a closing third turn.

After a relatively shorter gap of silence, another student, S5, self-selects when she secures the teacher gaze in line 25. She provides a reflective evaluation of her presentation performance and offers a candidate solution to improve their skills. This response receives

an affiliative response from the teacher, who offers them the chance to practice their skills by inviting them to the stage. The rest of the interaction proceeds with other students' input, which cannot be reproduced here in its entirety. In sum, the extract has illustrated that a student's initiation can create a learning opportunity by triggering a reflective moment with the help of the teacher's clever strategy.

The extent to which an unsolicited student initiation was able to be directive of the task and the interaction is further outlined in the following extract. The extract is divided into two parts to highlight the consequences of a student's initiative action by giving a glimpse of the interaction in part 1 before the student's initiative action and after in part 2. As the whole interaction is too long to be reproduced here, a fragmented version is presented. In the extract, the students are engaged in a discussion task, in which they are required to express their opinions on the best advertisement technique and provide justification for their choice. Two students, S1 and S2, are the moderators and control students' participation, such as nominating the students, directing questions, and managing the speaker shifts.

Extract 5.11: Secret advertising [TR_A_GR1: Session 5]

Part 1: A round of opinion-sharing


```
01  S1:  ceyda er:: which technique (.) do you think (.) er::
02       is the most important technique?
03  S3:  I think the bandwagon is the most effective [er:
04  S2:                                              [wh[h?
05  S1:                                                 [why
06  S3:  heh huh because a lot of people er: when a lot of
07       people buy a product er:: other people think that,
08       er: this product is very good. and er:: they want
09       to: buy it (1.0) er:: for example my friend say me:
10       er:: I: taste this product(.) I used (.) for example
11       (.)er:: and you can use this product (.) bandwagon
12       is very good °I think°
         […]
13  S1:  what do you think, Kubra?
14  S6:  erhm:: I think the most effective er:: advertising
15       is emotional er:: (.5) appeal
16  S1:  can you explain why?=
17  S6:  =yes: er:: promotional activity aims highlighting
18       ↓factors(.5) ↑emotional factors, such as looks
```

```
19          (.) er: status (.) value popularity (.5) er::
20          popularity of the product instead of quality and
21          er:: (2.0) erhm:: catching a- peoples' feelings,
22          is er: very useful for ↓advertising
```

Here, only two students' responses are presented as a sample of how the interaction pattern looks. The responses are deliberately chosen as they both explain what bandwagon and emotional appeal techniques refer to and will soon become the topic of heated discussion in the second part of the interaction. As can be seen, S1 and S2 assume the teacher role and direct the questions. They exercise a 'round the room' type of turn-allocation strategy to ensure that everyone gives and justifies their opinion. In other words, as the current speakers, they choose the next, with each student's turn-at-talk at least by sequential environment addressing the moderators. The moderators then return to being the current speakers who select the next. This way of handling the participation leads to a question series (lines 01-22), which forms the dominant interactional pattern in this discussion activity till the second part.

In line 01, S1 utilises the name nomination strategy to assign speakerships and directs the questions. After S3 argues that bandwagon is the most effective advertising strategy, S1 and S2 almost simultaneously interfere with S3's turn, seeking justification, which causes an overlap. In lines 13-22, the same cycle proceeds: one of the moderator students, S1, directs the same question at S6, who opts for the emotional appeal technique. Then, S1 directs the second question, which asks for reasons for S6's argument. It seems that a strict IRF pattern is underway, which allows students to express their ideas in longer turns. However, this exchange structure limits the conversation to binary interactions between moderators and a single student.

Moreover, the respondent students mostly articulate their pre-planned ideas, which have been most likely written down partly or in full as reminders. This is evident in their frequent gazes at their notes and their relatively grammatically well-formed sentences articulated with little pauses. Additionally, students' ideas do not seem to be taken up or commented on but instead accepted by the moderator students to move on to the next student. Thus, they become a series of stand-alone opinion-sharing sequences. Their ideas remain disconnected except at the level of the topic rather than building on each other. Finally, another observation concerns how students seem to be engaging: a student is seen sleeping, and a few students look distracted (Figure 1). This dyadic interaction cycle continues till the second part.

So far, all students except the one who seems to be sleeping have expressed their opinion. Four students have advocated the superiority of the bandwagon technique, whereas two students, including S7, have argued that emotional appeal is more successful in convincing people to buy the advertised product. It seems that the class has reached some sort of consensus that the bandwagon is the most effective technique. In addition, considering that the sleeping student constraints the moderators from choosing her as the next speaker by evidently displaying her unavailability, it can be inferred that the discussion task is close to being completed. The activity closure is aborted when S7 moves out of the IRF strings by initiating a different action in line 24: disagreement with a few students' opinions. This action ignites a reaction chain in the sense that they start to respond to and build on one another's turn. This leads to a shift in participation framework from binary dialogue between moderator and respondent students to a multilogue co-constructed by the whole group, which will be discussed in part 2 below.

Part 2: Triggering an argumentative discussion


```
23          (3.6)
24  S7:→ But I er:: don't ↑agree +(1.1)
25                              +pointing at ss, #2 & #3
26  Ss:    [eheh [heh huh
27  S7:       [er::: the others (2.0) er:: ↑maybe er:: (2.3)
28          it (.) is bad, alw- they think always uhm: they always
29          think of GOOD advertising but maybe:: it ↑isn't ↓good,
30          (1.6) ∘maybe∘ ↑so I don't agree er: (1.4) bandwagon
31          is- is effective (.) I think.
32          (.4)
33  S7:  Emre, (.3) sorry. ((while looking at S5, #4))
```



```
34  Ss:    *uhuhuh + heha *
```

162
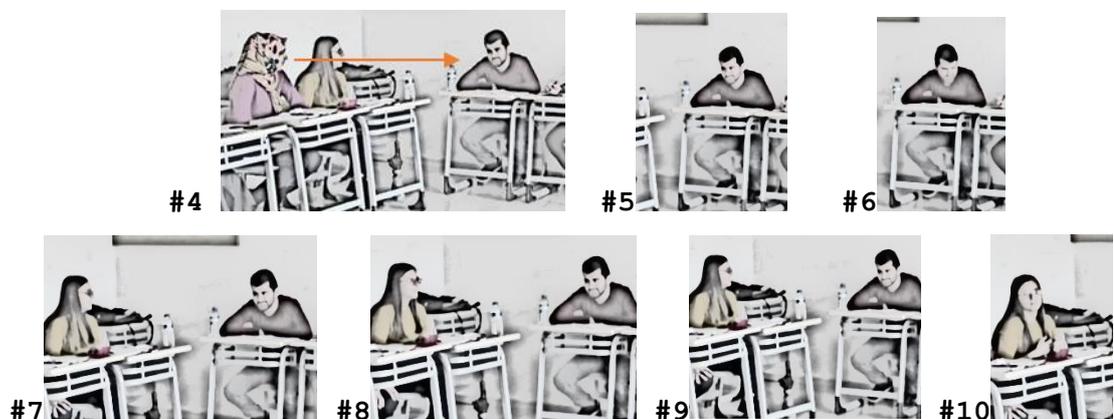
```
35  S5    *smiles, #5     *
36  S3              +averts gaze, looks at S5, averts gaze
37  S5:   *looks down, #6*
38  S3:→  er: ↑but when a lot of people buy something, we::
39        are curious about it, and we: want to: buy it
          [.........]
40  S4:   napkin commercial er:: (.6) it is used bandwagon
41        (1.3)
42  S7:   bandwa[gon?] no:: emotional, I think.
43  S4:        [yes:]
44  S4:   Why?
45  S7:   [e-
46  S3:   [but poor children err: didn't advertise it (.5)
47        they: sell, only sell.
48  S7:   we: feel er:: (.5) she or he is poo:r,[er::     ]=
49  S3:                                        [>yes yes<]
50  S7:   =↑we are affected er: by them=
51  S3:   =yes we are affected but they don't ↑advertise
52        (.) ↓it uhuhuh ↑ONly [sell
53  S7:                        [↑secret advertise I think.
54  S7:   yes::
55  Ss:   uhuhuhehuh
56  S7:   yes: (.) this is ↑technique, (1.5) I think
57  S4:   °secret advertising° ((mimicking S7))
58  S7:   yes
59  Ss:   uhuhuh huh
60  S6:   yes they are use er: the others' people's emotions
61        (.5) ↓to sell it.
          […]
62        (3.6)
63  S3:   BUT [uhuhuhu but
64  S5:       [↑but (.) but please please: one minute
65  S3:   +hand moves and *goes up, #11, #12 and #13
66  S5:                   *hand goes up, #12; up higher, #13
```


#11   #12   #13

After a completed sequence of question-answer series between the moderator and a student, a fairly long gap of silence, during which no one takes the floor, follows in line 23. It potentially indicates the end of the task. However, S7 takes advantage of this moment of silence to express her disagreement with the majority of the class, marking her transition to a disaffiliating response with a turn-initial oppositional "But". Her expression of disagreement indexes a pivotal moment that breaks the sequential mould of the interaction, delaying the completion of the task. She highlights the difference of opinion between herself and the majority of the class by pointing at them using her index fingers (figures 3-4). This embodied action is treated as humourous and hence receives slight laughter. She also manages to gather everyone's attention, which contributes to the

contrast between the first and the second part of the extract, as Figures 1 in the first part and 3 in the second part show. She builds her disaffiliative stance through lines 27-33, using reformulations (e.g., 'it (.) is bad' and 'it ↑isn't ↓good'). In her extended turn, S7 repeats her disagreement tying it to the prior turn in line 24 with a type-specific increment (Lerner, 2004) "so" in line 30, which summarizes and upgrades her position towards the bandwagon technique.

S7 further extends her turn by addressing S5 with his name in line 33 to apologise for what has come before. The apology serves as a marker of disagreement between the two students and politeness to maintain the delicate nature of social relations (Goffman, 2010). It also makes it conditionally relevant for S5 to respond. However, it is treated as humorous, as the roar of laughter indicates in line 34, in which S5 joins with a quiet smile with his lips tightly closed (Figure 5). Although S7's challenging/disagreeing sequence initiation is designed to project both counter-arguments, S5's embodied action shows rejection of S7's invitation to engage in this argumentative discussion.

Nevertheless, S7's disaffiliative stance has already ignited a reaction chain. In the midst of the laughter in line 34, S3 prepares to self-select in line 33, monitoring the ongoing interaction by quick back-and-forth gaze shifts from S5 to the whole group (Figures 7, 8 and 9). Having ensured that S5 has not displayed incipient speakership, S3 signals her intent to talk with the turn-initial vocalisation "er" in line 38, accompanied by her hand gestures (Figure 10). She provides a counterargument, lexicalising the opposition with the turn initial "but" in line 38. Oppositional turns follow one another from this point forward.

Through lines 40-61, students carry on discussing and expressing disagreements. S7's claim that people buy napkins from children due to their sympathy towards them is criticised by others. While S4 claims it is a bandwagon technique (line 40), which is refuted immediately in the next turn, S3 argues against the idea on the grounds that it does not count as advertising in lines 46-47. When S7 insists on her claim that people buy because they are emotionally influenced, S3 displays her understanding of S7's argument with a quick articulation, "yes yes" in line 49. S3 then emphasizes where the difference in opinion starts with stressed contrasting conjunction "but" followed by her argument, expressed loudly with interjected laughter in line 52. It also invites S7 to back down and accept her 'erroneous' argument. S7's overlapping turn "secret advertise I think" in line 53 offers a middle ground that disagreeing parties can find acceptable,

bringing the discussion's end forward. In doing so, S7 does not back down from defending her position but shows agreement only to a certain degree. A roar of laughter and a joke made by S4 mimicking her peer proceed and help keep the nature of the discussion friendly. These oppositional and defensive turns continue in the subsequent lines as there appears no sign of consensus or an acceptance that can be regarded as a closure. As a result, getting the floor proves to be even more challenging. The competitiveness can be illustrated by the resistance that S3 and S5 display, rejecting to leave the ground to the other in lines 65-66 (Figures 11, 12, 13, and 14). They do not want to leave the field without a battle, so to speak, both putting their hands up with palms facing each other to block the other. S5 wins the floor and continues to defend the effectiveness of the bandwagon technique, a part that is not covered here.

Overall, the second part of the extract demonstrates how an unsolicited student initiation to express disagreement becomes a pivotal moment, leading to a chain of reactions that have contributed to constructing a platform for argumentative discussion. In addition to contributing to their skill development, such as critical thinking and justifying their positions, such an interaction can also offer students a chance to produce impromptu and genuine talk instead of pre-prepared responsive actions as in part one. Additionally, it contributes to the motivational dimension by creating lively and fun discourse in the classroom.

5.3.2 Extension

Another sequential position for students' self-selections was noted to be post-expansion sequences, whereby students expanded their speaking rights to perform various actions. These extended sequences were not unrelated to the prior turns-at-talk, rather, they were tied to the base sequence in the previous talk. In this regard, the extension group differs from the interpolation since they do not initiate new topics but rather extend the ongoing sequences.

Depending on the intended action, the students' initiations in post-expansion sequences were divided into two groups, following Shegloff's (2007) grouping of post-expansion sequences: (1) student initiations in minimal post-expansion sequences and (2) student initiations in non-minimal post-expansion sequences.

Student initiations in minimal post-expansion sequences

Students' self-selections in minimal post-expansion sequences close down the talk by displaying understanding, acceptance and agreement of the prior turn. This is called minimal post-expansion sequences or sequence closing thirds (Schegloff, 2007) and "can licence the start of a next sequence" (Schegloff, 2007, p. 124). For example, in Extract 5.12, the teacher explains how ideology shapes language by focusing on an example in the students' handout: the pair of 'black and white'. The teacher argues that the English language prioritizes one word in a pair, such as 'white and black', by putting it before the second.

Extract 5.12: Black and white [UK_E_GR1: Session 1]

```
01 T:    English doesn't do (.) because ↑English prioritize if
02       you've got a pair of words: often go together they
03       normally go in the same order (.3) so if you say ↑white
04       and black you: would be making a point
05 S4:   and white first.
06 S4:   is it? ((turning to teacher))
07 T:    if you say white and black instead of black and white
08       yo- you would be making a point, you have a reason for
09       doing it you don't just randomly do so: people would
10       have a reas- would have a good rea:son to be angry.
11 S4:→  +yeah
12       +nodding head
```

In lines 06-07, S4 seems in need of confirmation that his understanding is correct. First, he adds on to the teacher turn by providing a very brief summary: "and white first.". By doing that, S4 displays his understanding that language is shaped by ideology and shapes people's perceptions, which is why prioritising a word is important, as in the example of black and white. However, straight after, he turns to the teacher to seek confirmation. After the teacher has provided the same explanation in reformulated version (lines 07-10), S4 provides an understanding token "yeah" accompanied by a head nod to bodily illustrate confirmation of understanding. The interactional accomplishment of this turn is that the student has taken responsibility for the sequence he has initiated in lines 05-06 and completed his part by launching a minimal post-expansion sequence to close down the sequence. Doing so, he gives the licence to the recipients to initiate another sequence. Overall, non-minimal post-expansions reveal students' ability to control the sequences of talk in classrooms. However, the main focus will be on students' self-selections in non-minimal post-expansion sequences presented below.

Student initiations in non-minimal post-expansion sequences

Students' initiations in non-minimal post-expansion sequences project more than one single turn-at-talk and expand the sequence further. In this sequential position, students perform several actions: to add more information, express opinion, criticism or evaluation, ask questions, tone down what they have done in their prior turn, correct a misunderstanding in the prior turn, challenge, and ask further questions, including clarification, confirmation and repetition requests.

Extract 5.13 provides illustrations of non-minimal post-expansion sequences in which students performed various actions: asking a clarification question, a typical sequence expansion type in classroom settings, challenging the prior turn, and asking a repetition request, respectively. The whole sequence is produced in its entirety to show how students delay the completion of a sequence by launching non-minimal post-expansion sequences. Since the interaction is too long, it is divided into three parts to follow the argument throughout easily. Here, the task that students are engaged in requires them to identify and explain the tenses in 6 sentences of a short story they have worked on earlier. The extract comes from towards the end of the task when they are engaged in unpacking the last sentence, provided in Figure 1 below.

Extract 5.13: Past perfect continuous [UK_F_GR9: Session 1]

Part 1: Clarification question

```
          #1   [we had been walking for twenty minutes when I had my accident]

1    T:    ↑what is the difference? When and why: do
2          we use <past perfect continuous?>=
           [...]
3    T:    ↑yeah I think you're focusing on the: action (.) so
4          waiting for twenty ↓minutes (.) 'n I think that's
5          maybe the big difference between the:: simple and the
6          continuous where the continuous focuses on the action
7          rather than the result (1.0) so it's NOT actually a
8          tense we use that often
9          (1.0)
10   S2:→  so we ma:y say: (.3) just <we were: walking
11         for twenty minutes when I had my accident> or ↓not.
12         (1.6)
13   T:    "we ↑were walking for twenty mi↓nutes (.3) when
14         I had my: (.) accident"
15   S2:   °yeah (.3) just°
16   T:    we ↑had only been walking for twenty minutes when
17         I had my accident, (1.0) we were walking for twenty
```

```
18          ↑minutes when I slipped .hhh
19          (2.5) ((T displays thinking posture))
20  Obs:  ↑Tom
21          (1.0)
22  T:    What's the difference?
23  Obs:  .hhhh puff::::::
24  Vla:  .hhhh £hhhhhh huh
25  Ss:   huh ha huh ha
26  T:    we [(    )
27  Obs:      [we- I (have to say) I don't really like it
28  T:    hahahaha[hahaha
29  Ss:           [ha ha hah
```

After a student has successfully identified the tenses used in the sentence (Figure 1), the teacher launches a follow-up question and asks them to explain the difference between past simple and past perfect continues (lines 01-02). A student has provided a sufficient response, which is not produced here. Then, the teacher's third position turn proceeds (lines 03-08). In his long turn, the teacher accepts the student's response by summarizing the main difference and most likely aims for closure to move on with a concluding remark on the rare use of this particular tense, i.e., past perfect continuous. One-second silence in line 09 also signals the sequence closure and the task completion.

However, the teacher's feedback move seems to fail to resolve the issue, as S2 reintroduces the topic with a different focus by asking a clarification question in line 10, hence aborting the teacher's attempts of closure. This initiation expands the already extended sequence and brings the direction the teacher intended to be headed back. In this sense, this student initiation is directive. It creates a learning opportunity for students by opening a new topic of discussion: the difference between past simple continuous and past perfect continuous. Although the whole talk centres around the past perfect continuous tense, S2's turn creates a related but new focus. Therefore, his question is an original contribution to the ongoing interaction and results in a notably long stretch of talk.

In his so-called responsive turn in lines 13-14, the teacher seems to produce a non-consequential out-loud, repeating the same formulation used by the student in the question. The teacher's public thinking indicates that the teacher himself also searches for an appropriate answer, which is evident in 2.5 seconds of pause accompanied by the teacher's thinker position. The teacher's taking time to contemplate a satisfactory explanation, as the long gaps of silence indicate points at a problematic and challenging situation. This becomes evident in his subsequent turn when the teacher recruits

assistance from another native speaker, Tom, who happens to be observing the class in this particular session. Tom is asked in his capacity as a native speaker. It is worth noting that the teacher is also a native speaker of English. By recruiting another native speaker's assistance, the teacher accepts that Tom is at the same epistemic status as himself. However, Tom seems to avoid providing an explanation by producing an assessment of the grammatical construction: "I don't really like it". It is ambiguous what Tom refers to by "it"; however, it is possible that "it" might be a reference to the grammatical construction of the sentence "we were walking" instead of "we had only been walking". Tom's reaction creates a humourous moment but forces the teacher to provide an explanation, which he does in part 2 below.

Part 2: Challenge Sequence

```
30  T:   I don't think anyone really: likes it I don't but
31       erhm: would you: would yo- if someone said that "we
32       were walking for twenty minutes (.3) when I had my
33       accident" (.4) "we had only been walking for twenty
34       minutes when I had my accident" (.3) I think that
35       it's too:: much (.3) eh:: (.6) I would understand
36       bu[t
37  S3:→ [you didn't like you start walking before the
38       [accident or when you say when I had my ↑accident=
39  S1:  [yeah::
40  S3:  =this has to be the further pas:t ↓doesn't [it?
41  S1:                                            [ex[actly
42  T:                                                [ 'coz
43       you still: focusing: we're focusing on an action
44       when you use past continuous when you say something
45       is interrupted and(.5)↑but I guess you are talking
46       about the::: (1.1) er::: ↑we had been walking for
47       twenty minutes:, (.6)
48  S3:  yeah we had-=
49  T:   =and then this twenty minutes has finished (.5)
50       and then the accident happens
51       (1.4)
52  T:   so yeah.
53       (1.7)
54  S3: so this was further in the past than when I had my
55       accident so it has to be past perfect past conti-
56       an'like (.2) an action: so past perfect continues,
57       (1.0)+(.5)
58  T:       +nods his head
59  T:   yes::
```

In line 30, the teacher reacts to Tom's comment in a way that treats him as having a K- epistemic status as opposed to that of in prior turns when recruiting Tom's assistance.

Now that he is left alone without any help, the teacher produces a response in lines 34-36. Although the teacher points out that it would be non-native to use past continuous tense formulation in the sentence, the direction of his turn does not seem to provide an elaborative answer. Schegloff (2007) argues that lengthy post-expansion could be a sign of trouble or disagreement, which is the case in this segment of talk: an unresolved grammar point that has created confusion on the part of some learners. The lack of a definitive response leads to further disagreement, resulting in expanding the sequence that would otherwise be completed.

S3's self-selection (lines 37-40) is responsible for this further expansion, interrupting the teacher's turn in progress by launching a disagreement post-expansion sequence. S3's disagreement stems from the teacher's weak rejection of the grammatical form "we were: walking". This disagreement is expressed in a grammatical format "doesn't it" that seeks an affiliative answer from the teacher and makes the teacher obliged to respond. Additionally, S1's entries into S3's turn space, which result in overlaps in lines 39 and 41, indicate a strong alignment with S3. As is clear in S1's stressed and stretched utterance "yeah::" and later her second affiliative interjection "exactly", S1 also claims co-membership with S3 in challenging the teacher's previous response. Now that there is now more than one person who disagrees with the teacher, marking it as a common problem to be resolved, the teacher is expected to clear the air, which he does in the subsequent lines.

The teacher's response to the students' disaffiliative stances performs two actions. First, he initially defies that challenge treating it as a mistargeted comment. Later, inserting an oppositional "but" in the middle of the turn that makes a clear division between the prior and the forthcoming action, he links the student's response to another grammatical point by indicating that the student might be talking about past perfect continues (lines 43-47). These two actions might be attributed to the teacher's endeavour to regain his questioned epistemic authority. It seems that the teacher's turn is still continuing as the comma at the end of the "minutes:," shows as an indication of a slight rising intonation contour. When the teacher also displays uncertainty with "but I guess" in line 45, S3 feels the need to confirm that the grammatical form he has referred to is "we had been walking" in line 48. However, once the teacher resumes his turn, he drops out, as is clear in his cut-off, to avoid any conversational collusion, orienting to one-at-a-time rule in the classroom (Drew, 2009). In his extended turn, the teacher provides an affiliative response to S3's

tag question in prior turns. A responsive turn to a question typically projects a sequence closing third from the recipient as a finalising token to signal the understanding. (Schegloff, 2007). Yet, a relatively long gap of silence proceeds instead of a token of acceptance or understanding. Thus, the teacher himself attempts to conclude the question-answer sequence series with a "so yeah" in line 52 and moves the lesson along.

However, after a long pause, S3 further extends the sequence by expressing the same explanation for the grammatical form that is being discussed, but this time in declarative form, which upgrades his epistemic status. S3's decisive pursuit of the matter signals that the teacher has not resolved the problem in the prior turns. S3 attempts to decompose why past perfect continuous is the grammatical form that should be used in such occasions (lines 54-56). However, the slight rising intonation at the end of his turn still seeks affirmation from the teacher as someone with K+ epistemic status. The teacher confirms the student's elaboration both bodily and with a vocal response "yes::" in the next turn. Nevertheless, the sequence does not come to an end but gets extended with a repetition request, which is dealt with in part 3.

Part 3: Repetition request

#2   #3

```
60      (2.3)
61  S2:→ say it again plea::s[e?
62  T:n                      [uhaha[haha
63  Ss:                            [ha ha ha ha [hu
64  S3:                                         [this: (.3)
65      first ↑sentence (.4) is further in the past 'nd the
66      second part of the sentence i- you star- first
67      walk (.5) and then you had the accident (.2)
68      because it is further in: the past (.6) it has
69      to be: past perfect because the second part of it
70      ist- (1.1) is just pas:t sim:ple (.3) ↓yeah.
71      (1.1)
72  S2:→ so we cannot say: we were
73  S3: no
74      (.7)
75  T:  I mean you can say it b[ut er:
76  S2:                        [but not grammatically correct
77  T:  we were walking for twenty °minutes° (1.0) na::h::
78      we had been walking 'coz it is that walking has:
79      finished (1.0) by the time of the accident
80  S2: hmmm
81  T:  even if- if it (      ) by the time you were walking
```

171

```
82        when you slipped or when you had that accident
83        that would be okay
84  S2:   +nods his head+
85        (1.7)
86  T:    okay
```

After an extensively long silence, S2 again launches another expansion sequence in line 60: a repetition request. The sequence might have come to closure if it had not been for S2's self-selection. Thus, S2's turn halts the closure and expands the sequence in an unusual way by directing the repetition question to his peer S3 rather than the teacher. This sudden request for repetition seems to demonstrate an orientation to the fact that S3's turn in lines 54-56 is treated as the key learning point. Hence, it is needed to be repeated for a better understanding. Additionally, S2's turn design and body position (see figure 2 in the excerpt above) shift the locus of epistemic authority from the teacher to a student, S3. S3 produces a reformulated version of his prior explanation. Hereafter, S2 turns to the teacher, as figure 3 shows, and directs another confirmation question in line 72. S3 answers swiftly with a firm "no", although the question seems to be designed for the teacher, as S2's body posture indicates. This way, the teacher regains control by producing a responsive turn. Before the teacher's turn reaches a possible completion, S2 interrupts the turn-in-progress and completes the turn himself. Lerner (1993) calls this a collaborative turn completion in which the recipient enters the turn space of the speaker. S2's entry into teacher turn might be the indication that S2 has wanted to show his understanding, after which a sequence closing turn might have followed. On the contrary, the teacher provides a delayed elaboration on the answer that seemingly resolves the confusion for S2, who produces a non-vocal yes response that registers acceptance of the teacher response. So far, this substantially long sequence of talk exemplifies how students successively launched non-minimal post-expansion sequences and successfully managed to halt sequence closing in various ways. Also, it has demonstrated that the teacher's institutionally inscribed epistemic status can be challenged by students.

A similar case is observed in Extract 5.14, where students were noted to launch non-minimal post-expansion sequences to elaborate and build onto the prior turns during a speaking activity. The extract comes from an opinion-sharing task that requires students to share their ideas on what they can advertise on the radio (see figure 1 below in the extract). Extract 5.15 presents a sequence in which a student volunteers to provide her thoughts on advertising a particular product, a novel. It demonstrates how a student's unsolicited initiations lead to elaboration sequences and hence delaying the completion

of the sequences. The interaction is presented in two parts to show the configuration of the extended sequence that is led by a student who is gradually pushed to drop out of the conversation.

Extract 5.14: Really? [TR_A_GR1: Session 3]

Part 1: A previously willing student drops out of the conversation


```
1    S2    >>keeps her hand up, #2
2    T:    Gonca
3    S2:   no↑vels:.
4    T:    *raising eyebrows*
5    S2:   ↑novel
6    T:    novel?=
7    S2:   =yeah. ((while nodding head))
8    T:    ↑really.=
9    S2:   =+◦yes◦
10         *smiling-->
11   T:    uhm:: ↓novels but ↑how could you advertise
12         novels +(.) on radio?=
13   S2          + averts her gaze, #3
14   S3:   =it is impossible
15         (1.1)
16   T:    impossible?
17   S2:   +shakes her head+ ((implying 'no'))
18         (2.3)
19   T:    How, (1.0) how could someone advertise novels on radio?
20         (1.1)
21   S4:→  maybe: (.7) pages (.6) how many pages
22   Ss:   hahaha huh uh
23   S3:→  maybe writer say (.) I wrote this nov(hhuh)el
24         ahuhhah [please,
25   T:            [uh huh.
26   T:    maybe th[ey could [talk about the con↓tent
27   S3:           [◦buy it◦
28   S5:                     [o-
29   S5:   y[es
30   T:     [ri:ght, (.) of the novel what is it about,
31   T:    is it about love, [>is it about science<
32   S4:                     [or sales:
33   S4:   sales
34   T:    uhm::: if there is sale about it, (.4) could be:
35         (1.7)
36   T:    yeah why not.
```

S2 raises her hand to volunteer as the next speaker in line 01. The hand-up practice is the first part of the sequence and an initiative action. It is an embodied turn within the context

of the classroom, meaning that the student has something to contribute to the class and volunteers for it. Having been selected as the next speaker, S2 produces a one-word TCU "novels". There appears to be a double repair initiation by the teacher at this point. First, the teacher's embodied turn is an embodied repair initiation that shows S2's response is problematic due to hearing or understanding difficulties in line 04. In the next turn, it seems that S2 treats the teacher's embodied repair as a hearing problem and repeats what she has said in a slightly reformulated way and in a higher pitch. The second repair follows this in line 07, where the teacher repeats the student utterance, "novel", whose prosody indicates a questioning tone at the end. S2 confirms the accuracy of the teacher's understanding with a quick "yeah" accompanied by a head nod. So far, it is clear that double repair initiations treat the student response as problematic in some way. The teacher proceeds with a tacit request for elaboration: "Really" in a rising intonation contour (line 08) that holds S2 accountable for a next turn. S2 treats this tacit request as another repair initiation that signals an insufficient response. This causes S2 to produce a confirmation in a lower volume in line 09. Additionally, her smile that accompanies her confirmation in line 10 might indicate that S2 has recognised that her response is treated as insufficient and about to be challenged. Given that the task aims to improve learners' speaking and argumentative skills as opposed to the concept of advertising a product on the radio, advertising a novel should not have been of utmost importance. In discussion type of tasks, the place of the teacher in K+ epistemic status is counterbalanced to some extent by the very virtue of the task that required students to express their thoughts on the topic. Thus, it seems to be an unusual place to put the progressivity of the whole interaction on hold to request a repair as if the answer "novels" was problematic in some way.

The repair initiation, along with a tacit request for elaboration, indicates a preference organisation. Namely, S2's responses are somewhat treated as dispreferred. In addition, the teacher's turn initial utterance "uhm::" in line 11 can be considered a weak form of acceptance. Subsequently, putting a "but" at the beginning of the sentence, she goes on, "how could you advertise novels on radio". This question formulation creates a misalignment for progressivity and seems to downgrade S2's epistemic status, undermining the student's assertion regarding the novel. It seems that the teacher has invoked her authoritative position to question the acceptability of S2's response. As a result, the question fails to create sequential space for the student to elaborate on the

response. Eventually, S2 withdraws her gaze to avoid holding a mutual gaze with the teacher (figure 3), which signals an unwillingness to participate (Sert, 2015; Evnitskaya & Berger, 2017).

Later on, S3 chips in to respond to the question that has been initially designed for S2 (line 14). S3 has discerned this response depending on the sequential organization of repair initiations and the teacher's turn formulation. This is followed by another teacher request for further elaboration, "`impossible`", in line 16. However, S2 only shakes her head in response to that elaboration request while there is clearly a relevant place for S2 to initiate a verbal turn. Sequential position and the design of the teacher turn seem to result in several rounds of misaligning talk, which inhibits S2 from contributing further to interaction. As a result, S2 drops out to keep the conflict below the surface and to keep the progression of the talk. Even though S2 has previously had an agenda of contributing to the discussion, it has now been silenced.

Nothing comes for more than two seconds (line 18), which is enough time for any speaker to initiate talk. Instead, the teacher picks up and reinitiates the question "`how could someone advertise novel on radio`", which seems to be an open question to the whole group. In doing so, the teacher steps back directly from the configuration of the talk that has occurred earlier on. It opens up the possibility for the idea of a novel advertisement on the radio. This is followed by two students' responses. First, S4 provides a response in line 21, followed by a wave of laughter, indexing S4's response as humorous. Second, S3 proceeds, producing another jocular response, flagging up her turn as humorous by articulating the word "novel" with a smiley voice followed by laughter. Since the configuration of the teacher talk so far has favoured a preferred response, i.e., advertising novels on radio as a problematic idea, producing non-serious/humorous responses demonstrates that students closely monitor the sequential progression of the unfolding talk and participate accordingly.

At this moment, an interesting turn-taking practice is observed: an inverted format. In lines 26-31, the teacher has spoken out of turn, inverting her role within this interaction, offering a candidate response to her own question, which is a scaffold that can be built upon. That serves as a clear platform to contribute where the contribution was otherwise not forthcoming. It is at this point that S5 endorses the response "`yes`" during the ongoing teacher turn. When the teacher's turn design has opened up the possibility of advertising novels on the radio by providing a scaffold, students seem to follow the lead.

Given that S4's prior response articulated as humorous in line 21 contrasts with "`sales`" in lines 32-33, it can be seen as empirical evidence that student responses are influenced by the teacher's configuration of preference organization. Reformulating the S4's response, the teacher provides acknowledgement. After a relatively long gap, the teacher self-selects and provides a concluding remark: "`yeah why not`", which seems to indicate a form of consensus that has been created by the sequential environment further up and indexes the sequence closure. At this moment, S5 initiates a post-expansion sequence to provide an elaborative response to the earlier sequence that has been moved to a closure. This post-expansion sequence is provided in the second part below:

Part 2: Another student extends the talk by providing justification

```
37  S5:→ if (the author's) life is impressing,
38        (.7)
39  T:    ↑hmm:
40  S5:   er:: (1.2) by er:: telling (.9) this er:: story
41        (1.1)
42  T:    ↑okay:
43  S5:   er: what came from this story .hh if it interest
44        peo↓p[le
45  T:         [o↓ka:y: so what is the story about,
46        [how did the writer start writing about the novel
47  S5:   [yes: (.) yes (.) i-
48  T:    uhm: if the ↑background [is interesting
49  S5:                          [yes:
50        (.9)
51  T     °that's nice that's [very good.°
52  S5:→                      [for example if it is a:
53        true story (.7) it er: may interest the people=
54  T:    =hm::: you are right if it is a true sto[ry: right,
55  S5:→                                          [er: it is
56        er:: for example (2.3) it is- it is enough for film
57        (.5) for example, if it's a true story
58  T:    hm: o↓kay, they could shoot mo[vies about this [story
59  S5:                                 [yes            [yes
60        (1.5)
61  T:    you are ↑right.
```

Since this initiation brings the class back to an earlier point of discussion, it aborts the teacher's attempts at sequence closing. Hence, by launching an elaboration expansion sequence, S5 manages to redirect the interaction that has been meant to be headed in another direction. The teacher accepts S5's response, providing a reformulated repetition. After a gap of silence when S5 does not seem to be picking up from the cut-off point in her prior turn in line 47, the teacher closes the sequence with concluding praise tokens (line 51).

Yet, the student launches another post-expansion sequence to provide an example (lines 52-57), which further delays the closure of the sequence. The teacher, again, accepts the student's answer, which should close down the sequence in the ordinary classroom interaction. This teacher acceptance move also comes in quick succession after S5's turn in the prior sequence. However, it seems that S5's turn has not finished what it has set out to do; therefore, she interrupts the ongoing teacher turn to offer a substantial elaboration on what has been said earlier. This third elaboration links back to the prior turn because it follows from a turn that may have progressed if not for the teacher's quick manoeuvre in line 54. The sequence reaches a completion point further down in line 61, after which the teacher produces the concluding remark and moves on to another student.

This extract first demonstrates how a student was discouraged by the sequential position of teacher repair initiations. Second, it shows that teacher turn design can have a preference organization in relation to the responses they wanted to elicit, and this, in return, can have a significant impact on the type of response students would provide and student willingness to provide a response. Finally, it illustrates how all these develop into an expanded sequence. S5 launches an elaborative form of expansion completed over three distinct places of turn. In fact, three expansion sequences could have been a single cohesive turn at talk if it was not hindered or delayed. At the same time, the teacher initiates three turns to close down the sequence. After the teacher question in lines 11-12, the sequence could have been completed by S2. However, this is done by S5 over a series of expansion sequence initiations to elaborate, build onto, and add on to the previous discussion point.

5.3.3 Entering other's turn space (collaborative turn completion)

A final type of unsolicited student initiations was recorded when students self-selected to offer their peers and teachers unsolicited assistance. It was noted that students chose to provide scaffold in two cases: when they assumed their peers seemed to be having a communication breakdown and when they chose to display their knowledge. It is argued that the interactional accomplishment of these unsolicited assistance offers is that they can help resolve communication problems and contribute to the continuation and progressivity of interactions. These offers were mostly accepted, but there were occasions when students refused to incorporate them into their talks.

Extract 5.15 present an example where a student provides unsolicited assistance to a peer who rejects the assistance by initiating a self-initiated self-repair. The interaction comes

from a discussion task. Here, S5 is telling an anecdote to prove his point regarding the importance of creating public perception. The anecdote is about how a company is saved from going bankrupt.

Extract 5.15: To keep [TR_C_GR1: Session 1]

```
01  S5:   ahem er: Marlboro [uhuh heh
02  T:                      [uhuhuhh oka:y.
03  S5:   er:: the company is er::: (3.0) going bankrupt (1.0)
04        and er:: a man said that er::: giv- give me: (.) a
05        chance [and er:::
06  T:           [for what
07  S5:   to: er:::
08  S1:→  keep (.) to keep
09  S5:   kee- (.) ↑to SAVe the company and er::: they er:::
```

S5 provides the name of the company that is about to go bankrupt. This is followed by laughter, in which the teacher joins. The laughter might signal the predictability of the further talk, as the story has been told before. After the teacher's go-ahead response at the end of the turn in line 02, S5 begins his storytelling. The filler sounds and the long intra-turn pauses indicate that the student is experiencing trouble retrieving the relevant lexicons to complete his story (lines 03-05). It seems that his trouble is recognised by others, as S1 self-selects to provide assistance: "keep (.) to keep" in line 08. In her attempt to help, S1 seems to have projected the next bit of talk and produced it accordingly. At first, S5 seems to be integrating the word provided by his peer; however, shortly after, he cuts off, which signals a repair initiation (Jefferson et al., 1977), and restarts by using another verb, "save". As a result, he repairs the trouble himself by coming up with a better lexicon, restoring the sequence progressivity.

A similar case is observed when two students provide unsolicited assistance to a peer who accepts the assistance in the extract below. The class is engaged in a discussion task where students argue for or against artificial intelligence (AI) in workplaces. In the extract, S8 argues that AI enables easy access to bank services and saves time. Two students self-select to provide assistance when they recognise that S8 is experiencing problems due to the unavailability of some lexical items.

Extract 5.16: Save up the time [UK_E_GR3: Session 1]

```
01  S8:   like you ↑need to: wait at the bank like thirty
02        minutes but with artificial intelligence, you can get
03        your appointment like two minutes (1.0) or less: maybe
04        °I don't know° I am not[sure about that
05  S1:→                         [save up the time [you mean
06  S8:                                            [↑save up the
```

```
07          time yeah: I am trying to say (.) yeah
            [...]
08  S8:→   you will get your appointment (.7) less compared to:
09          (.) >will get faster<(.)compared to humans becau::se
10          humans: (.) with humans you need to talk with humans
11          but wi- (.) with artificial intelligence you need
12          to just press the (2.0) [err::
13  S4:                             [buttons=
14  S8:    =buttons a:nd you will have ↓appointment
```

Through lines 01-04, S8 justifies utilising AI in banks as it helps customers save time when processing their activities. However, the student is seemingly having issues as there are three different trouble indicators in his turn: the intra-turn pause in line 03, the explicit expression "I do not know", and "I am not sure about that". At this point, S1 demonstrates his understanding of the prior turn and is engaged in repairing the sequence, providing the phrase "save up the time", which summarizes S8's argument. Also, having added "you mean", S1 explicitly marks that he has transformed the argument into academically acceptable form. In doing so, he displays a K+ epistemic status, showing his linguistic knowledge. S8 accepts this new formulation and concludes his turn.

Later, when S8 reinitiates the same topic, explaining the fast process of getting an appointment using AI, he again seems to be having difficulty recalling a word, as a 2-seconds pause and filler sound at the end of his turn indicate (line 12). This keeps the progression of the talk on hold momentarily and prevents the accomplishment of the turn. Having recognised the trouble, S4 self-selects to provide the seemingly missing word "buttons" in line 13. S8 orients to the resolution of the word search and quickly articulates the provided lexicon. As the latched talk indicates, it might be possible that S8 could have recalled the word himself. Nevertheless, the turn was co-completed by S8 and his peer, S4.

5.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has explored the nature of student-initiated participation in their sequential environments. The analysis has conceptualized student-initiated participation on a continuum from performing responsive actions to initiative actions. In this regard, two groups were identified: solicited student-initiated participation to describe cases where the participants self-selected to respond to a prompt and unsolicited student-initiated participation to describe the cases when they initiated a sequence that held other recipients accountable for producing a responsive action.

Section 5.2 has examined solicited student-initiated participation, illustrating cases in which students self-selected to perform a responsive action. Their responsive actions were observed to be substantially constrained by the prior turn in terms of content and length. Depending on the functions of these responsive student self-selections, the analysis generated four sub-groups of solicited student initiations: (1) volunteering a response, (2) volunteering for an initiation, (3) interjection, and (4) disjunctive initiations. The analysis also observed that these initiations could have different consequences on the interaction in terms of contingency, reciprocity and progressivity in interaction.

Section 5.3 has examined cases in which students produce a first pair-part without any prompt. It has been shown that unsolicited student initiations bear differences in their sequential position. They can occur (1) in a first pair-part position to initiate a new topic and a sequence, referred to as interpolation, (2) extend a sequence in a first pair-part position or as a sequence-closing third in a post-expansion sequence, and (3) by entering other's turn space. It has been argued that those initiations can be consequential on the interaction and the courses of learning-teaching activities to different degrees by creating opportunities for learning, delaying sequence closure, and opening new sequences.

6 Results of semi-structured interview analysis

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter employed CA's tool to investigate how students secured speaking rights through the self-selection practice, whereby they enacted their willingness to initiate participation and agency. The results provided insights into students' observable self-initiated participation, focusing on their orientation to classroom work. However, when exploring the student participation, observational data, i.e., recordings of classroom interaction, would not answer questions regarding their thoughts and feeling, i.e., their cognition. This chapter, thus, sets out to discover students' non-observable behaviours: their thoughts and intentions underlying their participatory actions through semi-structured interviews. The interview has served both as a means for understanding their thoughts, reflections and preferences and as supplementary data on how they influenced the classroom discourse.

The chapter is organised under the two broad themes that emerged from the analysis and divided into two sections. The first section focuses on students' thoughts on their agentive behaviours in the class, i.e., their participation. Thus, it aims to discover the students' sense of agency. The second part presents the factors in terms of individual, contextual and linguistic dimensions that were influential on their willingness to initiate communication.

6.2 Students' sense of agency

The analysis revealed students' sense of agency as an overarching theme that emerged from the interview accounts. The analysis was carried out by coding segments where students expressed a capability, a sense of volition or intention that underlined their actions in order to help their learning, as in Clarke et al.'s words (2016, p. 30), to "change the trajectory of theirs and their peers' learning". These parts were coded as 'the sense of agency'. The parts where students expressed intention for action and yet failed to act were coded as a lack of agency.

In Chapter 5, the results provided insights into the ways students enacted agency. Students' self-initiated participation was conceptualised on a continuum from less agentive to more agentive. In this regard, solicited student initiations were regarded as less agentive than unsolicited student initiations. These results obtained from observational data regarding students' participation framework were used as a reference

point. Two patterns of student-initiated participation structures were closely examined in relation to students' interview accounts. Students' interviews highlighted a strong link between their sense of agency and participation structure. Based on the students' interpretations regarding their participation patterns, three patterns emerged from the analysis of students' accounts: 1) unsolicited student-initiated participation patterns as moments of achievement/triumph, 2) solicited student-initiated participation as satisfaction, and 3) non-participation/low participation as dissatisfaction.

The analysis showed that high contributors expressed a high sense of agency and reported triumph moments in which they enacted agency. For the parts where their participation was solicited by the teacher, they expressed satisfaction with being responsible students who were committed to learning. For the parts where they displayed unsolicited participation, students demonstrated an awareness that they could actually "make a difference" (Mercer, 2012, p. 41) through their contributions in whole-class situations and in smaller groups. By doing more than merely what was expected of them, they highlighted their positive impact on the trajectory of the interaction, which was translated into a higher sense of agency. This will be shortly explained in denser detail when presenting quotations from students below.

On the other hand, low contributors expressed dissatisfaction with their non-participation and regarded those moments as a loss of engagement, self-improvement and learning opportunities, and hence lack of agency. In their reports, they attributed their lack of agency to various reasons such as shyness, introverted personality traits, lack of topical knowledge, difficulty in L2 production and unwillingness to engage in easy topics. The students' accounts that exemplify both sense of agency and lack of agency were examined closely below:

6.2.1 Unsolicited participation as moments of success/triumph

Quotes from two students, Lucas and Sude, were provided to show how they assigned significance to their active involvement and displayed a "responsible and intentional membership" (Rainio, 2008, p. 115) for the classroom environment.

Lucas's sense of agency for his achievement emerged in the context (the UK, high contributor)

Lucas consistently expressed contentment when he volunteered to respond to teacher solicits and a higher sense of agency with his unsolicited participation pattern. His

account below emphasises his achievement, where he could provide an explanation when no one else, including the teacher, could seemingly do. The class was confused by the difference between the use of past simple and past perfect, going over a story sentence by sentence. The students were not satisfied with the teacher's explanation, as they chipped in one after another to ask for more clarification requests. Lucas took the initiative to explain the difference between the use of two past tense forms, which his friends oriented to as a learning point. This marks a triumphant moment for him (refer to Extract 5.13 in Chapter 5 for the related classroom talk that Lucas describes below):

> **Lucas**: they were discussing about, I think this was last week, about a past tense, and ((teacher's name)) didn't know exactly the explanation about some past tenses, and I think I could explain it to him and to the class.
> **Researcher**: How did you feel then?
> **Lucas**: I don't know, but it was a bit weird that ((teacher's name)) couldn't explain it, and (chuckles happily) maybe I was a bit proud that I knew something ((teacher's name)) didn't know. I mean, at that moment, I felt a bit like a teacher.

Lucas's anecdote is also significant in the sense that he positioned himself as the authority for the source of knowledge, as he was able to provide the correct response that the other students were seeking. As covered in Extract 5.13 in Chapter 5, his peers also positioned him as a person with a higher epistemic status at this moment by asking him to repeat his explanation.

The teacher behaviour was regarded as an inability by students who were not used to the teacher's handover of control or power to the students in the sense of knowledge source. It should also be noted that the teacher's delay in providing a satisfactory response contributed to the shift of control from teacher to student. While this teacher's behaviour helped the students' agency development, the rare occurrence of these actions led to an unwanted way of thinking by students. This might also lead to disputes about the contradictions of control (McNeil, 1999) in educational settings. The teacher's need for control and order contradicts the extent to which a student monitors control in the classroom.

Sude's sense of agency for her achievement activated over time in a micro-moment (TR, high contributor)

Sude was observed to be one of the students who frequently contributed to the discussions. She enacted her sense of agency in a discussion where another student was chosen as a moderator to manage the interaction. However, towards the end of the

discussion, she played a major role leading to a series of extended talk. She managed to launch several questions and follow-up questions that were not planned/scripted before. Below is her reflection on her autonomous act that made her "stand out" in her own words:

> **Sude**: Yes, even though I was not the moderator, I think I managed to stand out in a way. I did this by asking questions to others there. I love talking in English and gaining teacher favour.
> **Researcher**: how did you feel then?
> Sude*:* Umm, I think I did a good job there, as I think I helped to have more interaction in the class.
> **Researcher**: how did you help, do you think?
> **Sude**: Well,to improve their critical skills by asking questions, leading them to think. I asked questions about stuff, I asked them to explain. I kind of pushed them to think. For that, I am quite happy that I did this there.

She was delighted that no one challenged her to take control of the discussion; as she reported, she was aware that she could promote more talk among her peers by creating more space for talk both for her and for her classmates. Her self-appraisal of her performance in the class seems to empower her self-confidence and thus her sense of agency, which also indicates a link between students' beliefs and agency, as Bandura (1995, 2006) argues.

6.2.2 Solicited participation as satisfaction

As noted above, engagement, more precisely oral participation, seemed to closely relate to their sense of agency. Students reported satisfaction with the parts they acted on responsively. Thus, solicited participation patterns were translated into a sense of agency, making students feel satisfied. Moreover, the students' accounts demonstrated that their desire to volunteer to respond to teacher questions derives from their will to improve their academic language abilities. Two students' quotes are provided below:

Arda's sense of agency in the form of satisfaction (TR, high contributor):

The quote below exemplifies a student who showed higher frequency in the quantity of oral participation.

> I think I did quite a good job here; I could have done better, of course, but I think I gave full answers, and I contributed. I tried to answer almost all the questions the teacher asked. I tried to provide more extended responses. I do my best to improve my speaking skills. I think the more you pay attention and contribute and talk, the

more you learn something from that class. That's why I tend to sit in the front, close to the teacher.

Arda commented on the parts where he reacted to the teacher's invitation to answer questions or comment. His satisfaction with his performance is indexed in his answer "quite a good job" and "gave full answers", which highlights his commitment to his responsibilities. Intrinsically motivated, Arda repeatedly articulated his desire to improve his English, as in the quote. His desire is manifested in his conscious effort to be seated at the front desk, which apparently provided him with more speaking opportunities and contributed to his learning.

Ana's sense of agency in the form of satisfaction (the UK, high contributor):

The quote below is another example that underscores student satisfaction in fulfilling her duties and responsibilities as a student. "I feel proud of myself" marks her level of satisfaction with her performance and is something that she describes as "difficult" to achieve. Thus, acting responsive to teacher demands an invitation to speak in a challenging class becomes an enactment of the agency.

> Actually, quite good. I would say it was a fair amount of contribution. Yeah. I feel proud of myself, contributing and giving my opinion. Because usually, that is a difficult class, so I am very proud. Uh, I could have participated a bit more, but I can get very shy speaking in front of people.

Her success in participating in a whole-class discussion despite having public speaking anxiety in a challenging class seems to boost her confidence. She later added how she decided to put away her shyness and talk: "… most of the people were quiet, and I said, you know what, you need to put that shyness aside and then say something." This indicates the context-dependent nature of agency and how external variables affect students' enactment of agency through their initiative participation.

6.2.3 Non-participation/low participation as dissatisfaction

Relatively low contributor students expressed dissatisfaction with their non-participation, which they attributed to various reasons such as shyness, introverted personality traits, and unwillingness to engage in easy topics. The students' accounts that exemplify their lack of agency are presented below.

Fatma's lack of sense of agency (TR, low contributor*)*

> I am trying to say something, but I feel shy and then give up. But sometimes, even though I am ready to put my hand up, like, the teacher asks something, I say to myself, "the answer is such and such." And someone replies. And it turns out that my answer was correct, but I confirmed them silently. I wanted to say it, actually. But I still didn't say it. ((laughs)).

Fatma's quote is centred around her shyness which prevents her from taking action. Even when she finally feels that she has the gut to put her hand up, she does not act on her intentions. When someone else has provided the response that she has already prepared, she feels regret and is left with nothing but to "confirm them silently". It seems that providing a correct answer is a determining factor for her in order to be able to verbally active. Being left with the only option, "confirm silently", is the dramatic token in her reflective quote, as it connotates a negative emotion on the speaker's part. Her feelings are closely associated with her sense of failure to act on her intentions because she did not act to take control of her learning throughout the lesson. This lack of action positions her as a passive agent of her learning in the classroom.

6.3 Influential factors on students' participatory behaviours

Another important finding that emerged from interview reports offered insights into what factors affected students' willingness to contribute to the classroom discussion by taking initiatives that display their agency. Thus, this section presents findings regarding the dimensions influential on students' participatory behaviours. Themes emerged from comparing similarities and differences of each participant's interview report. From a socio-cultural perspective, students' contribution is shaped by their individual and collective thinking in a situational form of interaction in the classroom (Mercer & Howe, 2012). Therefore, the adopted approach was a situational and dynamic approach, which suggests that students' behaviours were context-dependent and dynamic within their interaction with their social surroundings.

Although these factors were categorised for practical purposes, they appeared to be interdependently and dynamically influential on students' decision-making process to contribute at any point in time. Nevertheless, they were treated under three broad interacting categories: (1) affective, (2) contextual/situational and (3) linguistic factors in order to present the findings in a reader-friendly manner.

Figure 6.1: Categorical illustration of influential factors on student contributions
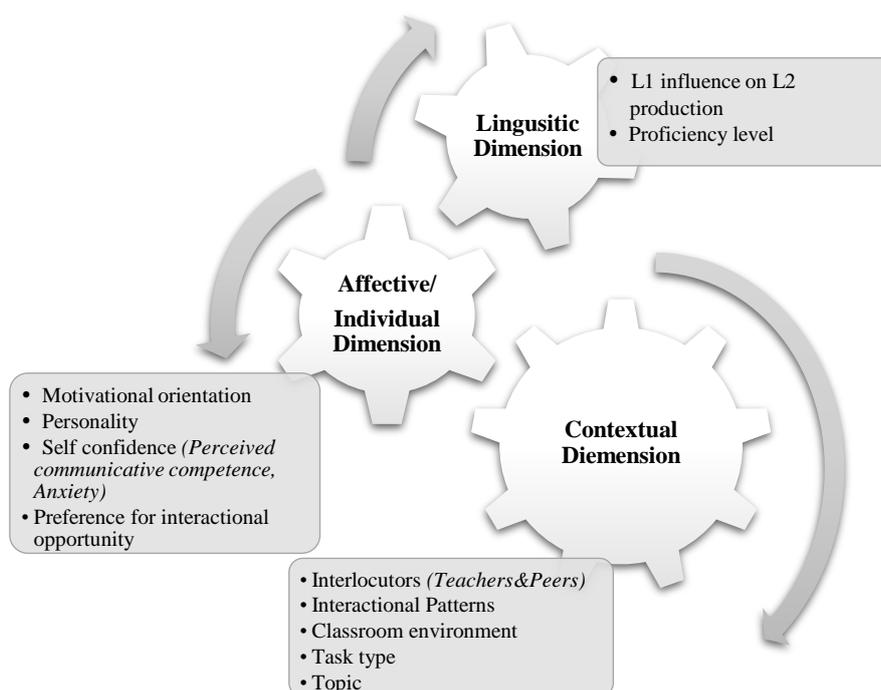
The figure above visualises the interactive relationship among factors under their broader categories. The interdependent relationship of these factors depends on the socio-cultural make-up of each learner group that was observed, the level of their mastery over the target language, and the training as well as educational conditions. The degree of influence that each dimension was reported to have on students' participation showed variations, illustrated in the chart below:

Figure 6.2: The broad categories and their total frequency of mentions
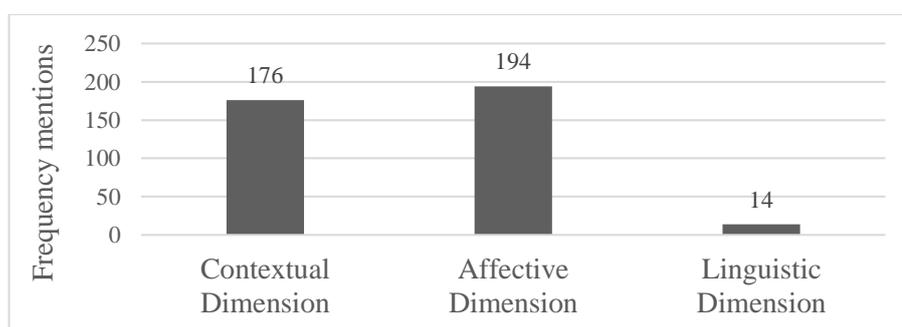
The most influential dimension was affective factors, while the least influential one involved the linguistic dimension. The factors are treated individually in the following pages.

6.3.1 Affective factors

The affective factors the current study identified included motivation, self-confidence (perceived communicative competence and anxiety), preference for interactional opportunities, and personality. The table below illustrates the frequency number that falls in each factor along with frequency counts across all interview reports:

Table 6.1: Total frequency counts of affective factors influencing students' WTI

Dimension	Factors	N=18	Frequency mentioned
Affective	Preference for interactional Opportunity	18	62
	Motivation	17	58
	Self-confidence	13	38
	Personality	12	36

Table 6.2: Frequency counts of affective factors influencing students' WTI in EFL setting

Factors	N=9 (TR)	Frequency mentioned
Preference for Interactional Opportunity	9	46
Motivation	8	31
Self-confidence	8	28
Personality	8	28

Table 6.3: Frequency counts of affective factors influencing students' WTI in ESL setting

Factors	N=9 (UK)	Frequency mentioned
Preference for Interactional Opportunity	9	32
Motivation	9	27
Self-confidence	5	10
Personality	4	8

The overarching theme in this category was the preference for interactional opportunities. Regardless of the plentiful opportunities created in the classroom, the way students perceived them played a significant role in their willingness to initiate communication. The second primarily influential theme was motivation, which was followed by self-confidence and personality, which also affected their verbal participation level to a reasonably large degree. These affective factors are discussed with samples from the data below:

Preference for interactional opportunities

The interview reports shed light on the students' perceptions of and preferences for the interactional resources available to them, which affected their willingness to contribute

to a greater extent. This particular factor also provides supplementary data and more profound insight by answering the "why" question about the predominant timings of students' self-selections in classroom interaction, which was empirically analysed in the previous chapter, Chapter 5. The analysis of interview accounts revealed varying views on how they chose to employ these interactional resources, particularly turn-taking opportunities available to them.

The students were divided into four groups in terms of their views or reasons regarding their timing to initiate communication, which falls on a continuum ranging from being responsive to being more agentive. The order is as follows: preference for being nominated, preference for following another student, preference for waiting for a prompt and opting for being an initiator. Below, they are presented with examples from the data:

1) Preference for being nominated

Students' views on being nominated by teachers or students controlling the interaction revealed contradictory positions. Few students expressed a preference for being called upon by the teacher since they found it hard to volunteer on their own to provide their input because of their shyness, whilst others noted the difficulty and stressful nature of the initiation act:

> To be the first is always difficult. So, I tend to wait to be chosen. Like, eye contact between the teacher and me, for example. Or she calls out my name. ((Fatma)) ((laughs)). (Fatma, TR)

> I don't feel that comfortable to talk in front of us like, you know, speak up unless the professor told me to say something. I just get a little nervous. (Rahul, UK)

Rahul's description renders the actual act of talking into a more tense task due to his public speaking anxiety. He limited his contribution only to those times when he was being called upon by the teacher. As discussed in Chapter 5, teachers' solicitation has proven an effective strategy to include non-participant students. This quote also stresses the importance of teacher nomination of a particular student in order to engage those students like Rahul who did not contribute to the whole-class discussion at all during the observed session. This inevitably puts more responsibility on the teacher's shoulder, who needs to know their students to regulate their turn allocation behaviours.

On the other hand, two of the students described it as attractive. For them, being called upon implied being valued, although they were not dependent on teacher nomination to be able to contribute. Below, a student quote is provided:

She asks a question, and then if she calls out my name ((Melis)) acting curious about my answer, that's a good thing, her addressing me by my name and, like, making eye contact with me. (Melis, TR)

2) Preference for following another student

Studies suggested that it can be less stressful for students to initiate communication when someone else has already taken the initiative as an icebreaker (Jacknick, 2009). The interview data showed that only a few leaned heavily on their friends who would initiate the interaction. The analysis further revealed the underlying intentions behind those student preferences. Their tendency to follow others' lead depended on the interplay of multiple factors: self-confidence, inability to take a risk, fear of making mistakes, and topic unfamiliarity.

A few students found it unlikable to jump in straight after a question was put forward since they regarded the behaviour as "showing-off". To avoid that, they showed a tendency to wait for another peer to take the first step. One of the Turkish students, Burcu, revealed: "It seems off-putting to me" to put herself forward but would, instead, ease her way into the discussion to avoid showing-off.

I observe other people in the class. Like, for example, if they will say something or not. I wait a little bit for them too. Maybe it is wrong or right, but I tend to let other people speak first. (Burcu, TR)

In some cases where students waited for their peers to initiate, it appears to be a strategy for them to get some direction or help from their peers at times of need to avoid making mistakes. The fear of making mistakes, losing face and self-confidence, unfamiliarity with the topic, or simply lacking the answer, intimidated them and led them to take a back seat. Fatma and Svetlana, for instance, reported:

It feels like when someone initiates it, they open it up for us to follow, like showing us the way, that kind of thing. If that person gives a wrong answer, and if the teacher corrects him, then you will know what kind of response you should be giving because you have observed it. (Fatma, TR)

I am afraid to make a mistake, you know, when the question is difficult and there is no correct answer. But I would say, for me, that should always be a correct answer. That's why I always listen to other people to see what other students are saying and what direction I should form my answer, so here the answer to this question was definitely not straightforward, so, you know, there are a lot of disputes if we can say it is a poetry or not. That's why I didn't give an answer straight away. (Svetlana, UK)

190

3) Preference for waiting for a prompt

According to some students, it was a safer zone to be in a responsive position. They sounded more dependent on others to create opportunities for them, and therefore, they tended to wait for a prompt from teachers or peers. One of the reasons reported was to avoid interrupting the teacher or the ongoing class, as in the quote below:

> Uhm, she asked a question but without waiting for us to answer that question [….] and said the answer herself. What I am trying to say is that she says the things that I can actually express. Students should talk most of the time, however, because the teacher says most of the things that we are supposed to say. And I feel the urge to stop her and say those things myself, like "please allow me to express that", but I cannot say it because I feel I will interrupt her. (Melis, TR)

Her unwillingness to interrupt led her to wait for a teacher prompt, which naturally eliminated the problematic position. Although she was willing to enact her sense of agency, she could not perform an action.

For some students, interruption referred to more than cutting off the teacher or someone else: it meant sabotaging the teachers' planned route and others' rights to listen/learn. Students' quotes are self-explanatory as to their tendency to wait for a teacher/student solicit:

> Unless there is, like, an opening from the teacher like an invitation for me to speak, I guess I felt like I didn't want to hold back anybody. I feel like I didn't want to hold back the classroom moving forward on to the new topic. (Sophia, UK)

> Well, I wait till the ongoing topic comes to an end. Even though I have something else puzzling my mind, the ongoing topic should be the topic of discussion because the rest of the class needs to hear it. So I wait. Even though I need to ask the question, they also have the right to learn from the ongoing discussion, and I cannot prevent them from their right. When they have finished, I ask my question before they begin a new topic. I feel that a lot. (Arda, TR)

4) Opting for being an initiator

It was not surprising that the high contributors were aligned with the preference for being an initiator. They displayed a higher sense of agency in order to create their own opportunity. They attributed their initiative behaviours to their urge and readiness to share their views and the answers being sought and to seek knowledge or confirmation. They also had the motive of showing the level of their progress. Below a student described her willingness to initiate, which stemmed from her self-confidence in her language ability.

She based her self-rating of her language ability on her exam scores and teachers' feedback.

> **Researcher**: You were the first one to put her input. Why did you want to speak?
> **Burcu**: Yes, I guess sometimes I just say it in order to be active in the class and express myself. I think I am one of the good ones in the class, with higher marks, and that's why I feel confident speaking up. Like, I knew that my friends sitting on my left were not going to answer first, or some wouldn't volunteer to respond unless being nominated by the teacher. So, in that kind of atmosphere, it is usually a couple of people, like ((two peers' names) and I, who take the floor first and volunteer to respond to questions. (Burcu, TR)

Those participants who tended to self-select themselves showed awareness and understanding that there were certain types of rules and norms along with complexities that operate to shape the turn-taking mechanism in the classrooms. With that awareness, they expressed that they had to delve into the interaction by pushing their chances to the limits of those norms. In contrast, some of them felt to adjust their timing to make it an acceptable behaviour within socially and institutionally constructed classroom norms. For instance, Arda emphasises the challenges of getting the conversational floor in the classroom where obtaining the next turn for a student is highly competitive due to the relatively higher number of interlocutors.

> If we wait to be selected, then we wait a long time because even though we are small in number, to be selected in the class is a small chance. I prefer to select myself or interfere like in a dyadic dialogue. (Arda, TR)

Yet, he reports that he prefers to make self-selection in order to put his input. His ability to make a choice and act on it escalates his chances of getting the conversational floor in a crowd. Maalik also shows a tendency to self-self himself but endeavours to be cautious, and hence limits the number of his self-selection.

> I don't mean like I just stay quiet and not say a single word until the professor asks questions. But I do tend to comment from time to time on something, but I don't comment like destructively to castigate or something anybody but just comment constructively about the topic or maybe ask a question myself. (Maalik, UK)

He highlights his being conscious of possible results of his actions on others, and thus regulating his behaviours of turn-taking in a constructive manner. This indicates a high sense of group cohesiveness since he shows awareness of his surroundings and monitors his turn-seeking behaviours and input.

Some students felt the responsibility to fill the silence gaps, which usually occurred after

a teacher question or when it was the students' responsibility to start the interaction or the activity.

> But like in this discussion, it was just to start it. I was just doing it to speak first and then like ease in a little bit. I talked first so that I didn't feel pressured to talk later because I just hadn't opened my mouth in a while like, all my team talked except me so that I wouldn't be one who hadn't said a single word. (Miguel, UK)

Additionally, students expressed varying views on how teachers' way of managing turn allocation mechanisms in the classroom affected their oral participation. There were a few students who revealed no dissatisfaction with respect to the teacher's control over or responsibility of the turn-taking mechanism. In the quotes below, it is interesting that the students who were chosen as moderators to control the discussions tended to be recognised as a person with equal authority as a teacher.

> Well, the teacher appoints moderators, and everything is up to them. And they choose whatever they like. It is not really a problem ((laughs)). (Fatma, TR)

Fatma shows a tendency to attribute the management of the turn allocation mechanism within the classroom to the moderators. She does not show a change of behaviour, no matter who controls the discussion. One reason could be that she might be used to the tradition where there was always a controller of discussions. In cases where the controller is a student appointed by the teacher, the power status of her peer has been escalated. A further reason might be that these moderator students tended to imitate the teachers in terms of the interactional management of the discussions. In other words, their way of handling the turn allocation mechanism might have been recognised by default and was followed by others, including Fatma.

Sude's narrative, for example, summarises how she imitates her teacher's way of turn allocation. She justifies it by arguing that it provided everyone with equal opportunity to talk. There is also an emphasis that the quiet students get a chance to express themselves, which is only possible, according to her narrative, through this strategy of turn allocation.

> Well, if I give an example from ((teacher name)), she asks everyone by one by to express their opinions. This is very good because then even those who do not speak normally have to talk. They have to express their own opinion. When I am a moderator, I also give an opportunity to everyone to talk. And I do that by imitating the teacher, taking my cue from her example. I think this is good. She lets everyone speak one by one and express their opinions. (Sude, TR)

Conversely, some students were unsatisfied with this particular speaker order, going around the table, criticising it for being inhibitive of higher student contributions. The two quotes below exemplify the students' sense of turn allocation mechanism. Kaya was more concerned about the turn allocation system as to being diminishing student interest and dampening the maintenance of their motivation to talk.

> We did the vocabulary activity, and the teacher found it more suitable to do it by going around the table one by one, but I usually do not think it is a good strategy because then students knew which sentence they needed to work on, so they only focused on that one. (Kaya, TR)

Likewise, going around the table to allocate turns was not favourite since it caused them to lose their opportunity to talk first. Burcu, for example, was upset that this particular turn allocation caused her to lose her chance.

> I don't like going around the table because someone might just say what you wanted to say, and you end up with nothing else to say. I missed my chance to say something because usually, many of us think the same answer. (Burcu, TR)

Motivational orientations

Students' motivational orientations were found to considerably impact their participatory behaviours. Regardless of the context and proficiency level, students expressed both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations underlying their willingness to initiate a verbal discourse in the classroom. Extrinsically, over half of the *s*tudents disclosed a motivational orientation towards momentary rewards such as receiving positive feedback or a confirmation from the teacher and material rewards such as higher marks or extra points, passing a critical exam and meeting the teacher's expectations proving their knowledge to the teacher. For instance, Miguel was motivated by his desire to meet the teacher's expectations and gain the teacher's favour, which would eventually serve his goal of passing the module in the end.

> I think we are not really serious with the class, I guess. Like it is funny how ((teacher's name)) approached, and then we started talking. But she is the toughest at grading and stuff like that, so we want to do perfect at her project, you know. (Miguel, UK)

Similarly, some students noted that they wanted to display a student profile of an active contributor because they wanted to prove themselves to the teacher and did not wish to be left behind.

> Well, I think I felt relieved that I had something to say and said it, just say it in order to be active in the class and to be able to express myself. I mean, I feel I am not left behind by the other students in the class. (Burcu, TR)

Success in their major degrees depends on their success in English courses, which played a significant part in affecting students' motivation and participation. Additionally, students reported that their motivation to attend those English classes stemmed from their desire to receive higher grades in exams and assignments:

> I quite enjoy the class, like trying to learn something new and encourage yourself and take more steps to the future, like, learn more English. (Aziz, UK)

> Because of the exam and also I need a level of academic English for my exams and assignments in my program. (Maalik, UK)

All students reported situation-specific motivational orientations such as engaging in discussion of their topic of interest or willingness to work on a particular task type or group work. However, a general motivation for improving their English proficiency level was prominent across all student reports. The closer analysis further revealed that students who were less proficient users of English were slightly more concerned with a deliberate aim to improve their overall language level.

> I contributed much more in that […], and I think this is what it should be. And if you want to improve your speaking skill, you have got to talk, so I asked many questions. (Ege, TR)

> The purpose is to improve my English, I mean, I am kinda person that cannot sit in classes without participating. (Svetlana, UK)

> We try to develop our English, as we were going to study here for three years in which we are going to start like next year first-year degree. We really need to practise our English to understand the lectures the next year. (Aziz, UK)

The students above were relatively less proficient users of English who expressed language-related orientations. The Turkish student Ege's intrinsic motivation was shaped by his desire to fluently articulate his thoughts in the target language, whereas the latter students' underlying intention to improve their language skills was constructed around their goal, i.e., performing adequately in English and their degree programmes.

Likewise, higher proficient students had a general motivation towards improving their English academic skills; however, they stressed a particular interest and enthusiasm for exchanging ideas and discussing certain topics with their peers. Those students' motivations were interrelated with the topic and task type. Their willingness to contribute

mainly derived from their desire to explore their interest topics and share their points of view. They were also particularly interested in a debatable environment, which boosted their their motivation to make verbal contributions.

> I think I talked a lot, and we were discussing a problem that presidents can't fix, the countries can't fix, real-life situations. There are lots of things that are real and arguments are real that we have to do in the class. (Rosa, UK)

> I think the discussion parts were the most enjoyable parts because we had to express our opinions and discuss points of view. (Nil, TR)

Additionally, students' reports showed that the variances in their social context considerably affected their motivation. Sustaining her motivation, for example, had become a problem for the student below, leading to demotivation. The change of lecturer and peers in the classroom naturally brought a different teaching style and a new dynamic in the classroom. Even though she described herself as a high contributor, as in her words, "normally, I was very excited, and participating very willingly.", she was demotivated by her learning experiences in her new surroundings with the new lecturer and friends. Although her interest in learning the target language did not seem to diminish, her participatory behaviours changed:

> I isolate myself from the class, from the lesson. This is kind of the source of the problem. I think we have a passive role in the classroom. I have a vocabulary notebook, and instead of participating in class, I prefer to read my vocabulary notebook. I do get occupied with some other stuff. (Nil, TR)

Multiple influential factors led to a change in the student's motivation to actively play a role in the classroom, indicating that motivation is a dynamic construct that can be shaped and influenced by the social context.

Self-confidence

Self-confidence involves two main components: self-rated proficiency in the target language and anxiety (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998). The analysis showed an inverse relationship between these two components. This suggests that students tended to show their willingness to communicate inside the classrooms when they felt confident in their answers and/or their abilities to understand and vocalise their thought in the target language. The below quotes demonstrate that their self-rated proficiency has a significant impact on their contribution. For Nil, willingness was co-determined by her perceived proficiency and intrinsic motivation, whereas Lucas rated his speaking ability with respect to other peers'

proficiency levels in English speaking ability. Their self-descriptive quotes are presented below:

> I think because I am better than the others, it was easy for me to talk; this really was the case. (Lucas, UK)

> I am pretty good, actually, like, I am talking quite long, like nobody else asked questions, but I did. And, I did not prepare those questions because I didn't articulate them fluently, and I kept making hand gestures and rolling my eyes because I was looking for grammar. (Seda, TR)

> I am confident, and that's why I find it easy to contribute in English. (Nil, TR)

Conversely, anxiety had a debilitating effect on students' willingness to volunteer to contribute to language classrooms. The most anxiety-provoking situation for students, in general, was the public speaking tasks where they needed to put in their input during a whole-class teaching stage. There was no difference in the nature of the anxiety the participants experienced in the classroom situations depending on the contexts and the status of the target language. The difference, however, was observed between the high and low proficient users of the target language. Participants from the English-speaking context were more proficient and hence less concerned about experiencing speaking anxiety in relation to language skills. The fact that they were surrounded by other international students in the classes provided them with ease of mind regarding their language skills. One of the students, Aziz, puts it as "because they're not English. If they were English people, like, then they could understand more than you, and talk and like, then you are gonna feel upset". Rather, the source of speaking anxiety for this group of participants was the fear of making mistakes and/or negative evaluation, losing face in front of others, and a lack of confidence in their arguments and ideas. A student reported anxiety due to the fear of making mistakes and losing face in front of others in the class:

> I think there was a level of anxiety. I usually try to push it back and speak up, and other times I kind of wait until somebody else says the answer. I don't want to say rejection but the embarrassment that comes with getting an answer wrong. I was probably letting that get in my way of answering there. (Sophia, UK)

Students from the non-English speaking context, Turkey, were not different in their reactions to stressful classroom situations or tasks. However, they were relatively less proficient English language users, and hence their source of anxiety had stronger references to their language skills in the target language. For example, they had a skill-deficit type of anxiety as to how to express their ideas with the choice and knowledge of

wording in the target language. For example, Melis attributed her silence during the discussion to her language skills, as she did not perceive herself adequate enough to put forward her ideas in the target language.

> I was quiet again because of my proficiency level, I mean, I could not express myself in English, like grammar and vocabulary, and I just stayed quiet most of the time. (Melis, TR)

They also expressed improved self-confidence due to the cumulation of positive experiences and decreased anxiety levels over time, which came along with their increasing proficiency in the target language.

> Talking in front of the public was not something that I often did, but later on, I got over this after I had a lot of practice, like talking to people and working experience. It was encouraging and helped me to boost my confidence, and I started to engage in more discussions that improved me even better. (Ege, TR)

In other words, he made progress both in linguistic and non-linguistic terms: progress in the L2, as he assessed himself, and gaining self-confidence. Likewise, another student, Rahul, also evaluates his progressive performance during the discussion and highlights his successful moment when he joined the group discussion without being asked to.

> **Researcher**: Can you tell me why you were quiet during the debate?
> **Rahul**: When someone asks me a question or something in front of class I don't know, I just get a little nervous to answer something. Yeah, all the time, I just sit quiet and just listen. But like I spoke a little, like, today we had a debate and, uh, I was, I think, I was pretty good at it ((refers to group discussion phase)). I spoke even though the teacher didn't ask me to ((referring to the moment when the teacher checked on their group)). Mm-hmm. I think I'm getting like I'm progressing a little bit day by day. (Rahul, UK)

His discourse implies an endeavour to change his shyness to participate, which he described as "progress". That endeavour to contribute to the group discussion without being encouraged by the teacher was only observable during the group discussion. He demonstrated no active participation during the whole-class phase and was only noticed to initiate a turn once during the long discussion activity. In other words, the smaller circle of people allowed him to speak, whereas the larger group of people in a discussion inhibited him from taking a further risk. Nevertheless, it was described as progress compared to his past experiences when he used to refrain from speaking in group discussions without teacher push. This indicates the context-dependent nature of the psychological variables.

198

Personality

From a trait-level dimension, extroversion was reported to be facilitative, whereas introversion and shyness were stated to have an inhibitive impact on students' willingness to contribute. For a few students, their active involvement was associated with their extroverted nature and their leadership spirit. Hence, extroversion was accompanied by leadership qualities which were manifested in situations such as controlling a discussion activity. The observational data and empirical analysis of classroom talk verified those student accounts showing that they controlled the turn distribution, initiating sub-topics and thus activating the discussions. For instance, Seda's willingness to manifest her leadership qualities through the management of the conversational floor stimulated more ideas. She controlled the turn-taking organisation by directing questions and urging her peers to contribute and hence activated the discussion:

> **Researcher**: How did you feel about your participation?
> **Seda**: like, I can control the class. To be honest, I have a leader in me, and I usually display this leadership in both class and within the family. And I enjoy being in control of the group, I like it. Because I was the moderator there, I felt like I had to talk, and I think this is necessary for me as a language learner. I asked additional questions like I did not just repeat the question in the book. Like she replied, "gardening", and I kept asking questions regarding gardening. If I had said okay and hadn't asked why she liked gardening, then I wouldn't have learned why. I mean, it was not something I was interested in, and I was asking, but I just wanted to keep the conversation going. (Seda, TR)

Some students, on the other hand, attributed their silence to their reticent and reserved personality traits. However, for some students, these traits also displayed a context-dependent sensitivity and were reported to be subject to change over time. For instance, whilst Sophia highlighted her trait-like shyness, others reported a change of state in their shyness:

> I was kind of still a bit shy performing in front of my classmates, even though I knew them for a few months at this point. I guess I am still trying to get a bit comfortable around them. I am definitely a shy person. (Sophia, UK)

> At first when I started this course, I was pretty shy to contribute and get involved with people. But after that, by the time, uhm, I felt better. Yeah, I feel comfortable to talk with people. Yeah. (Miguel, UK)

The overgrown familiarity with the immediate surroundings helped Miguel feel more confident and participate. Therefore, interacting with other people has become a less face-

threatening task. Likewise, some students complained that removal of the familiar surrounding (i.e., change of classroom, teacher, and peers) led to relapsing into shyness.

> **Researcher**: Why did you fear making a mistake?
> **Fatma**: I guess it is a big deal for me (laughs). I would feel embarrassed, I guess, and we had a teacher and student change
> **Researcher**: How did this change affect you?
> **Fatma**: I don't know them well, and I guess I am shy and cannot anticipate what the teacher's reactions would be. (Fatma, TR)

6.3.2 Contextual factors

The contextual dimension that effectively impacted the students' oral contributions was situational elements in their social and physical environments. Those elements involved topic, interlocutors (teacher and peers in this case), teaching style/methodology, classroom atmosphere, and form of interaction. The learning and teaching context is co-constructed by all individual contributions which are framed within the multi-layered and complex classroom environment where those elements naturally operate. Thus, in the study, too, the dynamic of the classroom was inevitably influenced by those classroom components. The table below shows the contextual factors along with the number of students mentioning them, which falls in each category:

Table 6.4: Total frequency counts of contextual factors influencing students' WTI

Dimensions	Factors	N=18	Frequency mentioned
Contextual	Topic	17	32
	Teacher	15	67
	Peers	9	16
	Classroom atmosphere	14	35
	Form of interaction	9	12
	Task type	7	14

Table 6.5: Frequency counts of contextual factors influencing students' WTI in EFL setting		
Factors	**N=9 (TR)**	**Frequency mentioned**
Topic	8	17
Teacher	8	36
Peers	4	6
Classroom atmosphere	8	20
Form of interaction	4	5
Task type	4	10

Table 6.6: Frequency counts of contextual factors influencing students' WTI in ESL setting		
Factors	**N=9 (UK)**	**Frequency mentioned**
Topic	9	15
Teacher	7	31
Peers	5	10
Classroom atmosphere	6	15
Form of interaction	5	7
Task type	3	4

The figures indicate that the topic played a prominent role in increasing students' willingness to contribute. It was followed by the interlocutors, which involved the teacher and the classmates. 15 students out of 18 commented that teachers had a dominant role in what extent they participated in classroom talks. They also revealed that familiarity and closeness with their peers allowed a less face-threatening atmosphere to speak up in class. The classroom atmosphere was reported to be influential on their participatory behaviours. This was followed by the form of interaction and the task type. Each factor is explicated along with student quotes from the data:

Topic

The topical knowledge was reported to be one of the major contextual elements that shaped students' readiness to contribute to classroom discussions. Topical knowledge or general familiarity with the topic made it easier for the learners to verbally come forward. Conversely, the lack of knowledge about topics resulted in less oral performance during class discussions. The topical knowledge was also closely linked to the students' perceptions of topic complexity. Complex topics, such as tax systems, counties' growth rates, or gender equality, required students to possess technical and, in some cases, numerical knowledge to comment. Similarly, general or exhausted topics were regarded as easy and partly helped students to elaborate on and participate. The two students' comments regarding the topics of discussion provide anecdotal evidence:

> I didn't like the topic at all, I could not talk at the beginning because I could not really understand what we were discussing; after some time, I got hold of what was going on. (Melis, TR)

One of the reasons I was not engaging was that I did not have enough knowledge on the subject, like not much to talk about. It was difficult to find a nice argument to talk about it, like to put it in words you know. (Miguel, UK)

The topic in the Turkish context was advertising and gender equality in the UK context. In both interactional contexts, the underlying reason for those students' unwillingness appears to be the lack of knowledge, which made the students perceive the discussion topics as challenging to elaborate on. This resulted in decreased oral performance in the class.

The interest in the topic was further concern for the students. However, students' accounts regarding the topic interest were not uniform. Some students expressed a lack of interest in the topic and yet displayed active participation. They linked their active role during the discussions to their general knowledge of the given topics. For example, Kaya reported that advertising was a relatively more straightforward topic; hence, no particular topical knowledge was required for him to participate.

I was a bit late and missed the beginning part, but I quickly caught up with them and contributed, so I think I was good. The topic is based on general knowledge advertising, an easy topic to comment on. Everyone should be able to say something about it. I mean it is not really interesting but an easy one and chosen well because everyone can say something about it. (Kaya, TR)

On the other hand, their interest in the topic also played a pivotal role when the topics were not straightforward and required a certain level of knowledge. Despite the difficulty and complexity of the topics, some students expressed enthusiasm for participating in class discussions. For example, Rosa reported that the knowledge or expertise required to discuss a complex topic did not become an obstacle for her. Her active participation was also confirmed via recordings of the session.

I participated, I answered the questions well. I like to participate, I like to understand even if the subject is difficult, like today we were discussing the world's problems that presidents are responsible and stuff like this, and having these conversations is very hard, especially for international students, but the subject was very interesting, and it is good to think about these kinds of things. (Rosa, UK)

Furthermore, students displayed unavailability and unwillingness to speak through their embodied conducts when the topics were complex or not interesting. These embodied actions include indirect expressions of unwillingness to speak, such as gaze aversion, hand-raising styles, and more direct displays of unwillingness, such as saying no with hand gestures, as in the quotes below.

> I put my hand up only halfway, and that is because I was not really eager to talk. It was just to show that I knew the answer, and if she wanted me to say it, I would, but I did not really care. When I am eager, I put my hand all the way up, but if not just this way. Looking at other students, the way they raised their hands was different from mine. They put their hands up the whole way. (Arda, TR)

> **Researcher**: Why were you quiet even though you seemed very attentive?
>
> **Aziz**: it was difficult to understand the topic and the subject she was talking about, artificial intelligence. I didn't have anything to say, I didn't take my eyes off the notes ((laughs)). (Aziz, UK)

Interlocutors

The classroom context inherently involves two major speaker parties: teacher and students. The social surrounding involving these two parties inevitably shapes student participation in classroom discourse. Given the crucial position of the teachers in the classrooms, their influence was also reported to be a major influence on students' participatory behaviours in this study. Likewise, the relationships with peers, such as closeness, familiarity or conflict, impacted their verbal participation.

Teacher role

The teacher role was all-pervasive on various levels, including topic selection and initiation, assigning tasks, managing speakerships, and choosing the methods for delivering the content. Thus, they played both facilitative and inhibitive roles in students' willingness to contribute. Teacher characteristics, behaviours and attitudes were broadly mentioned to influence students' participation. For most, teachers' sense of humour implied more than having a fun environment in the class, which was also vital for more productive communication in the classroom. It also refers to the quality of the interpersonal relationship between teachers and students. The teachers' ability to make, allow, and react to jokes was interpreted as a positive trait, creating a closer rapport. Arda shared his personal experience that he had in the class, noting that it helped him to feel closer to the teacher.

> ((Teacher's name)) reacted positively to a couple of jokes that I made. And I took it as a sign of sincerity. To be able to react to my jokes appropriately means that she knows me. And to be known by your name by teachers and to have a closer relationship with teachers are very important. (Arda, TR)

Conversely, students also reported the teachers' lack of sense of humour, which negatively affected the immediacy and rapport.

Uhm puff, I am not sure; she is a quite serious teacher, so it isn't that easy to contribute in that class because she is very serious. She is not a mean person but just very serious. She doesn't take jokes so ((laughs)) like if someone makes a joke, she wouldn't laugh, she just looks at you straight, she was very straight she doesn't joke around. She just tells you what you need to do, and she just sets the task and tells you to do to it. (Irina, UK)

If it were me, I would have made a joke to make it more fun, and that would have helped the students be more engaged. (Seda, TR)

In addition to the sense of humour, students expressed that teachers' overall attitudes and nature affected the rapport they established with their students and hence played an important role in students' oral participation. Whilst friendly, agreeable teachers who cared about their students evoked a sense of security in students to participate, unfriendly/strict teacher behaviours led to an unwillingness among students to provide their input into the ongoing classroom activities.

I think he was rather a reason to contribute than not to contribute, but he was not the only reason, and he in some way called upon my name and kind of forced me to contribute. this is actually good. He is nice and I think it really is important for him that everybody in this course gets to talk, gets to say something to interact with each other and this was actually good. (Lucas, UK)

Aziz: She is a bit strict with us, like in the way of teaching, she is perfect, but she can be a bit aggressive.
Researcher: What do you mean by "aggressive"?
Aziz: Like, let me make a point, we had a project, an English project which was like 3000 words, and she asked us to make a plan and asked us to bring it to her, and I did it, but I forgot to put my name on it, and she said what's that and she said what's your name and she got mad. It was not personal, it was only for teaching, but she was right. (Aziz, UK)

Teacher immediacy, which refers to both verbal and nonverbal communication behaviours, was reported to influence students' participation. The teacher's active listenership (e.g., non/verbal reactions to students' comments, embodied display of engagement in students' comments, etc.) was highlighted to encourage them both to continue talking and be willing to talk on future occasions. A student highlighted:

And they usually show that they are listening like they say "yes" at the end of each of my sentences because that implies "yeah, go ahead", and that encourages me to go on, and I want to go on. (Seda, TR)

Conversely, the lack of backchannelling tokens, which are usually in the form of affirmative or dissenting feedback, caused students to feel discouraged and frustrated, as the students below reported:

> Most times, I feel like I did something wrong, or it was not important enough to get feedback from the teacher. I think it was more like a waste of time for me to speak out in class. (Sophia, UK)

> Well, at least they have to make it clear they are listening. If she is not listening, then your voice fades down even though you have started with a high volume. Then it goes vanished. (Fatma, TR)

They expressed dissatisfaction regarding the dull classroom interaction and reported that the teachers should have held much responsibility for making it an interactive class. Thus, the teacher support/interference was noted as pivotal for generating enthusiasm and encouraging engagement, creating speaking opportunities and controlling group activities. For instance, Seda described the lack of interaction during a class discussion in which the teacher left the control to the students:

> I just noticed a very quiet classroom, actually, I mean, the aim was to make students talk, but I wished the teacher had intervened occasionally and asked some questions to encourage us and to push us. It just seemed too quiet to me, to be honest. It would have been nicer if she had sat close to us and interacted with us, actually. And the class seemed so unenergetic, and I don't know, but we seemed pretty dull. I mean, if it were me, I would have asked something rather than just leaving the students on their own. (Seda, TR)

> The problem here is that the teacher should have interfered from time to time to get the students back on track. […] so it is the teacher's responsibility to involve those students in a nice way, such as what do you think?" not like "you didn't talk today". (Kaya, TR)

The above quotes show that the teacher involvement was called for her control over the interaction since the teacher could probe more ideas and encourage more student inclusion. It is noteworthy to highlight that it was regarded as 'responsibility' rather than the desired action. Teacher involvement was also reported to be necessary for their superior position in terms of knowledge and teaching ability. For Sude, teacher involvement meant having a dynamic interaction with more challenging perspectives. For the latter student, the teacher was a superior interactant in terms of knowledge and possibly a more competent language user. In other words, the teacher was chosen over her peers since she was able to spot a mistake and could offer more in terms of information to have a more trustworthy discussion.

205

I think it would be better if she joined in our discussions, then, it would be more challenging, more dynamic, more debatable. (Sude, TR)

I prefer the teacher to get involved more, her opinion, because she knows more than us, like she corrected me about the percentage because she knows more. Like they want us to speak a lot to learn English and stuff like that I actually would rather have the conversation with the teacher than with another student. (Maalik, UK)

In contrast, a few students set the teacher free of this task stating that the teacher's responsibility should only be to prevent any argumentative atmosphere. For instance, Rosa does not prefer to rely on the teacher to create speaking opportunities for her and thinks that the teacher's role is more of a scaffolder.

I think that teachers should be in the room only to protect anybody's arguing or anybody disrespects anybody else, but for other reasons at this age, I think everybody should be able to have a normal conversation and allow the other person to talk about what he has to say. (Rosa, UK)

A further point stressed by the students was the importance of vivid and varied forms of activities blended smoothly and well-organised. While Svetlana was more concerned about how well a lesson was organised, the Turkish student, Nil, was demotivated by the routine of following the coursebook and limited activity range, which was seemingly inadequate to increase the active participation of students:

It depends on the teacher for me, it depends on the exercise that we work on, and depends on the plan, like some teachers have a special plan for the class. And if there is not any plan and just different topics and they are not really connected, I don't like such classes. I don't tend to speak a lot. There is a structure I see a logic, I want to engage. (Svetlana, UK)

Nil: But we are not active while doing listening activities anymore, because we only follow the course book.
Researcher: what would you prefer instead?
Nil: I would suggest that we do reading exercises, and then, like song lyrics. (Nil, TR)

Classmates/Peers

Intergroup relations were inevitably influential on students' willingness to contribute and actively participate in classroom discussions. Students found it easier and relatively more comfortable to speak out when they were familiar with their classmates or had enough time to create a bond with them. The following quotes underline the role of a good rapport with peers as a facilitative factor. Both students found making mistakes less face-threatening in her class due to a closer relationship. Svetlana, for instance, reported a good

relationship that extended outside the classroom. Similarly, Sude highlighted the stress-free atmosphere rooted in the fact that their friends avoided making negative remarks regarding their performances in class.

> Everyone is really friendly, open-minded, and we have a chat group on WhatsApp, and we go out sometimes. And I am very happy to be here with them. Maybe the reason why I am not embarrassed when I make mistakes is that I feel free and relaxed here. (Svetlana, UK)

> My friends are really understanding; everyone knows one another's proficiency level, and they don't make any negative comments. (Sude, TR)

Conversely, lack of intimacy and familiarity played an infinitive role in evoking feelings of isolation and reducing students' willingness to communicate. Below, a quote from a usually active student explains why he was not active during the group discussion and later during the whole group activity.

> I was not engaged because of these two guys in my group, I didn't know them very well, and it was just a bit hard for me to get engaged in the group with them, and they were very close to each other. I noticed I was quiet, and bored too, because of that. (Arda, TR)

Furthermore, students' perceptions of their fellow students' academic success and intelligence played a role in students' desire to contribute to classroom discussions. However, students' views were not uniform. For some, higher intellectual capacity or proficiency in the target language was a significant stimulant, whereas some felt a sense of security with lower-proficient peers. The below quote shows that students find it encouraging to discuss ideas with their peers with a profile of an intelligent person.

> In my class, there is lots of people that I believe they are really smart, so I feel like it's good to talk because I can hear their point of view as well. (Rosa, UK)

In contrast, some students noted that their peers' low proficiency nurtured their confidence and hence increased their willingness. Thus, their willingness was co-determined by a number of variables, i.e., peers' academic achievement, self-confidence, and anxiety. For instance, the below quote exemplifies how fellow students' proficiency indirectly affected Lucas's willingness to communicate, nurturing his perceived communicative competence.

> When they speak very good English and you know you are doing mistakes, and this is a bit embarrassing, I think, and in this class, you wouldn't coz the others are speaking even wors e than me. It gave me a bit of confidence; I didn't have to be embarrassed. (Lucas, UK)

207

Classroom atmosphere

The climate in the classrooms is a shared atmosphere and a vital component of the learning-teaching process. It contributes to maintaining a good rapport between the members of the classroom and influencing their motivation and learning (Lee & Mak, 2021). Students in this study were also influenced by the classroom atmosphere. They tended to base their perception of the classroom atmosphere on the quality of interaction they had with their peers and the teachers, the teacher's ability to handle teaching practices smoothly, and the overall group dynamic, which is known as internal group cohesiveness (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). The overall group dynamic, i.e., group cohesiveness, was closely associated with students' willingness to participate orally in an ongoing classroom activity.

Students' reports showed that their perspective on the importance of talk had a two-way relationship with the classroom atmosphere. According to them, the higher amount of talk was both a cause and consequence of a friendly and dynamic classroom atmosphere. In other words, they regard the prevalence of a more collective classroom talk as an essential element for constructing a friendly and enthusiastic zone in the classroom.

> I noticed that there was a fun atmosphere in the class, and even though I found the topic quite dull, I still participated because everyone was in a light-hearted mood and quite fun, and the atmosphere was warm to push me to contribute. (Ege, TR)

Conversely, some students felt an absence of group cohesiveness and linked this to their fellow students' involvement and participation level. The classroom atmosphere lacked an interactive and enthusiastic learning environment. The quotes provide anecdotal evidence:

> I think the more people talk, the more people would have joined in, I mean, it would have been better to have more people talking. It would be more debate; the debate would carry on instead of just finishing. it would be more interesting to hear more people's opinions as well, not just one or two. (Irina, UK)

> Only a couple of people were listening to each other, and the rest seemed uninterested and were busy with something else, playing with their phones or talking among themselves. I think we could have been more attentive because it was an interactive discussion, and we could have done more by sharing responsibility with the teacher and asking questions to those who were not listening and trying to get them involved again. (Kaya, TR)

An inclusive and equal classroom clime was also noted to be closely related to students' un/willingness to initiate or participate. Whilst some students reported a classroom climate with open-minded and inclusive members, others complained about the lack of such a democratic environment that deprived them of the feeling of acceptance. For instance, for Burcu, being inclusive and respecting one another's opinions were seen as prerequisites of having an interaction that would ideally be dialogic in nature.

> I actually like this kind of class atmosphere where it is more "open-minded" and inclusive of all's opinions. In this class, listening and speaking it is more like a dialogue. That way, communication increases. Once the communication increases, it turns into a dialogue. (Burcu, TR)

In contrast, another student stated that negative and even hostile attitudes harmed the interactive nature of classroom discourse, which increased dissonance in the group. Disrespectful behaviours, according to Rosa, sabotaged a friendly and harmonious discussions atmosphere:

> The problem was not like having the conversation. The problem was some people in the class, I would say, are ignorant or don't care about what we are doing, so they jump in on the conversation or disrespect somebody else, like what you are saying is completely wrong. If there wasn't a teacher, sometimes the different opinions would end with an argument. And I do not like an argument, I just want to just know your opinion, and I keep mine anyway. (Rosa, UK)

Form of interactions

The number of interlocutors that the students had to have a discussion with was observed to be influential on their participation level to a greater extent. More than half of the students found it reasonably productive to have group/pair discussions before discussing any topic with a larger group since it provided them with ample opportunities to prepare themselves for the main task stage.

> We talked in groups first, and I like that because we shared and discussed our ideas with each other first, and that allowed us to have more stuff and things to say during the whole class discussion. (Kaya, TR)

It is noteworthy that a student regarded it as a space to improve their interactional skills rather than an opportunity to comprehend the subject.

> I think it is not the content we are learning but social skills to interact with other people. (Lucas, UK)

However, students' preferences regarding how many peers they wished in their groups varied. For Aziz, a smaller number of people means ease of mind and yet an excellent opportunity to exchange ideas:

> I would prefer in a pair, asking the questions in a pair, because you can, uhm, it is not a big group, and you can just talk with your partner and transfer information, yeah, yeah better with two than three or four people, otherwise, a lot of information and many opinions come at the same time, and you cannot accept all of them. (Aziz, UK)

Conversely, few students preferred a relatively larger group to have a conversation with, as it allowed them to hear more perspectives on the ongoing topics:

> Because everybody can give different opinion. Yeah. And if it's just two people, you've got to give your opinion. I'm going to give my opinion, then you just sort of sit there with each other. (Irina, UK)

Despite the more competitive and relatively more stressed nature of whole-class classroom talks, students might wish to have in larger groups to be reassured that they are on the same page with the rest of the group and on the right track. In the study, some students sided with the whole group for the sake of having more teacher-student interactions.

> I prefer more interaction between students and teachers like student and teacher not student and student, just to make sure I get enough talk for the sake of improving my language. But here, I understand that there are a lot of pair or group works. (Svetlana, UK)

For Svetlana, teacher-student interactions provided her with a more competent interlocutor to practice language inside the classroom. Some students also described it as more dynamic, interactive, and attractive.

> I prefer student to teacher because sometimes what another student thinks, you already think as well. So, like, some more teacher talk would be better, more dynamic, yeah. (Lucas, UK)

Only a few students expressed increased anxiety and thus reduced or eliminated willingness to speak in front of the whole group. Students attributed their avoidance of whole-group interactional contexts to their shyness and anxiety. Two student comments provide examples from the data:

> I still get anxious when I do presentations, but because it was a relatively smaller class, I was quite fine, I think. (Kaya, TR)

210

But I tried to express myself because I know I need to get over this and I can do that by speaking more, but I noticed that I still got that anxiousness on my face while speaking, I could see that on my face, my mimics, and gestures. (Melis, TR)

Task type

Some particular activities attracted more attention and hence more student contribution. Of all, debatable discussions were predominantly mentioned to be their liking. While Maalik was particularly interested in debates, the latter student complained about a lack of challenging discussion atmosphere in the class:

Well, the thing is I like debates a lot. […] I like to discuss them and go to the bottom of the, you know, story, or maybe find a solution, discuss a solution. (Maalik, UK)

I would prefer a debate atmosphere, a controversial one where everyone challenges the other. I do not mean a competitive situation but one where people can challenge one another. But ours is more like a question-answer slot. One is moderating, and the others only express their opinions. The ideal one would be more like a discussion. (Sude, TR)

A few students reported dissatisfaction and a decline in their contribution level because of the tasks they had to work on in the class. A student reported that the class lacked varied and demanding tasks that caused her to lose interest in the class. The activity range that they had to work on became of a monotonous nature, which apparently led to a diminishing contribution level.

I have not been really contributing these days because I am really bored. We always have the same things that we work on. We don't do different kinds of activities in the class. We could at least do different things like listening to music or different kinds of activities. (Nil, TR)

6.3.3 Linguistics factors

In the study, linguistic variables were the least influential dimension. Two variables have been associated with the linguistic dimension: proficiency in the target language and reliance on L1. Proficiency in the target language emerged as a more influential factor than their tendency to rely on their L1. The frequencies are provided in the table below:

Table 6.7: Frequency counts of linguistic factors influencing students' WTI

Dimensions	Factors	N=18	Frequency mentioned
Linguistics	Reliance on L1	2	3
	Proficiency level	6	11

Table 6.8: Frequency counts of linguistic factors influencing students' WTI in EFL setting

Factors	N=9 (UK)	Frequency mentioned
Reliance on L1	1	2
Proficiency level	3	5

Table 6.9: Frequency counts of linguistic factors influencing students' WTI in ESL setting

Factors	N=9 (UK)	Frequency mentioned
Reliance on L1	1	1
Proficiency level	3	6

Proficiency in the target language seemed to get in the way of both groups of participants: the Turkish students in Turkey and international students in the UK context. Likewise, reliance on L1 was also observed in both data sets. However, it was only reported by two students.

Reliance on L1

The analysis of classroom interactions provided empirical evidence that reliance on L1 was observed in both settings. Given that the group of participants in the UK settings belonged to a heterogeneous classroom context in terms of their L1, such occurrences were rare. However, it was also rare among the group of participants in the Turkish context despite sharing the same L1, Turkish.

Although the mode of communication was in the target language, English, in the Turkish university English classrooms and it was constantly encouraged by the teachers, the student mentioned that they switched to Turkish in their group/pair discussions stages:

> I think we talked in Turkish first with ((Melis)) then when the teacher approached us, we switched to English. We speak in Turkish with our neighbours unless the teacher warns us. Well, they do not tend to check on us, really. We are usually on our own, just like in that discussion. She only approached us once, maybe twice. (Kaya, TR)

The English language was constantly used as the medium of instruction by teachers and students. The language of group discussions, unfortunately, went undetected. However, student reports, as in the above, are the only source of evidence that showed the use of the Turkish language in group discussions.

The chances of relying on L1 were smaller in the UK settings because of the low possibility of having all students from the same L1 background in group discussions. Nevertheless, student reports and classroom observation demonstrated that students occasionally happened to be working with peers with whom they shared the same L1.

They sometimes tended to switch to L1 with their peers on those occasions. However, the analysis of classroom interaction and the students' accounts showed that teachers tended to treat those instances as violations of classroom discourse rules, as in the example below:

> We can't speak Portuguese. We have to speak English because I remember once one of the girls said something in Portuguese, and it was just between us, and it wasn't group work. And ((teacher's name)), she wasn't happy, she said no girls, this is an English class, and you have to speak English. (Irina, UK)

Proficiency in the target language

Proficiency in the target language appeared to be a factor in both groups of participants affecting their participation. Mainly, the majority of the interviewees reported lacking lexical resources while speaking. For instance, the student from Turkey below finds it difficult to articulate her sentences in the target language:

> **Fatma**: I guess I was afraid that I could not formulate it in English properly, like grammatically and could not produce a sentence to express my opinion.
> **Researcher**: Is this what happened today?
> **Fatma**: Yes ((laughs)) I could not say it in English, and when she asked if it was a secret, I said yes as a way out. I felt so helpless there because I could not say it in English, so I said yes, it was a secret. (Fatma, TR)

The student displays a behavioural reaction to her uncomfortable position by choosing not to speak and hence opts out for a short answer that defers any further enquiry from the teacher. The reason for the anxiety she was experiencing when speaking with her teacher was the teacher's follow-up question that the students were unprepared for. The unexpected further inquiry leads to an anxious state for the student, who then prefers an easy way out.

Another student from the UK context also expressed her frustration regarding the difficulty she had in her attempt to share her opinion during a discussion where she sensed the teacher had failed to understand her point due to her English:

> It was a bit hard, especially if you cannot express yourself as you wished. It is just really frustrating. It is more like knowing the words, knowing the meaning, and knowing how to say it right, not the grammar. So, it is a lot of thinking and thinking, then speaking. And sometimes, I had to write it down or maybe ask ((peer's name)). (Rosa, UK)

6.4 Summary

This chapter presented two major themes that emerged from the data analysis. The first one is the student's sense of agency, and the latter is the factors that were influential on students' willingness to communicate/initiate. Findings have suggested that students displayed higher levels of agency through their participation patterns. Conversely, some failed to enact their sense of agency, and many attributed this to various different factors such as shyness, lack of topic knowledge or perceived communicative competence.

Those factors, along with many others, were treated under three dimensions: affective, contextual, and linguistic, which have been covered in the second section of the chapter. The results also displayed those students were impacted by those at the dual level: trait-level and transient situational-level factors. While trait-level factors such as personality (e.g., extrovert versus introvert) refer to the stability of student intentions, state-level factors (e.g., topic difficulty) imply fluctuations in their willingness to communicate. Findings suggest that perceived interactional opportunity, motivation, interlocutors (mainly teachers), and topic respectively were the most influential factors on students' willingness and readiness to contribute. They were followed by classroom atmosphere, self-confidence, personality, the form of interaction, and task type. It should be, however, underlined that these factors were not independent of each other; instead, there is a complex interplay among them.

7 Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the emerging findings in relation to the relevant literature. It is outlined under the rubric of the two overarching research questions. It begins with a section summarising the main findings related to the first research question and discussing them in more detail (Section 7.2). It touches on (1) the nature of student-initiated participation in their local contexts and (2) how student-initiated participation influences the interaction and widens learning opportunities. Section 7.3 presents and discusses the main observations related to the second research question, dealing with the two broad themes: students' sense of agency and willingness to initiate communication. The chapter concludes with a summary of the chapter, highlighting the connection between the main findings in Section 7.4.

7.2 The nature and role of student-initiated participation

The primary aim of this study was to empirically demonstrate how students participate in classroom discourse through self-selection practice and the pivotal role of student-initiated participation. Thus, the study answers the overarching question: What is the nature and role of student-initiated participation in university EAP classrooms during whole-group interactions? More specifically, the question aimed to investigate (1) when students predominantly initiate a turn, (2) the interactional consequences of students' self-selections and to what extent they can influence the interaction and learning opportunities. To that end, the study has explored the nature of student-initiated participation through a conversation analytic examination of 31-hour videotaped lessons gathered from various university settings in both the UK and Turkey. The analysis has centred on the conversation analytic constructs of turn-taking, specifically self-selection, to offer a student-initiated participation framework. This framework is based on the sequential positions in which students contributed and what they could accomplish through turns-at-talk by self-selecting themselves as the next speaker (Lerner, 2003) in whole-group interactions in EAP contexts.

7.2.1 Main findings related to RQ 1

The study has conceptualised student-initiated participation by the sequential position, and two primary patterns have been noted: solicited and unsolicited student-initiated participation. Students' self-selections in response to a base first pair-part to initiate a

responsive turn-at-talk created 'solicited student-initiated participation'. The self-selections observed as the first pair-part of a sequence to initiate an action displayed 'unsolicited student-initiated participation'. Sequential analysis has further revealed variations in sequence organisation as a result of the interactional position of student initiation and the intended action they perform, which indicates a complex configuration of student-initiated participation. Figure 7.1 below presents the topology that summarises these differences.

Figure 7.1: The topology of student-initiated participation in L2 classrooms
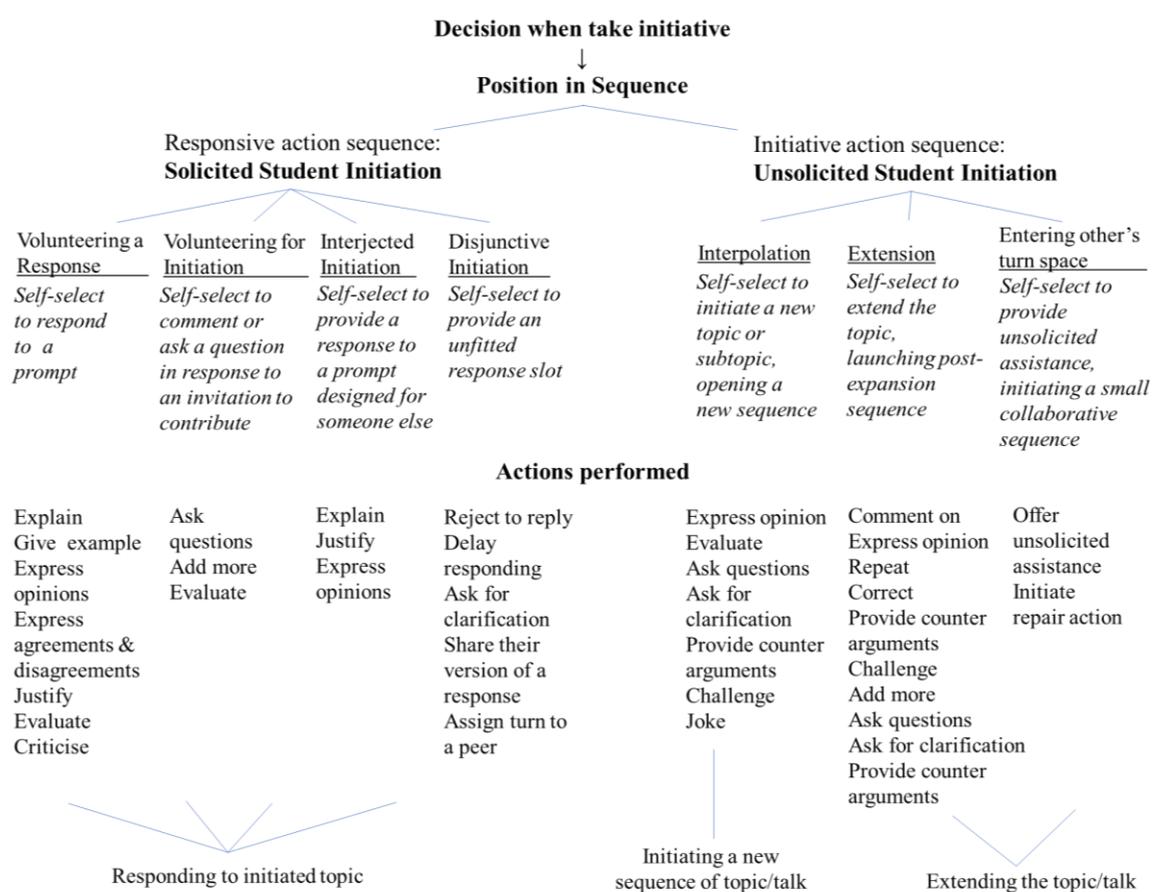
The analysis in Section 5.2 in Chapter 5 revealed that students' solicited initiations were considerably directed by teachers' actions in the prior turn, with which students mostly complied. In doing so, they showed eagerness and openness to the learning activities and contributed to the reciprocity, contingency and progressivity of the interactions. The findings have also demonstrated that not all responsive student initiations could follow a compliant nature but may show transgressions in the participation framework. Therefore, the study has shown that students' solicited initiations displayed variations, leading to four sub-groups, though some have more directive than others in shaping the sequence

and the topic: (1) volunteering a response; (2) volunteering for an initiation; (3) interjected initiative; and (4) disjunctive initiative turns.

The finding indicates that students predominantly self-selected themselves in the second pair-part position to volunteer a response, which formed the well-known IRF/E pattern. Although the prevalence of such a pattern was observed in fluency and meaning-based contexts, it was mainly dominant when the teacher's agenda was to move along, having received a sufficient response and to ask for a display of knowledge. This pattern was also observed to be extended when the teachers withheld the third position, i.e., feedback/evaluation move, keeping the channel open for more students to take the floor in order to open up the discussion. The second pattern was volunteering for initiation, which was noted (1) when it was normatively expected and (2) just before the teacher was about to move on to another activity. It involved cases where students produced a responsive action to a prompt that was not designed to elicit specific or predefined answers, making them influential in re-directing the ongoing topic and opening up the space for further elaboration.

Unlike the previous two sub-groups in which students perform projected action, the latter two patterns demonstrated unprojected actions that still responded to the initiating action. These patterns emerged when students interjected by self-selecting themselves as the next speaker in order to respond to a prompt designed for another recipient, which indicates transgression in the participation framework, or when they self-selected to produce unfitted responsive sequences in the natural flow of interaction (i.e., disjunctive initiations). The findings have suggested that both patterns could put talk progression and sequence completion on hold, causing extra interactional work to proceed. It has also been shown that the participants had to deploy various strategies such as laughter and creating a jocular frame in order to manage a level of collaboration and reconciliation and achieve what they set out to do.

The analysis in Section 5.3 of Chapter 5 has also demonstrated that students' self-selections could occur without a prompt in the prior turn, leading to unsolicited student-initiated participation patterns. Unsolicited student initiations were observed (1) in a first pair-part position to initiate a new topic and a sequence, which is called interpolation, (2) in a first pair-part position or as a sequence-closing third in a post-expansion sequence, extending the talk, and (3) during an ongoing turn by entering other's turn space.

Interpolation involved cases in which students gained the conversational floor without prompt in the prior turns. Students have been observed to perform various actions based on their needs, such as asking for information and providing an evaluation in various sequential positions, including in-between completed sequences, during an ongoing teacher/ student turn and within sequences. The second position for students' initiation was post-expansion sequences, called extension, whereby students expanded their speaking rights. The findings have noted that, in the absence of a prompt, students mostly self-selected in post-expansion positions and performed numerous actions, such as forwarding the prior speaker's point by adding new/supporting information and expressing opinion, criticism, or evaluation, which has contributed to creating learning opportunities. The final sequential position for students' unsolicited initiations was during an ongoing turn when they entered the current speaker's turn space to initiate a small sequence to offer their peers and teachers unsolicited assistance.

The study has further conceptualised the student-initiated participation on a continuum from a less agentive side by being responsive to the previous turns to a more agentive point by being sequence and topic initiative actions. It is argued that the students' initiations differ in the extent to which they enact agency by becoming directive and influencing learning activities. Students' self-selections that require recipients' compliance, as in unsolicited or disjunctive initiations, display a higher level of enacted agency than those self-selections whereby students manifest themselves as compliant interlocutors. Thus, those on the agentive side of the continuum have been regarded as more directive in sequence organisation and classroom tasks.

7.2.2 Discussion of the findings related to RQ 1

The findings are discussed below with regard to the primary constructs of classroom interaction involving sequence organisation, turn-taking, and learning opportunities, as well as referring to exogenous theories of learning, i.e., sociocultural theory and the construct of the agency.

Sequence organisation of student-initiated participation

Centring upon the conversation analytic constructs of turn-taking and self-selection to offer a student-initiated participation framework in whole-group interactions in EAP classrooms, the study has shown the sequential positions where students accomplish turns-at-talk by self-selecting themselves as the next speaker. Such inquiry into the subtle

differences in interactional contexts of student-initiated participation structures contributes to our understanding of L2 learners as competent interactants who orient to the sequential contexts and (re)establish their participation frameworks, creating learning opportunities for themselves. Although previous research (e.g., Avila, 2019; Kinginger, 1994; Dolce & van Compernolle, 2020; Waring, 2009, 2011; Waring et al., 2016; Ziegler et al., 2012) has provided compelling evidence that student initiatives create ample opportunities for participation and learning, they have mainly focused on form-focused contexts in teacher-fronted settings of general English classrooms. The study's primary contribution fills the gap in the broader literature of conversation analytic research on classroom interaction, where scant attention has been paid to EAP classrooms in university-level education. The study also extends the existing literature on L2 classroom interaction and learning opportunities focusing on the task-based settings of EAP classrooms where the conversational floor was loosely managed.

Regarding when students predominantly tended to self-select, the study identified two sequential positions where students self-selected to contribute to the ongoing classroom talk: responsive and initiating sequential positions, which shows conformity with the previous research (Jacknick, 2009; Waring, 2011). It has been shown that student-initiated participation is a complex phenomenon and can take various forms depending on the sequential position and the students' intended actions. Furthermore, the finding regarding the frequency of occurrence of these forms has shown two prominent sequential positions as more conducive for student initiations: (1) in the responsive position to volunteer a response and (2) in non-minimal post-expansion sequences to extend the talk further. In the responsive position, student initiations following a teacher prompt led to the well-known IRF pattern. The higher number of cases for volunteering a response further supports the general assumption that creating opportunities for entry to interaction is easier in the presence of a prompt that makes further action conditionally relevant.

The abundance of unsolicited initiations in the post-expansion sequence position also suggests that self-selection is more accessible when the intended action is to extend the sequence/topic further instead of initiating it for the first time. This finding is in accordance with Jacknick (2011), who has argued that sequence extending is more effortless than initiating a new action. Another possible reason for the high frequency of such cases might concern the meaning and discussion skills-oriented nature of interactional contexts, such as discussion tasks because the study has deliberately focused

on such contexts where the conversational floor was loosely managed. Naturally, the tasks involved various speaking activities.

While the study has not made any strong claims to refute the prevalence of the IRF pattern, demonstrating a high frequency of student initiations in post-expansion sequences is argued to indicate other existing frequent patterns, which indicates a changing landscape of classroom interaction. However, this finding is contrary to that of King (2013), who explored silence in Japanese university language classrooms, analysing 48-hour classroom data obtained from 30 different classrooms in a quantitative study design. He reported a minimal amount of student-initiated talk in tertiary settings. While students' unsolicited turn-at-talk accounted for 0.24% (7 seven coded incidents), the amount of their solicited talk was 5.21% (150-coded incidents, including students' self-selected turns to respond to a prompt and those nominated by the teacher). The difference between the two studies might be attributed to the teacher-dominated classroom discourse in Japanese classroom settings in King's study and other factors external to the micro interactional context such as topic, teacher, motivation and classroom dynamic.

Although it is possible to envisage varying frequencies and types of student initiatives in different classroom contexts and various micro contexts, it is still promising to see that the IRF pattern, i.e., volunteering for a response, is not the only dominating sequence type as suggested by earlier research (Cazden, 1988; Mchoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2002, 2006; Walsh & Li, 2013; Wells, 1993). It seems that there is a tendency towards more student-directed interactions. Hence, the study contributes to the cohort of research that has revealed students' increasing freedom of control on turn-taking and sequence organisation (Duran & Sert, 2021; Fasel Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Garton, 2012; Greer, 2016; Jacknick, 2011; Kääntä, 2012; Lee, 2017; Mortensen, 2008; Waring, 2009, 2011; Waring et al., 2016; Ziegler et al., 2012).

The following sub-sections discuss the role of solicited and unsolicited initiations in the trajectory of classroom interaction detail.

Solicited student-initiated participation: contingency, reciprocity, and progressivity

Highlighting the role of student participation, the current study demonstrated that students' solicited initiations are reciprocal actions that contribute to the contingency, reciprocity and progressivity of interactions and task completion. From a broader level, their self-selection in a responsive sequence position shows that students reciprocate by

responding to teachers' mediational turn in interactions. Their reciprocal actions show their understanding of the content being discussed and their ability to analyse the courses of action and respond to them accordingly. This reciprocity shows the intersubjective understanding between speakers, which enables the smooth unfolding of sequences of talk. Without such a mutual understanding, "the participants could not hold one another accountable for meaningful participation in a collaboratively sustained social world" (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990, p. 288).

Additionally, the study positions students as individuals who show openness to learning. Their interactional compliance does not mean a lack of agency or submission to the teacher's authority. On the contrary, it is part of their agentic self in the sense that they constantly monitor the ongoing interaction and make an effort to place their contributions within the sequential flow of the conversations. Thus, it shows the students' interactional ability to analyse the sequential unfolding of the interaction and react accordingly. This finding further supports that of Ozkose-Biyik and Meskill (2015), who indicated that learners' responsiveness, i.e., reciprocity, plays a critical role in "eliciting and providing targeted appropriate guidance" (p. 804). Their case study recorded occurrences where a focal student refused to produce talk, which prevented the teacher from moving forward with the task. Therefore, the present study argues that student self-selections to respond to prompts display their openness to the teachers' initiating actions to mediate their learning.

In addition, these findings strongly indicate that students' active participation contributes to their development of interactional competence, such as turn-taking practices and maintaining a reciprocal and contingent interaction by reacting to initiating actions and the classroom works carried out in L2 (Walsh, 2006; Hall, 2018). In reacting to the teachers' mediational turns that guided them to find answers or their peers' invitations to ask questions, they expanded their participation span by taking a turn and contributing to the ongoing classroom talk (Sert, 2017; Walsh, 2011).

Indicating a complex configuration of solicited student-initiated participation patterns, the study has further suggested that their solicited initiations could also display more agentic actions by manifesting resistance to performing the projected action by the prior turn or interjecting to provide a responsive action on behalf of the original recipient. For instance, the extracts have provided evidence that students, though rarely, produced disaffiliating actions with the prior teacher turn, which leads the other participants to re-

establish their participation frameworks. These student turns represented students' non-compliance with how the teacher wanted to manage the interaction in terms of topic and who-speaks-when. In doing so, they manifest their agentic self without subverting the task requirements.

For example, in Extract 5.8, a student rejects to respond to the teacher's prompt in the way the teacher has expected but launches a pre-announcement sequence to index the disjunctive nature of her turn and responds to the teacher's prompt in a way she prefers by bringing her individual world experience into class. Given the unfitted nature of their turns, participants have been shown to deploy different mitigation devices to manage any potential face-threatening issues that may result from their so-called transgression in the participation framework. These devices include laughter (Extract 5.8), creating a jocular frame (Extract 5.9) and explicitly asking other speaking parties to comply with their unfitted action. Schegloff (2007) argues that "such disjunctive shifts do require the collaboration of co-participants" (p. 182), the teacher in this case. Students' use of such interactional practices also underlines their interactional competence in managing critical moments and indicates their sensitivity to maintaining social relations.

Furthermore, the study has provided evidence that the students could demonstrate deviation from the moral accountability of turn-taking rules by speaking out of turn, which may have negative consequences on the progression of the interaction. In other words, they provide a responsive action on behalf of someone else, which does not comply with the normative expectation that the addressed speaker should take the floor (Sacks et al., 1974). In this sense, the students 'steal' the floor from another peer (e.g., Extract 5.6) or the teacher (e.g., Extract 5.7). However, as van Lier (2008) asserts, not all agentic behaviours are conducive to learning. These transgressive actions can negatively affect the interactional flow. Students' stealing the floor from another student can block the addressed recipient's right to participate, invalidating their opportunities for a response. Moreover, students might feel discouraged by such interjections, which might cause frustration among students, as reported by a few students in their interview accounts. However, fewer cases of such student initiation have been recorded in the dataset, which shows students' awareness of norms of turn-taking in the multiparty classroom setting that normally favours one speaker party at a time rule (Mchoul, 1978; Sacks et al., 1974).

222

Nevertheless, despite being a violation of turn-taking rules (Stivers & Robinson, 2006), the study has not provided evidence for incidents where the responses from non-selected students were not regarded as violations. This finding is contrary to previous research (Hazel & Mortensen, 2017; Mehan, 1979), which has suggested that violation of interactional order is subject to sanction. A relatively recent study by Hazel and Mortensen (2017) investigated the students' transgressions in participation frameworks, focusing on the turn-taking rules in language classrooms. Their findings indicated that the teachers tended to sanction those students who stepped on others' turn by providing a response on behalf of selected students. This contradictory finding might be explained by the difference in the organisation of turn-taking. Participants in their study were observed to speak out of turn during an activity within a predefined turn-taking organisation. In contrast, interactions in which the turn-taking organisation was configured in this way were not of interest to the current study.

These observations can be linked to classroom practice by providing insights for teachers regarding how to "navigate the participation paradox" (Reddington, 2018). Considering the difficult task that the teachers face daily in maintaining a balance between control on the one hand and inviting student contributions, on the other hand, such moments in an ongoing talk can pose a challenge. The findings have shown evidence that teachers tended to accept the students' somehow misalignment turns in order to keep the progressivity of the task by overlooking the trespassing in participation framework by an unaddressed recipient (e.g., Extracts 5.6 and 5.7) or providing a playful response (e.g., Extract 5.8). In doing so, the teachers played a significant role in maintaining delicate relationships in the classroom, keeping the tension under the surface while avoiding discoursing student participation. Similar observations have been found in other studies, such as Waring et al. (2016) and Fagan (2012), contributing to our understanding of the importance of management skills of teachers in classroom interaction, i.e., classroom interactional competence.

Creating interactional space: unsolicited student-initiated participation

In addition to shaping responsive sequences, the findings show that students could create opportunities for participation by initiating new sequences, entering other's turn space and most prominently by extending the topic of conversation in post-expansion sequential positions. In such cases, students displayed increased control over the turn-taking system by selecting themselves as the next speaker, showing availability and willingness to take

the floor without being invited. Thus, they reversed the role from compliant addressees to current speakers who require the collaboration and reciprocity of their co-participants. This observation suggests that students contribute to constructing a sense of symmetry in the classroom discourse in terms of the distribution of speaking rights. The symmetrical conversational discourse has been argued to promote learning opportunities in L2 classrooms (van Lier, 1988, 2000).

Situated in sociocultural theory, the study highlights the role of interactional space as a resource for learning academic discourse skills in EAP classrooms, where a considerable amount of time was allocated to speaking tasks such as discussions. It has been shown that students could create student-directed occasions for learning opportunities by bringing their input and transforming and constructing knowledge through and in social interaction. Therefore, building on the growing body of research in the area of CA for SLA from a sociocultural perspective (e.g., Hall, 2004; Kasper, 2004; Pekarek-Doehler, 2010; van Compernolle & Williams, 2013), the study broadly supports the view of learning as a situated experience (Merke, 2016; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004) and an emergent process in language use and participation (e.g., Hall, 2020; Hall & Walsh, 2002; He, 2004; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004).

This view of learning suggests that individuals improve their language and knowledge through their encounters with others, and this process involves an interplay of individual-cognitive and social-interactive dimensions (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1962; 1978). Although learning and participation are not synonymous, they go hand in hand. Active participation in learning the academic registers of a foreign language requires opportunities to participate in this social process (Schwab, 2011) by asking questions, agreeing/disagreeing, challenging, providing alternative solutions, or justifying their arguments. From a sociocultural view of learning, these functional skills can help students learn how to articulate their thoughts and improve their discussion skills in academically demanding EAP classrooms (Dippold et al., 2022; Heron, 2019) and can contribute to constructing an interactional site where dialogue becomes a cognitive activity (Heron, 2018). In other words, through their participation, students are engaged in a language socialisation process in L2 (Donato, 2000).

In this regard, the study has provided further evidence that, through their initiations, students can direct the classroom discourse in various ways depending on the sequential position of their self-selected turns and create learning opportunities through their

participation in classroom discourse, individualising their learning by managing the topics of the classroom talk. Put simply, by replacing the teacher-learner interaction pattern with the pattern where students direct the conversation and the teacher responds to student comments, the students share the responsibility to direct the classroom discourse. The findings provided evidence that, through uninvited participation, students performed numerous actions, such as forwarding the prior speaker's point by adding new/supporting information, expressing opinion, criticism or evaluation, asking further questions, providing counterarguments, providing unsolicited assistance and requesting further clarification or confirmation, all of which can improve students' mastery of the academic register.

In addition, students need to pay attention to the ongoing classroom talk to be able to perform those actions. Active participation through taking the initiative in conversation requires learners to closely monitor the ongoing talk paying attention to its sequences of actions and topical content. In this regard, the act of initiation also involves intentionality, attention, and conversational planning. According to van Lier (1988), attention is a prerequisite for learning. From this perspective, those cases where students manifest an effort to perform the actions mentioned above can be taken as evidence of students individualising their learning. These student actions are the means that can pave the way for learning opportunities by leading to a conceptual change in students' ways of thinking (Clarke et al., 2016).

For example, Extract 5.11 demonstrates how an unsolicited student initiation to express disagreement becomes a pivotal moment, leading to a chain of reactions that constructs a platform of argumentative discussion. By creating a spark that has allowed for a discussion where alternative points of view have been voiced, justified, scrutinised, and challenged, the student's initiation contributes to the "discussion task" to find its true nature rather than any kind of interaction around a topic. The study argues that one student's interpolation has led to a joint effort in which students have collectively changed the nature of the task, which would otherwise be an opinion-sharing activity. In doing so, the students have created an interactional context that can help improve their critical thinking and argumentative skills, which are regarded as integral to the instruction of EAP courses (Basturkmen, 2016; Hyland, 2016). This way, the discussion has become what Adler et al. (2004) call "a dialogic free exchange of information among three or more participants" (p. 313) rather than a dyadic talk between two interlocutors. Moreover,

voicing counterarguments might help create tension. The tension of opposing ideas can encourage a joint effort for knowledge transformation (Nystrand, 1997). The students bring opposing ideas together to reach an understanding of each other's views, which might eventually become internalised (Vygotsky, 1978).

Furthermore, the findings have provided evidence that students collectively orient and contribute to the solution of the learning problems, highlighting the role of social interaction in the aggregates of knowledge in the process of learning (Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978). For example, students provided unsolicited assistance to their peers by manifesting a level of agency to take control of the moment in the interaction to mediate other peers' talking (Extracts 5.15 and 5.16). Likewise, in extract 5.13, a learning opportunity has been created when a student has launched an expansion sequence to ask a clarification question due to confusion regarding the use of past tense forms. This student initiation leads to a deviation from IRF strings, thus allowing a more in-depth grasp of grammatical structure. In this regard, it resembles the case study in which Waring (2009) showed that a student moves out of IRF sequences by initiating an expansion sequence to ask clarification questions. However, the interaction in Extract 5.13 is far more complex than that of Waring's single case analysis, where the issue is resolved by the teacher, who holds superior epistemic status. In Extract 5.13, students have also launched disagreement-implicated expansion sequences, in which they have expressed disagreement with the teacher's response to the clarification request launched initially. In displaying disaffiliate stances towards the teacher's explanation, the students have been jointly oriented to the problem that has become a central issue. This joint action to resolve a linguistic problem shows an attentive/active student involvement at a higher level through various types of sequence expansion and their capacity to control interactional and learning practices.

In this regard, such cases show that students could take over control of the interaction and ownership of their learning, facilitating the internalisation process of language rules (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Therefore, these moments result in "a student-directed learning in action" (Jacknick, 2011, p. 49), which-asserts their empowerment. This also accords with a great deal of previous research (e.g., Duran & Sert, 2021; Greer, 2016; Jacknick, 2011; Takahashi, 2018; Waring, 2009, 2011) that showed a link between student-initiated participation and learning opportunities. For instance, Jacknick (2011) demonstrates cases where students initiate a sequence, extending it through post-expansion sequences

to expand their participation span, creating student-directed interactions that potentially lead to learning opportunities.

Student Agency

The findings of the study also suggest that student initiations should be considered in the broader sense of agency. Through their self-initiated participation patterns, students' multiple identities were invoked in an academically challenging context and became consequential to their learning, manifesting their agency on different levels. First, they displayed agency at the topic level by initiating a new topic or reintroducing the previously exhausted topics. In other words, they shaped the topic of the ongoing classroom talks by extending the topic further in order to provide elaboration, ask questions or challenge their co-participants. van Lier (1988) calls such student initiations a form of topicalisation. Students' topic initiations manifest their skills at the discourse level and their identity shifts from student to teacher. Moreover, they do not only indicate an individual interactional accomplishment but also highlight their orientation to multiparty interaction, leading to constructing a multilogue (Schwab, 2011) in the classroom and paving the way for a collective agency.

Second, they demonstrated observable agentic actions at the level of task management, indicating that they have control over the sequencing of talk. They make a deliberate choice when allocating turns and selecting when to speak, indicating their skilful management of turns-at-talk and topical content. These interactional practices show their intentions to perform in the pursuit of certain goals. For instance, Extract 5.10 has illustrated how a student interpolates at a transition place between the two tasks to express an evaluative comment that is further developed into a reflective discussion task. The student's task-initiating self-selection is reciprocated by the co-participants, the teacher in particular, who follows up on the student's comment. By initiating a new topic, the student's self-selection has become a means to insert a task that has not been on the teacher's agenda. Thus, it has made "available previously unavailable speaking rights for … fellow participants" (Waring, 2009, p. 811) and opportunities for self-evaluation.

This reflective thinking practice can contribute to students' agency (Gao, 2013) by enabling them to retrospectively and introspectively explore their potentials, actions, and feelings and provide critical evaluations. Moreover, the fact that this reflective process occurred collectively in the classroom might also contribute to constructing a safe and trusting environment with a positive group synergy and hence enhance student

227

motivation. This way, they can create a cycle of productive agency. Therefore, it is suggested that to create such collective classroom synergy, teachers can pay attention to those moments where students take the initiative by further elaborating on the topic, challenging others' arguments, and providing explanations.

Furthermore, agency is closely associated with students' academic performance (Bandura, 2006; Haneda &Wells, 2008). It is desire-driven (Duran, 2015) in the sense that learners practice agency when they realise their abilities to use the language and to what extent they want to participate in classroom discourse. When students are afforded opportunities to take initiative turns, this may eventually strengthen their self-confidence, motivation and agency. This enhanced sense of agency will contribute to students' success and their identity as members of their academic community (Bandura, 2006). It is a self-reinforcing cycle: students who act active by taking the initiative are inclined to participate more. Likewise, students who develop a higher sense of agency tend to be more proactive.

In the sociocultural view of agency, when learners act as proactive agents, they become mediators of their own learning (Dufva & Aro, 2015). Traditional educational discourse tends to describe students as compliant and consumers of knowledge (Duff & Doherty, 2015). However, they are not merely respondent individuals; instead, they transform what has been taken in and make it their own (Dufva & Aro, 2015). In this sense, students' agency is not limited to their choices of when to speak or whom to speak. It also entails them becoming producers and co-constructors in their communities. Therefore, it is argued that creating interactional opportunities through self-selection practice can support students' independent thinking and encourage them to be autonomous learners.

These findings highlight implications for the teachers to foster students' sense of agency and enactment thereof in the task-based setting of EAP classrooms, particularly in relation to low-participating students. Teachers can emphasise the impacts the student initiatives have on enhancing their academic achievement and support them in recognising their role as an individual whose contributions can open up new perspectives for all the members of the classroom. This is particularly important in supporting students to take more initiative acts, which can eventually contribute to the construction of more symmetrical discourse patterns in the classrooms.

Managing student participation

The study also highlights the critical role of teachers in navigating student participation (Reddington, 2018), contributing to the concept of classroom interactional competence (CIC), which refers to the ability of teachers and students to successfully manage interaction to facilitate learning practices (Walsh, 2006). CIC involves a set of skills that every teacher needs to develop because much of good teaching is closely related to CIC, according to Walsh (2006). Thus, teachers who can develop interactional awareness and the skills to make effective interactional choices are more likely to promote more student participation, create a safe environment for learning, and encourage learners to take risks and initiatives (Sert, 2017; Walsh, 2006; Walsh & Li, 2013). In line with this, research has shown that CIC also involves effective management of student initiation (Waring, 2013a, 2013b; Waring et al., 2016). Therefore, this study contributes to this cohort of research and presents implications for teacher education that can help teacher trainees, novice teachers, as well as experienced teachers understand the link between the learning-teaching process and the interaction in L2 classrooms (Sert, 2021; Walsh, 2011).

The teachers' role in enabling equal distribution of speaking rights is considerably significant, especially regarding who-speaks-when. In the current study, it has been repeatedly emphasised that students have accomplished what they set out to do through their self-selected turns-at-talk by the teachers' skilful and strategic treatment of students' participation. The teachers responded to students' initiations contingently by expanding or reformulating them and directing them to the whole group in an improvised way and contributed to constructing learning occasions. For instance, Extract 5.10 has provided evidence that student initiation would not be successful in opening up interactional space for a reflective discussion if it was not for the teacher's clever manoeuvre that welcomed the student initiation.

Thus, in navigating student participation, teachers can transform such incidents into pedagogically significant moments that can enable and promote learning opportunities, corroborating with previous research (e.g., Waring et al., 2016). Therefore, the study suggests that the teacher's control over the turn-taking mechanism can be leveraged to promote more student talk, which has been argued to have a considerable impact on classroom interaction, creating interactional space for learning opportunities. This also indicates a move from the traditional perception of the teacher as an authoritative figure to a teacher as a skilful facilitator of micro-moments in interaction.

Another significant observation is relevant to the management of the turn-taking mechanism in line with the pedagogical focus of the interactions. The study points out the prevalence of IRF patterns in fluency-based contexts in which communicating meaning was prioritised over the production of linguistic forms. Such a format can constrain the students' opportunities to develop complex interactional skills required in ordinary conversations (Kasper, 2001) or in more demanding contexts of educational settings. For instance, Extract 5.2 has presented an illustrative example of teacher-controlled turn-taking in an activity that required students to think critically to assess the construction of a road in the wildlife of wildebeest during a discussion activity. Given the focus of the activity, the analysis has indicated a string of IRF cycles throughout the interaction, which seemed to inhibit creating interactional space for elaborated student talk due to the teacher's tendency to close down the sequences using positive assessment tokens in the feedback position. Walsh and Li (2013) argue that the mismatch between pedagogic goals and language use might lead to missed learning opportunities, highlighting the importance of a much higher degree of sophistication in managing interactional space that requires informed decision-making on a moment-by-moment basis by all speaking parties.

Therefore, handling students' participation in this way might lead to lost opportunities and waning willingness on the part of the students to participate. It can be argued that students had the chance to voice various opinions, which makes it a fruitful interaction and self-selected themselves as the next speakers to produce talk, determining the topic of their turns-at-talk. Nevertheless, the sequence organisation remained somehow closed in the sense that it restricts the students to only providing their arguments rather than having opportunities to assess their peers' arguments, add up to one another's contributions or challenge each other. This observation is in accordance with that of Waring (2008) and Christoph and Nystrand (2001) regarding the inhibitive role of teachers' positive assessments. Instead of providing a positive assessment, the teachers could have opened up an interactional space for students to weigh each other's responses or arguments through interactional means such as using continuers as in "mm-hm" token that has been proved to be effective (Girgin & Brandt, 2020). This way, teachers can potentially promote dialogic talk in the classroom.

Such minor yet effective modifications of turn-taking behaviours that individuals perform to manage interactions may generate significant benefits for creating a symmetrical

classroom discourse and enhancing student agency. Arguably, a classroom context with ample opportunities for students to participate and verbalise their ideas and thoughts will eventually help them develop strategies for claiming space in an ongoing talk through craftily seeking turns-at-talk either by self-selecting in a responsive or initiating sequential position. It can also support teachers' skills to respond strategically to those invited and uninvited contributions.

Additionally, the findings have also pointed to the teachers' awareness of the impact of student-initiated participation. Those student initiations can encourage teachers to reflect on the contributions of the students and how they can shape the type of guidance the teacher may provide. If the teachers realise the potential of student initiations, they can show more effort in creating such opportunities for students. Clarke et al. (2016) also suggested that students can influence the way the teachers facilitate discussions in science classrooms, increasing the cognitive demand of the tasks. Overall, the study argues that student-initiated participation creates complex interactional patterns and learning opportunities, potentially leading to a positive and collaborative learning environment. In doing so, the study provides insights into the ways that teachers can foster a symmetrical classroom discourse in EAP classrooms for the benefit of all students.

7.3 The inquiry regarding student perspective

The secondary goal of this research was to investigate students' thoughts and feelings regarding their participation in classroom interactions during whole group interactions in EAP classrooms. With this aim, semi-structured interviews were used and analysed following the conventions of thematic analysis. The findings have provided insights regarding student participation that has been grounded in their sense of agency and willingness to initiate communication. This section summarises the main observations gathered through a thematic analysis of interview accounts of participants in Chapter 6 while incorporating data from conversation analytic investigation of classroom interaction in Chapter 5.

7.3.1 Main findings related to RQ 2

One prominent finding specific to the present study highlights a proximal relation between students' participation patterns and their sense of agency. It has been shown that all students articulated a sense of agency but differed in the degree of their sense of agency. Therefore, students were placed on a continuum from less agentive to more

agentive, depending on their sense of agency. When evaluated against a continuum stretching from no/low to a higher sense of agency, unsolicited student participation patterns reflected a much higher degree of agency, whilst solicited participation patterns were regarded as a demonstration of a moderate level of agency. Furthermore, low/non-participation was shown to diminish students' sense of agency.

A further finding specific to this study relates to the students' willingness to initiate communication, i.e., willingness to initiate (WTI), a new terminology proposed into the theoretical framework of L2 willingness to communicate, grounding students' willingness to initiate communication in an interactionally narrower micro-context. The findings have revealed that students' willingness to self-select to participate in classroom interactions can be influenced by an interplay of contextual, individual, and linguistic factors, which in turn influence students' agentic behaviours.

Affective factors, covering a broad dimension of motivation, self-confidence, preference for interactional opportunities, and personality, emerged as a considerably influential dimension. Of all the affective factors, preference for interactional opportunities played a significant role in their willingness to initiate communication. Motivation, self-confidence, and personality also affected their verbal participation level to a reasonably large degree. The contextual elements that also played an inhibitive and facilitative role in students' willingness to participate involved the topic, interlocutors (teacher and peers in this case), teaching style/methodology, classroom atmosphere, and form of interaction. Finally, the findings have also reported the students' linguistic skills as the least influential dimension.

7.3.2 Discussion of the findings related to RQ 2

Students can offer insights regarding their practices in participating in classroom discourse. Such information can provide another valuable source of information to create a safe environment for student participation, which was gathered through interview accounts of students. In what follows, findings that emerged from the analysis of interviews are discussed in relation to the relevant literature in the order of the sub-research questions 2a and 2b.

RQ 2a: Students' sense of agency and their participation patterns

The finding specific to this study highlights that students' participation patterns and their sense of agency have a reciprocal relationship, placing the students on a continuum

ranging from low to high levels of agency. Therefore, the study approaches and discusses the construct of agency in terms of degrees of agency while underlying that students' agentic behaviours can be influenced by inter and intra-personal variables.

The students with a higher sense of agency asserted their agency in their struggle for empowerment by expanding their freedom of action. Thus, rather than being compliant, i.e., doing more than what was merely expected (unsolicited participation patterns), those participants created their own-initiated participation opportunities by taking initiatives, such as asking a question, expressing an opinion, providing an explanation, or challenging others, all of which directed and influenced their and others' actions. The sequential analysis of the interactions also supported their accounts, demonstrating that they could go beyond the role ascribed to them by positioning themselves as the leading person (i.e., taking over the control of the interaction and directing questions, challenging the teachers, extending the talk as in Extract 5.11 where a student challenges her peers, leading to extended stretches of talk). As a result, they expressed a sense of agency in the form of a successful moment.

For instance, Sude's account in Section 6.2.1 clearly explains that she took over the control of interaction in which turn-taking was managed by another student at that moment. She described it as an occasion where she created participation opportunities for her peers. Her peers also accepted her as the controller of the interaction by handing over the management of turn allocation to her. Likewise, in his triumph moment, Lucas revealed that "((teacher's name)) didn't know exactly the explanation about some past tenses, and I think I could explain it to him and to the class", positioning himself in a higher epistemic status than the others including the teacher. This finding supports the earlier observations that van Lier (2008) has made. In van Lier's (2008, p. 169) "agentive ladder", learners' self-selections are placed higher on the continuum. As he asserts, acting on intentions requires a higher level of agency, as was the case with higher contributor students who actively participated in this study. Thus, learners who made unsolicited participation were considered to act more inquisitive and autonomous. This result further supports the idea that agentic engagement refers to the learners' endeavours of personalisation and enriching the learning as well as learning conditions (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001) by creating "unexpected opportunities" (Baynham, 2006, p. 37).

In line with their enacted agency, they asserted a conscious effort to "make a difference" (Mercer, 2012, p. 41) and awareness that their active involvement was critical for their

own and the whole class's sake, creating participation and learning opportunities. It is argued that the sense of agency is a predictor of how people might act and think (Bandura, 1995, 2006; Clarke et al., 2016). From this perspective, one can infer that students' sense of agency shapes their enacted agency. This study also argues that their experiences constructed by their conscious efforts help them build a sense of achievement because, as Bandura (1995) asserts, such successful experiences are most likely to nurture students' sense of self-efficacy and agency. Participants' sense of agency in relation to their participation, for instance, highlights their recognition that they could direct the interaction and influence the learning process, positioning themselves as agents of their actions. This additional recognition also contributes to their construction of agentic self, which indicates a reciprocal relationship between students' perception of their agency and their agentive actions.

Students also expressed a sense of agency for their solicited participation patterns in the form of contentment and satisfaction. They fulfilled their responsibilities and task requirements and met teachers' expectations through their responsive participation patterns, displaying a dutiful and good learner profile. Again, in van 'Lier's (2008, p. 169) "agentive ladder", these responsive self-selections correspond to participatory learner attributes. As explored in the analysis of classroom data, students' level of responsiveness to teacher solicits also played a critical role in classroom discourse, showing their orientation to learning (Ozkose-Biyik & Meskill, 2015) to find a solution for the learning tasks and contributing to the progression. Students' accounts supported this finding, verifying that their responses facilitated communication with the teacher, encouraged fellow peers and demonstrated their interest and attention to the classroom activities. Students' responsive self-selections, thus, turn them into active agents who intentionally operate within the classroom.

On the other hand, despite their wish to act upon their intentions, low contributors expressed a lack of action, which was translated into a lack of agency. Their lack of initiative, thus, deprived students of valuable opportunities whereby they could extend their scope of participation. In this regard, they also miss out on opportunities for developing their interactional abilities "to format actions and turns and construct epistemic and affective stance […] by drawing on different types of semiotic resources (linguistic, nonverbal, non-vocal), including register-specific resources" (Kasper, 2006, p. 86). The findings have also demonstrated the students' awareness that they failed to

act on their intentions, which caused feelings of sorrow, disappointment, and frustration. They revealed various reasons that caused them to fail to act on their intentions, such as shyness, lack of topic knowledge, public L2 speaking anxiety, and personality. Their proficiency level in the target language, such as lack of relevant lexicon and unavailability of grammar constructs relevant to formulate sentences at the moment of speaking, also played a part. As Bandura (2006) suggests, individuals are neither autonomous nor mere reactors to their environments; instead, there is a reciprocal relationship between the individuals and the elements of the contexts they are situated in and their capabilities. In this respect, students in this study were constrained by intrapersonal, contextual factors. Within this sense, the study shows alignment with the argument that agency becomes a situated behaviour that can be influenced by a variety of sources (Dufva & Aro, 2015; Mercer, 2012; van Lier, 2008).

Therefore, the study suggests that students' self-initiated participation is a display of their conscious efforts as competent and autonomous learners in higher education settings and is crucial for their L2 development (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Contributing to the existing literature (e.g., Ahn, 2016; Clarke et al., 2016; Garton, 2012; Jacknick, 2009; Ozkose-Biyik & Meskill, 2015; Sert, 2017; van Lier, 2008; Waring, 2011), the study also argues that successful language learning largely depends on students' efforts and willingness to take the initiative. However, it is also crucial that students believe in their capacity as individuals who can contribute to the classroom discourse meaningfully and that their contributions can influence their or others' learning. This belief can strengthen their sense of agency, and as a result, they can display increased participation.

These observations regarding the construct of agency reveal pedagogical implications. One implication is that teachers can work on opening up the space for reflective discussions in which students are guided to become aware of their potential and enhance their self-efficacy beliefs. This awareness can help learners to manifest more agentic behaviours. Additionally, given that students' sense of agency can be influenced by various factors, including affective, linguistic, and contextual variables, teachers can work more efficiently if they address a wide range of issues to create a learning atmosphere that supports students' agency. The impact of these factors is discussed in dense detail in the following section.

RQ 2a: Students' willingness to initiate communication (WTI)

This sub-question has focused on investigating the student's thoughts that influenced their willingness to self-select to talk, which is closely related to their participation. This section discusses the findings within the area of L2 WTC, making a terminological suggestion. Following that, it presents a discussion of underlying factors that affect students' willingness to initiate communication.

Terminological Contributions

In the course of empirical investigation of student-initiated participation, the current study has proposed a new term in the theoretical framework of willingness to communicate (WTC): willingness to initiate communication, i.e., WTI. This new terminology is distinctive in the sense that it underscores the initiative action the students enact through the self-selection practice whereby they launch responsive and initiative sequences. This definition also narrows down the broader description of "communicative behaviour" to the action of "initiating a turn at talk".

For MacIntyre et al. (1998), communicative behaviour, which comprises the top layer of their L2 WTC model, involves a broader spectrum of actions ranging from reading/writing to speaking. Following such descriptions, the WTC research has mainly focused on students' overt verbal actions; however, the boundaries of the construct have not been clearly defined. For example, in a study by Syed and Kursborzka (2019), the construct of L2 WTC was investigated through students' actions provided in the figure below:

Figure 7.2: WTC Categories

Categories	Descriptions
1) Volunteer an answer/a comment (hand-raising included)	A student answers a question raised by the teacher to the whole class. A student volunteers a comment.
2) Ask the teacher a question/clarification	A student asks the teacher a question or for clarification.
3) Present own opinion in class/respond to an opinion	A student voices his view to the class or his group.
4) Volunteer to participate in class activities	A student takes part in an activity.
5) Talk to neighbour	A student talks to another group member or a student from another group as part of a lesson or as informal socialising.
6) Private response	A student verbalizes/mutters a response to a question addressed to another group or an individual student.

Note: From Syed and Kursborzka (2019, p. 6)

As seen in the figure, most categories (categories 1, 2, 3, and 6) represent initiative actions defined in the current study. However, some categories, such as category 4, are more comprehensive of students' verbal and non-verbal participation and hence are not representative of communication behaviour, whereas category 5 highlights a communication behaviour rather than an initiating action. Therefore, students' willingness to participate in L2 classroom tasks involving their non-verbal participation needs to be defined by a broader conceptualisation: students' willingness to participate (WTP). The evidence of students' willingness to participate in activities can be found in their bodily displayed availability and attentiveness through body positioning and gaze orientations. Thus, the study argues that the construct of WTC applies to various situations that involve L2 use in speech events, such as talking to a neighbour student.

On the other hand, the new terminology proposed in the current study focuses on such activities as speaking up in class and limits the scope of examination to the "initiation of talk". The study also provides evidence that underscores the necessity to distinguish the two terminologies: WTC and WTI. The interview accounts showed that students' willingness to communicate could be challenging to measure due to their inaction even when they had a willingness to speak. For instance, shy students or those with public speaking anxiety expressed willingness to contribute. Nevertheless, they failed to act on those intentions to converse in L2 and called for teacher encouragement to be able to participate in whole-group interactions. Bernales (2016) provides similar observations, which suggest that some students' WTC might not be measurable because they did not provide us with observable behaviours.

Conversely, students' willingness to communicate can be observed in their bodily displays of availability to be chosen as the next speaker. In contrast, their willingness to initiate communication (WTI) can only be evidenced by their self-selection practice. Recent studies (Evnitskaya & Berger, 2017; Kääntä, 2012; Lee, 2017) have shown that students either displayed availability or unavailability through visual, gestural, and bodily resources. For example, they manifest unavailability by gazing away, which leads the teacher not to choose them (Evnitskaya & Berger, 2017), or availability by gazing at the teacher. Therefore, their findings indicate that students' willingness to communicate (WTC) can be observed by reference to their manifestation of availability to be chosen as the next speaker.

Therefore, this study argues that the new construct WTI is more focused and attenuated. This attenuation in the scope and focus distinguishes this new terminology from the broader construct of L2 WTC, which is also argued to be narrower in focus than the construct of willingness to participate (WTP). The diagram below portrays the interwoven nature of these three constructs:

Figure 7.3: The participation spectrum regarding participants' willingness to participate

Willingness to intiate (**WTI**),
underscoring the action of intiating a turn at talk

Willingess to communciate (**WTC**),
underscoring the action of speaking

Willinegess to participate (**WTP**),
for the action of verbal and non-verbal engagement
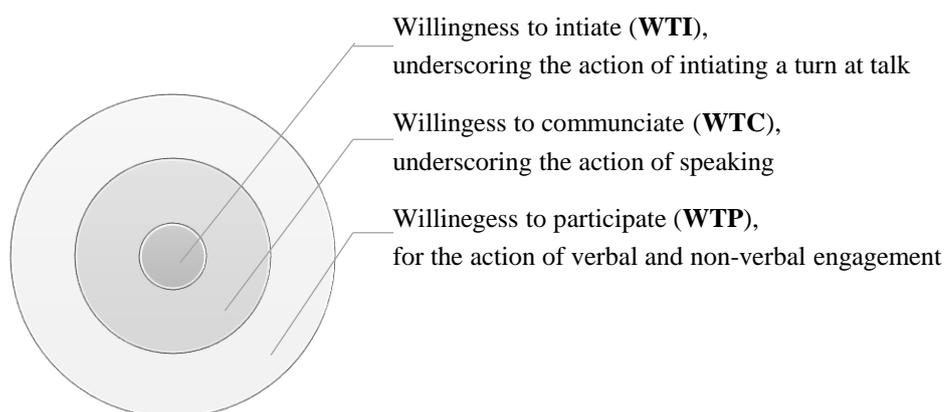
According to the proposed diagram, WTP encompasses the other constructs and involves all sorts of actions regarding engagement in classroom tasks, such as working on classroom tasks by writing, listening, reading, and speaking in L2, treating participation in a broader sense. WTC refers to actions that require speech production, whereas WTI focalises the act of initiation through self-selection practice in speaking. Thus, focusing on the manifestation of students' willingness to initiate a communicative action in their self-selected turns would be best described with the term WTI.

Influential factors on students' willingness to initiate communication

The findings have also offered insights into the factors influencing students' willingness to initiate communication, which further contributes to our understanding of "why and why not" students prefer to take a turn at talk. The findings suggest that students' willingness to initiate communication at any point in time depended on the contextual, individual and linguistics factors, which were interdependently and dynamically influential on students' decisions.

This observation further supports the hypothesis that one individual attribute was not acting alone in a fashion that was either inhibitive or facilitative. A joint impact of variables on students' behaviours was reported. This shows the complex interplay of various factors that were in interaction with each other synchronically and diachronically.

This finding overlaps considerably with the observation in several classroom participation research in both EFL and ESL settings (e.g., Cao, 2014; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018). The broad categories of factors that emerged in student interviews are discussed below.

Affective factors influencing L2 WTI

The study has shown that a broad category of affective factors, including the preference for interactional opportunities, motivation, self-confidence, and personality, predominantly impacted students' willingness to initiate.

First, the findings have indicated a reciprocal relationship between willingness to initiate and students' preference regarding their timing to take a turn, a finding specific to this study. The student interviews provided more insights into understanding students' tendencies to self-select themselves as the next speaker by bringing influential factors external to interactional context as treated within conservation analytic examination of the practice of self-selection. Depending on the varying views on when they chose to employ interactional resources, the students were placed on a continuum ranging from being responsive to being more agentive and willing to take the initiative: (1) those who prefer to be nominated by the teacher; (2) those who prefer to follow another student turn; (3) those who wait for a prompt to initiate a responsive action, and (4) those who opt for an initiative action.

On the responsive edge of the continuum were those who were unwilling or showed less willingness to self-select. Those were mainly low contributors who heavily relied on their interlocutors, particularly teachers, to create speaking opportunities, drastically reducing their participation level. The close analysis of students' accounts also demonstrated that many factors were in play, which shaped their preference for interactional resources. Public speaking anxiety, shyness and fear of interrupting teachers or ongoing teaching practices were commonly reported factors that inhibited their desire to speak. This inevitably puts more responsibility on the teacher, who needs to know their students to regulate their turn allocation behaviours. These factors were also observed in other empirical studies (Cao, 2013; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018). For instance, Bernales's (2016) findings also support the position that teacher has to take responsibility for reserved students who would not otherwise speak up due to public speaking anxiety or personality traits such as shyness and introversion.

Towards the middle of the continuum, students expressed WTI following a teacher prompt and another peer's response to reply/comment before putting their input. In other words, they demonstrated dependence on others to self-select. It was a more conducive and less stress-free environment to speak when they were assured that their contribution was expected and there was no risk of interrupting the teacher or the ongoing classwork. Similar observations were reported by previous studies carried out in university settings, such as Syed and Kuzborska (2018), who reported that some students were dependent on their teachers to initiate talk. Furthermore, for those students who preferred to wait for another peer to reply/comment before putting their input, it was a strategy for them to see the type of contribution they were supposed to make by observing the teacher's reaction to others' replies. Hence, they secured a safer zone where the possibility of making mistakes and losing face in front of others was naturally diminished. However, it is important to note that those students were not all low contributors; on the contrary, many of them who fell in this group were high contributors. What prevented them from taking the initiative was mostly other deterrents such as unfamiliar topics, fear of losing face and avoidance of showing off. These deterrents were also observed in other studies such as (Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018; Yashima et al., 2016). For instance, Yashima et al. (2016) reported a lower WTC among Japanese EFL learners of English across two different sessions when the topic was somehow difficult for students to handle.

On the other side of the continuum were those showing WTI by seeking opportunities to speak. Those students were mainly high contributors who preferred to self-select themselves as the next speaker without being invited. These initiator students expressed an intrinsic motivation to express their opinions and hear others' thoughts and ideas. They expressed an overt awareness that acting active was an essential element of their studentship description. Furthermore, they regarded the teacher role as a facilitator who should be present to set up activities and prevent any troublesome exchange types. Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002) might provide an explanation for this agentive student behaviour. This theory argues that individuals act on their own volition to seek out challenges for personal growth. In the case of those participants who were intrinsically motivated, their decision to act relied on their volition, i.e., the concept of choice. The study argues that these students pushed their limits of self-expression and growth via their endeavour to initiate a turn-at-talk in multiparty classroom settings.

Second, the findings have revealed that regardless of the context (Turkey and the UK in this case) and proficiency level, students expressed both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations underlying their willingness to initiate a verbal discourse in the classroom. Considering the prominent role of English, i.e., EAP, in their educational level, a general motivation for improving their English proficiency level was prominent across all student interview accounts. Therefore, the primary source of their extrinsic motivation was the external demand to achieve a certain level of academic English proficiency to succeed in their majors or go on to their degree programs. Due to this demand, students also disclosed situation-specific motivational orientations towards momentary rewards such as receiving positive feedback or a confirmation from the teacher and material rewards such as higher marks or extra points, passing a critical exam and meeting the teacher's expectations. In addition, some students merely contributed for the sake of being seen as contributors to show off to teachers, and thus their contributions are not genuine but superficial to survive the classroom situations. As Alexander (2008) puts it, they "devise strategies to cope and 'get by' rather than *genuinely* engage" (p. 15, emphasis added). Studies (e.g., Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018; Öz et al., 2015) that looked at the construct of willingness to communicate in relation to motivation placed students' motivational orientation on a continuum from intrinsic to extrinsic also provided similar findings.

Furthermore, the findings suggest a difference in motivational orientations of students between high and low proficient students. Unsurprisingly, students who were less proficient users of English were slightly more concerned with a deliberate aim to improve their overall language level. Higher proficient students, on the other hand, stressed a particular interest and enthusiasm for learning by exchanging ideas and discussing with their peers. Like the participants in MacIntyre et al.'s (2011) study, the ESL students' intrinsic motivation was rooted in their desire to have authentic communication to expand their horizons and improve their relevant skills for occasions requiring academic speaking skills. This might be related to the pedagogical orientation of the EAP courses, which is to teach an academically acceptable mode of communication in L2.

Multiple influential factors led to a change in the student's motivation to actively play a role in the classroom, indicating that motivation is a dynamic construct that can be shaped and influenced by contextual factors. For instance, situation-specific motivational orientations such as engaging in discussion of their topic of interest or a willingness to

work on a particular task type were reported to increase their motivation. Conversely, the variations in their social context affected their motivation. Sustaining their motivation, for example, had become a problem for some students when they had a change of lecturer, leading to waning motivation. Although this study did not investigate such fluctuations and only provided findings relying on students' accounts, it still is in accordance with the current conception that the construct of motivation is a constant state of flux, displaying fluctuation in micro-moments and across a wider span of time (De Bot, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

Third, the findings showed that self-confidence was another factor affecting students' verbal participation level to a large degree, suggesting an inverse relationship between the two components of self-confidence, i.e., perceived communicative competence and speaking anxiety. Students tended to shy away or demonstrate active participation by putting themselves forward depending on their perceived self-rated proficiency and anxiety level. The participant students in this study tended to show their willingness to speak up when they felt confident in their answers or their abilities to understand and vocalise their thought in the target language. Anxiety, on the other hand, had a debilitating effect on students' willingness to volunteer to contribute, further confirming previous empirical studies (Cao, 2009, 2013; Cao & Philp, 2006; Clément et al., 2003; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Khajavy et al., 2018; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Syed, 2016; Yashima et al., 2018).

All students revealed various reasons, including the fear of making mistakes and negative evaluations, public speaking anxiety, complex topics, losing face in front of others, lacking relevant academic speaking skills and lexicon, and lacking confidence in their arguments and ideas. However, one difference that warrants mention concerns the source of the anxiety among participants. Participants from the English-speaking context were more proficient in the target language, which might have decreased the feelings of worry and tension due to their linguistic abilities. Therefore, they were more concerned about the validity of their arguments/responses/comments. Although students from the non-English speaking context, Turkey, were not different in their reactions to stressful classroom situations or tasks, their source of anxiety had stronger references to their general language skills in the target language due to their lower proficiency levels. This supports Hashimoto's (2002) argument that perceived communicative competence has a more significant effect on beginner-level students than advanced students. Therefore,

while implementing activities, instructors can focus on enhancing students' self-confidence by providing emotional, psychological and behavioural support and teaching strategies to help students cope with anxiety-provoking situations.

Fourth, the findings have revealed that extroversion personality traits facilitate students' willingness to self-select to contribute, whereas introversion and shyness can play an inhibitive role. Moreover, students' roles with leadership qualities became conspicuous and more of a facilitator/controller in situations such as discussion activities. The leadership qualities of those students were also verified with the empirical analysis of classroom talk. The participants were observed to manage the turn distribution and the direction of topics by asking questions and reacting to student responses, even in interactions controlled by teachers or peers. Those leadership conducts can help stimulate a lively discussion experience.

The findings also demonstrated that shy students could display active participation depending on the nature of immediate situational antecedent. For example, some students expressed that despite their shyness, they managed to contribute to the discussion because the atmosphere of the discussion tasks was encouraging or in smaller group interactions. From a sociocultural perspective, personality traits are interactions with the sociocultural environment of the individual and hence influenced by them (Dörnyei, 2017). In this regard, shy students' mediated participation in micro-interactional moments was not surprising. This was also documented in Cao (2013), suggesting situational variations in students' willingness to participate despite their personality characteristics. Cao reported that shy participants by temperament could actively participate in group or pair works but manifest lower willingness to communicate in whole-group interactions.

Contextual factors influencing L2 WTI

The influential situational/contextual elements on students' WTI involved topic, interlocutors (i.e., teacher and peers), teaching style/methodology, classroom atmosphere, and form of interaction, which are discussed in detail in what follows.

The findings have highlighted the topic as a vitally prominent antecedent that can play either a facilitative or inhibitive role in students' willingness to initiate communication in classrooms. The general topics that did not require a degree of knowledge contributed to students' willingness to verbally come forward to a large degree, whereas the topic complexity acted as a situational deterrent. For example, the discussion topics such as

gender equality and the GDP of countries and their developmental stages were regarded as complex because students were required to have specific knowledge on the topic, such as figures or official regulations, to provide a valid argument. On the other hand, topics from daily life such as sports activities or food were considered easy to converse on. Thus, the considerable impact of the topic on students' participation is not surprising because having good ideas about the topic can determine the extent to which a student can elaborate.

The exciting topics were a further stimulant for the students. However, students' accounts regarding topic interest were not uniform. While exciting topics facilitated participation for some students, boring topics were not a concern that was not influential on their WTC. They still displayed active participation, which they attributed to the easiness of the topic. Thus, the study concludes that topical knowledge is considerably more effective than topical interest. The impact of the topic on WTC has also been suggested in previous research (e.g., Cao & Philp, 2006; Chichon, 2019; Kang, 2005; Pawlak & Mystkkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Syed & Kuzborska, 2018; Yashima et al., 2016; Yashima et al., 2018; Wood, 2016). For instance, Yashima et al. (2016) also provided similar observations showing that students' utterances were lengthy, and intra-turn silence gaps and silence between turns were short with easy topics. Considering the impact of the topic as a vital factor on students' WTI, a practical strategy in relation to topic selection can be developed to increase student participation. For instance, students can be supported by familiarising them with the topic before inviting them to elaborate or express their opinions. Providing the freedom of choice regarding the topic selection can be another solution to reduce willingness to initiate among students. The topics of their choosing can also support their sense of agency (Kang, 2005) and facilitate their participation.

In addition to the topic, the findings also showed that interlocutors in the social surrounding of students, i.e., teachers and peers, affected and shaped students' willingness to self-select to participate in classroom discourse. The observations in this study strongly suggest that although learners differ in their expression of agency, the teacher is a primary factor in creating a safe classroom community to encourage student participation. Given that the teachers were heavily involved in every stage of the classroom practices, their teaching style dominantly appeared in students' accounts as an effect on their contribution. Thus, the study concludes that the teacher role is a significant determinant of students' willingness to initiate communication and how students regulate their

participatory behaviours. This observation is in accords with the recent research (Cao, 2013; Peng et al., 2017; Bernales, 2016; Öz et al., 2015; Wen & Clément, 2003). In an EIM classroom of an EFL country among graduate-level students, Öz et al. (2015) suggest that it is the teacher's responsibility to create a psychologically safe classroom environment.

First, the findings revealed that teachers' positive personality characteristics and attitudes, which can create a friendly environment in the class, affected the quality of interpersonal relationships between teachers and students and, in return, their participation. These teacher qualities helped create a closer rapport, evoking a sense of security in students to participate. Conversely, negative traits, including stiffness and being serious, played an inhibitive role in students' willingness to contribute. Moreover, the delivery of content, activity choice and teacher's dialogue style were reported by participants as influential dimensions on their willingness to contribute. The findings showed a preference for a teaching style that requires them to actively engage in classroom tasks and pushes them to talk. This way, students can feel a sense of inclusion and have a reciprocal relationship that allows room for students to actively co-construct the classroom discourse alongside the teacher. A monotonous follow-the-book approach, on the other hand, led to demotivation and hence decreased student willingness. This points out that the teachers should incorporate authentic and contemporary materials to increase students' motivation or evaluate the existing materials to the learners' interest.

In addition, the teachers' management of interaction skills was also linked to students' WTI. The findings have revealed that teachers' communication behaviours which refer to verbal and embodied display of engagement in students' comments, such as nodding, holding eye contact, and smiling, enhancing close relationships with students, influenced students to continue talking and be willing to talk on future occasions. Conversely, denying such tokens of active listenership led to discouragement and frustration. Thus, it is argued that displaying active listenership ensures maintaining students' attention, which projects further talk and supports students' engagement. Moreover, they can enhance student participation in the future by creating a positive exchange experience. This finding finds empirical support in a conversation analytic research by Reddington (2018), arguing that teachers' embodying active listenership facilitates participation.

Additionally, a few students expressed decreased willingness to ask their teachers a question or respond to a question due to their discouraging reactions. The micro-analysis

of interactions also provided affirming observations, as in Extract 5.14, where the teacher's reaction to a student's response gradually leads the student to drop out of the conversation. This finding emerged from both student interviews, and the observations gathered from the microanalysis of interactions suggests that students' willingness to initiate a responsive action or to produce talk at all is constantly negotiated among interlocutors on a moment-by-moment basis as the conversation unfolds. Similar observations were reported by MacIntyre et al. (2011), who suggest that teachers "have the potential at any moment to increase or decrease WTC among students" (p. 88).

Conversely, the findings highlighted the role of teacher involvement which was called for their control over the interaction and for their superior position in terms of knowledge and teaching ability. The students also expressed that they still lacked those skills because they were still learning how to contribute to classroom discussions effectively. The teachers were held responsible for an interactive classroom discourse by probing ideas, creating affordances for student participation, and encouraging more student inclusion. Students attributed significant silence gaps and a "dull" classroom atmosphere during interactions to the teachers' non-interference. The need for an authority figure can be linked to the teachers' epistemic authority and institutional role, which have been shown to be influential on the nature of discourse in EAP classrooms (Basturkmen, 2003). The teachers' institutional roles and teaching skills can help stimulate more discussion by asking follow-up questions, challenging student contributions, and inviting students to contribute.

The findings also suggest that the relationships with peers, such as closeness, familiarity or conflict, influenced students' oral participation. Familiarity with peers meant a less face-threatening atmosphere to actively participate, which underlines the role of a good rapport with peers as a facilitative factor. One reason offered by the students for the stress-free atmosphere with familiar peers was that their friends avoided making negative remarks regarding their performances in the class. This finding differs from that of Kang (2005), who showed that Korean learners of English acted reluctant to converse in the L2 in the presence of their Korean peers. Kang's finding might be attributed to their fear of being judged by their Korean friends because they preferred less familiar international friends. However, the current study did not report such findings in the EFL group of students, i.e., Turkey context. In fact, for this group, lack of intimacy and familiarity

played an inhibitive role in evoking feelings of isolation and reducing students' willingness to initiate communication.

Furthermore, fellow students' language proficiency and academic success, which they based on active participation level, played a role in students' desire to contribute to classroom interactions. However, students' views were not uniform. For some, having peers with higher intellectual capacity or proficiency in the target language was a significant stimulant. One possible reason could be that the proficient interlocutors might have served as a pulling force for the participants to contribute, as argued by Dörnyei (2009). Conversely, some felt a sense of security when surrounded by less proficient peers. Students reported that they were less concerned with the fear of losing face as their interlocutors were worse in speaking ability. Thus, being the good ones in the group nurtured their confidence and increased their willingness to self-select in order to initiate communication. Similar observations have been made in other empirical studies, such as Chichon (2019), who showed how more proficient learners, when paired up with less proficient ones, were oriented to provide assistance and how this created a sense of loyalty and accountability within the group. Although participants of this study might have felt the same way about their less proficient peers, which in turn might have contributed to their motivation, according to their accounts, one reason for their increased willingness was rooted in their growing self-confidence that came with reduced anxiety. The study concludes that intergroup relations were inevitably influential on students' L2 WTI, affirming the findings of previous research (Al-Murtadha & Feryok, 2017; Cao, 2013; Cao & Philp, 2006; Chichon, 2019; Kang, 2005; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019; Wen & Clement, 2003; Watanabe & Swain, 2007).

Furthermore, the climate in the classroom was shown to foster an engaging environment that leads to increased student talk. As adult students, the participants tended to base their perception of the overall group dynamic on the quality of interaction they had with their interlocutors. The findings suggest that a collaborative learning environment improved the internal dynamic of friendships, creating an interactive and enthusiastic learning environment. Students regarded the prevalence of a more collective classroom talk as an essential element of constructing a friendly and safer zone in the classroom. For instance, similar observations were made by Zerey and Cephe (2020), who suggested a close link between student involvement and their willingness to contribute.

This finding also lends support to the argument by Johnson and Johnson (2008, p. 29) that "having students engage in cooperative learning results in higher achievement, greater retention, more positive feelings by the students about each other". Thus, students' sense of belonging affected how well they worked together or how cooperative they acted. This seems to promote their overall group dynamic, nurturing a friendly and safer atmosphere and increasing their willingness to initiate communication. The finding is in line with previous research such as Peng and Woodrow (2010), who showed that the classroom environment is a direct and strong predictor of WTC directly impacting communication confidence.

The participants' accounts also revealed that various interactional forms (i.e., whole-class, group work, pair work) impacted students' willingness to initiate communication. Their findings suggest that the larger the group size of interactional context is, the less willing the students are to converse. The study has further shown that whole-class interactional contexts were the most anxiety-provoking situation due to their face-threatening nature and higher risk of losing face, an observation that was repeatedly reported in many empirical studies (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; Khazaei et al., 2012; MacIntyre et al., 2011). Whole-class situations can influence students' self-confidence, reducing their WTI. For example, some students' anxiety was rooted in their fear of public speaking in whole-class interactions. Therefore, they resorted to self-protection motives, most likely because of their desire for social acceptance (MacIntyre et al., 2011).

Nevertheless, some participants in this study preferred whole-group interactional contexts because they wanted to converse with the teacher as interlocutors. One reason for their preference was their wish to be reassured that they were on the same page with the rest of the group, something that could be achieved in whole-group dialogues. It could be further explained by their perception that the teacher was a more competent interlocutor in terms of language ability and content knowledge. Although this finding is contrary to that of Kang (2005) and Khazaei et al. (2012), who suggested that the sense of group cohesiveness and hence the sense of responsibility to speak is diminished in whole-class situations, it should be noted that those students who preferred whole-group interactions were high contributors who also happened to be extrovert students.

One way to reduce students' tendency to avoid whole-group interactions can be having a preparation phase in smaller groups before moving on to the whole-class phase. The group work phase is argued to contribute to "more sustained, higher level interactions"

(Galton et al., 2009, p. 119). Therefore, teachers should make time for preparation to offer students a more relaxed atmosphere to prepare themselves for the main task stage and an opportunity to practice their interactional skills. The preparation time is more likely to lead to an increased willingness to take a turn-at-talk. Additionally, nominating individual students during the whole-group phase can be avoided to relieve the students of the stressful nature of the whole-group setting.

The findings further showed that repetitive tasks and sticking to the activities in the coursebook led to a sense of monotonous class and feelings of boredom in students, which diminished their L2 WTC. Similar negative feelings were also reported by the participants in Cao's (2013) study, highlighting that repetitive tasks resulted in general feelings of boredom. A further finding concerns the preference for specific task types. The findings also revealed that students tend to enjoy interactive tasks such as debates and discussions more than the tasks that were more monologic in nature, such as writing a paragraph or repeating sentences in a pronunciation activity. These interactive tasks stimulated more interaction and nurtured students' willingness to participate. Similar observations were reported by Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2014), who showed that students' willingness increased on dialogue tasks, whereas it decreased in monologue-type of tasks.

Linguistic factors influencing L2 WTI

In the study, linguistic variables were reported to be the least influential dimension involving reliance on L1 and proficiency in the target language. Reliance on L1 use was not considered an influential factor in this study because there was an English-only policy in both contexts. Therefore, it has not been considered and discussed further. Proficiency in the target language appeared to be a factor in both groups of participants affecting their participation. However, less proficient students were more concerned about their linguistic abilities. For instance, problems due to difficulty retrieving the necessary lexical items and grammar on a moment-by-moment basis while speaking were predominantly reported by most interviewees in Turkish contexts because they were less proficient users of English. Similar observations were also documented in previous research (Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017; Cao, 2009; Chichon, 2019; Fallah, 2014; Pawlak & Mystkkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Woodrow, 2006; Wood, 2016). These studies suggest difficulties related to L2 proficiency might lead to problems in fluency and communication breakdowns, which can lead to reduced WTC in L2. In addition, the participants also experienced linguistic problems at a conceptual level, which led to the

249

growth of anxiety and loss of confidence, and they refrained from volunteering to talk because they feared they would not understand their interlocutor. The findings also documented lost opportunities due to the difficulties students experienced in articulating their thoughts in the L2 when they needed to provide impromptu input/replies. For example, some students described situations that required an immediate reply to a teacher's follow-up question as challenging.

The students expressed that these occasions led to feelings of anxiety, which were rooted in being unprepared for the follow-up questions. Such dropping off the conversation was because formulating their thoughts was a time-intensive task, which refers to the problems experienced during the workings of cognitive processing of speech (Wood, 2016, p. 12). For L2 speakers, these cognitive processes of "searching for appropriate lexical items, organising the words and information into grammatical sequences by applying syntactic and morphological rules" (Ibid), as well as phonological rules, would take time. The finding shows conformity with that of Pawlak & Mystkkowska-Wiertelak (2015), suggesting that proficiency-related problems led to increased anxiety and decreased willingness. Additionally, reduced WTC can cause fluency issues (Wood, 2016).

7.4 Bringing all together

The study has provided findings that have detailed the student-initiated participation structure in their interactional contexts and touched on students' perspectives, including their sense of agency and the underlying psychological and contextual factors that affect their participation. The goal was not to dwell on a binary description of classroom interaction as teacher-talk versus student-talk (more precisely, teacher-initiated vs student-initiated). Such binaries might lead to a false perception of "view[ing] these two notions as exclusive of as one another" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 6). Instead, the study argues that increasing student-initiated participation complements the other, which can potentially contribute to democratised classroom interaction.

First, the study has demonstrated how students accomplish initiating a turn to locally participate in various micro-contexts and their impact on the sequence organisation and their learning. Second, the study has proposed that students' willingness to initiate communication (WTI) is manifested in their own-initiated participation structures, which is an overt enactment of their agency. Thus, the study concludes that students' WTI is closely linked to their sense of agency which also corroborates with the level of their

enacted agency depending on where in a sequence they self-select and what they intend to accomplish by their self-selection. See the figure below for the interdependent relationships between the three constructs: WTI, agency and self-initiated participation in micro contexts in L2 classrooms:

Figure 7.4: The interdependent relationship between the L2 WTI, agency and self-initiated participation in L2 classroom interaction.
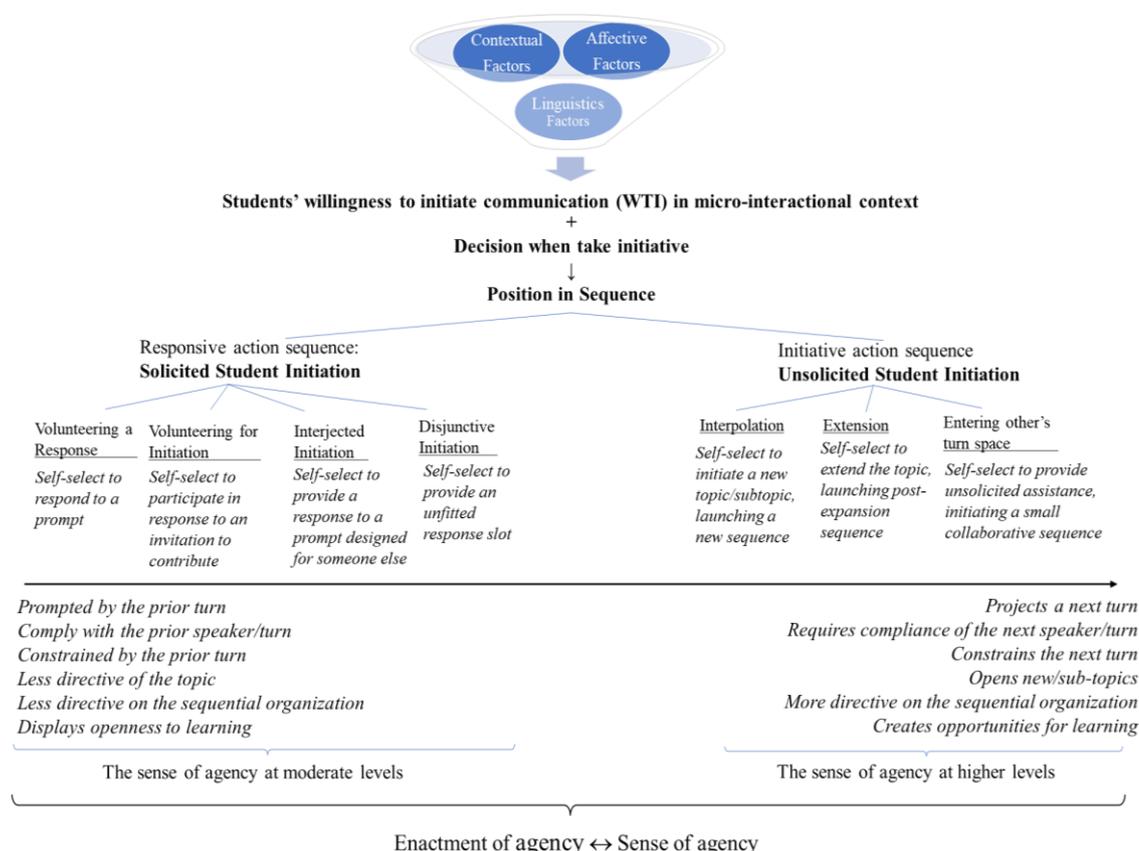
An interplay of contextual, individual, and linguistic factors influences the students' WTI, which in return determines what form of self-initiated participation the students engender. They can launch a responsive sequence or an initiative sequence to perform various actions. Depending on the sequential position and what they intended to do, these participation patterns can direct the interaction in different ways on a continuum, stretching from a less directive/agentive side to a more directive/agentive side. Their enacted agency eventually shapes their sense of agency and vice versa, which indicates a reciprocal relationship between the two components of agency.

8 Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This study sought to examine student-initiated participation from methodologically different perspectives, formulating two broad research questions to allow for subsequently collected classroom recordings and semi-structured interview data (See RQs). The present chapter summarises the main conclusions from the findings in the two results chapters. Then, it highlights the implications for policy and practice and makes suggestions for EAP practitioners. Finally, the chapter discusses the limitations of the study and concludes with possible directions for further research.

8.2 Summary of the main findings

First, the study has shown that student-initiated participation displays students' orientation to the solution of problems by means of and by reference to the turn-taking mechanism and sequence organisation. More specifically, it explored how students initiate a turn to locally participate in various micro-contexts and the pivotal role of student-initiated participation in L2 classrooms (Chapter 5). The findings have demonstrated that student-initiated participation can take various forms depending on the sequential position and the student's intended actions in whole-group interactions in task-based settings of EAP classrooms. Two prominent sequential positions where students self-select to contribute have been identified: responsive sequence and initiative sequence positions.

When their participation is solicited, they self-select in a responsive sequential position. Their contributions become imperative in constructing progressivity in interaction and learning tasks, enabling the teachers to move along with the lesson and carry out the teaching practices. When they participated uninvited, students could create opportunities for participation by initiating new sequences, entering other's turn space and most prominently by extending the topic of conversation in post-expansion sequential positions. In such cases, students displayed an increased control over the turn-taking system by selecting themselves as the next speaker to produce an unprojected action, manifesting a higher level of agency by taking the conversational floor. Thus, it has been argued that unsolicited student participation patterns contribute to forming a more symmetrical classroom discourse in EAP classrooms.

Second, the study has further conceptualised the student-initiated participation on a continuum from a less agentive to a more agentive point, highlighting the differences in the extent to which they enact agency. Occasions in which student asserted their agency in their struggle for empowerment by expanding their freedom of action and directing and influencing their own and others' actions have been argued as a much higher degree of agency. Occasions, where students volunteer to provide a responsive action have been interpreted as a moderate level of agency.

In the inquiry of understanding students' thoughts and feelings, the thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews also constituted a significant source of findings that were closely linked to students' self-selection practice in various sequential positions. The findings have revealed that students' sense of agency had a reciprocal relationship with their participation patterns. Discussing agency in terms of degrees, it is suggested that their unsolicited participation patterns reveal a higher level of agency; their solicited participation patterns point out a moderate level of sense of agency, whereas non-participation indicates a lack of agency.

Finally, the thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews revealed findings regarding students' willingness to communicate in L2, which has been reconceptualised as 'willingness to initiate communication' (WTI) in this study. The findings have shown that the students appropriated their participation in different sequential positions based on an interplay of various factors, including affective, contextual, and linguistic factors.

8.3 Contribution to knowledge

The study adds to knowledge in student participation in relation to sequence organisation in L2 classrooms, learning opportunities, the construct of agency as well as making terminological contribution to L2 WTC research.

First, it provides more insights into the research on the turn-taking system, focusing on L2 learners' self-selection practice that has remained undocumented in the particular settings of EAP classrooms in Turkish and UK contexts. Providing a window into the current state of the turn-taking and sequence organisations, the study has illustrated that student initiations are a pervasive part of L2 classroom interaction, constantly influencing the sequential organisation of interactions and learning opportunities. Second, it has reported a context-sensitive nature of the classroom by drawing particular attention to students' self-selection practice, noted as consequential on students' learning in terms of

opportunities created for learning. Situated in socio-cultural theory, the study has provided confirming evidence that the students, as active participants, can shape the interactional context in a way that enables active meaning-making.

Third, the study has adopted a multi-method approach to explore student participation by bringing together two distinctive methods: CA analysis of recordings and the semi-structured interview method. First, the participation patterns were identified by reference to turn-taking organisation. Then, students' thoughts were used to validate further and expand the data analysis. Highlighting the connections between these different elements that impact students' initiative participation frameworks, the study has added more insights to student participation and classroom interaction research. As a result, the study has contributed to the knowledge by showing a reciprocal relationship between students' sense of agency and enacted agency, which is specific to this study.

Fourth, the study has proposed a new term, i.e., students' willingness to initiate communication (WTI). Grounding students' own-initiated participation structures within the construct of WTI, the study highlights the nuanced difference between WTI and WTC. Relying on this new term, the study shows an interplay of contextual, individual, and linguistic factors that influence the students' WTI, which also impacts what form of self-initiated participation the students engender and their sense of agency.

8.4 Pedagogical implications

A final consideration is how the findings regarding student-initiated participation in the study can benefit pedagogy. Recommendations are directed at students, teachers, programme developers, and teacher training.

First, the study has shown that both students and teachers should be supported in translating the idealised notion of a more symmetrical classroom interaction into actual practice. Therefore, it is argued that raising teacher awareness of a conducive context for the occurrence of student-initiated turns may help to increase student-directed interaction in EAP classrooms. In the same way, such awareness of the subtle differences in interactional contexts of student-initiated participation structures can be a reference guide for teachers to help encourage students to self-select.

Furthermore, teachers have much responsibility for identifying the debilitating and facilitative factors that influence students' L2 willingness to initiate communication to participate in classroom tasks, which translates into enhanced student-initiated

participation. Encouraging students to take initiative roles can push them to challenge themselves and put more effort into taking agency of their learning. This will help them achieve greater gains in their academic lives since they will engage in more cognitively challenging tasks in their degree programmes.

Second, the study has shown the importance of how these student-initiated participation structures have been treated and managed by the teachers. Through the sequential analysis of extracts, the study repeatedly highlighted that student initiations can be transformed into learning occasions by teachers' strategic manoeuvres to direct them. Drawing students' attention to their questions and responses, both of which have been shown to be critical in opening up interactional space for students to self-select, the teachers can be fostered to change or enhance the ways that they control the interaction. For example, instead of providing a positive assessment for a student's response, the teachers can invite other students to comment on the given response. This way, the teachers can explore the ways to extend the amount and quality of student participation, which will eventually contribute to forming a dialogic classroom discourse. In this respect, dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2008) also provides a framework to encourage teachers to extend the possibilities for the quality of student talk by changing the third move in teacher talk.

Third, students should not be left alone to discover ways to engage effectively in classroom talks. Instead, they should be guided in an explicit way to comprehend their critical roles in constructing and influencing classroom interaction. Relying on a socio-cultural view of learning, it can be argued that when students are guided with instruction that incorporates real classroom exposure to targeted skills and reflective practices, their competency in and attitude to interactional skills can be sharply enhanced. This is critical in promoting their sense of agency and self-regulated learning skills. They can develop skills such as self-selecting to engage in a classroom discussion or follow up on a prior turn and become more prone to taking initiative for their learning. In academically demanding contexts of EAP classrooms, in particular, such social experiences in micro-moments contribute to the development of academic language knowledge. Thus, enhancing students' control over the turn-taking system in the classroom, in return, will contribute to constructing a more democratised classroom discourse, challenging the historically normalised teacher-directed interactional structures. Therefore, the study strongly recommends re-thinking the roles and responsibilities of teachers and students in managing classroom interaction.

Fourth, transforming the findings of conversation analytic investigation into practice can also be achieved by CA-incorporated teacher training programmes. For instance, integrating materials that consist of audio/videos of specific teaching behaviours is one way to foster teachers' overall development and skills in managing classroom discourse. Focusing on the specific aspects of interactional practices in the classrooms can provoke the development of teachers' reflective practices, which is critical for teacher learning and development (Sert & Walsh, 2013; Walsh, 2003). For example, teachers can be supported by showing the videotaped moments of successful student participation by reference to the turn-taking and participation patterns which leads to a more complex and nurturing interactional environment for student learning. In addition, they can gain insights by watching the trouble moments due to blocked student initiations. Thus, using video materials to increase teachers' awareness of the potential of student-directed interaction will enhance the teachers' abilities to facilitate occurrences of student initiatives.

Lastly, the study has also highlighted that students' agentic behaviours should also be encouraged by curriculum designers and approaches adopted by the utilised materials. The findings have indicated that student-initiated participation is closely linked to students' learning and development as agentive individuals by creating opportunities for learning and participation. Previous research tended to focus on teacher-directed facilitation of students' participation strategies; this study, on the other hand, proposes a stronger emphasis on students' self-regulation of their cognitive and behavioural strategies to ensure engagement in academic tasks. Although acknowledging that teacher guidance and feedback can help learners to develop skills and strategies of agentic behaviours, expanding students' freedom of actions, such as an equal distribution of speaker rights, can open up new avenues for students' agentic self-construction.

8.5 Limitations

As with any inquiry, this study also has limitations to its scope and findings that were needed to be acknowledged. One limitation concerns the generalisability of the findings. Although the study has expanded its scope by collecting data from various classrooms encompassing EFL and ESL settings, the study remains a small-scale qualitative research project with a limited amount of recorded classroom interactions and a small number of interviewees. This limitation restricts claims regarding the representativeness of the findings across all EAP classrooms. Thus, more research and data in similar settings are

needed to contribute to our understanding of student-initiated participation. This limitation was discussed in more detail in Sections 4.5.6 and 4.6.1.

Another limitation concerns obtaining the teacher participants' consent for recording more than one session with a single group. Unfortunately, some teachers considered it unfair to expose the students to a research project involving video recording as a method of data collection. As a result, recording with three groups of students was carried out once, hence, one single 2-hour session. This means that there was no data showing the same students' behaviour at different time scales, although the analysis involved details of how the participation framework was shaped by participants in different time scales within a single session. It may not be a constraint when doing a conversation analytic exploration; however, it becomes a challenge for interpreting interview data findings.

A further limitation is that the current study looked at learners with different language proficiency levels, ranging from B2 to C1 (CEFR). It might be argued that when past a certain level of L2 competence, the issues regarding the skilful use of interactional and linguistic resources in L2 become less challenging. Thus, there might be differences between high proficient and relatively less proficient students in their participatory behaviours. However, considering that the focus was on students' self-selection practice and that recurrent patterns and themes were found in classrooms with all students with varying proficiency levels, this limitation might be less constraining than it might be anticipated.

8.6 Suggestions for further research

The study has investigated how students secured speaking rights through self-selection practice in different sequential environments and the interactional consequences of their own-initiated participation in relation to the interactional organisation of L2 classroom discourse and learning. In doing so, the study has advanced the general understanding of student-initiated participation structure in whole-group interactions in task-based settings of EAP classrooms. However, much remains to be understood about students' self-selection practice in small-group interactions and during specific activity types. Such research helps to substantiate the claims this study proposes regarding the nature and role of students' initiations in creating valuable opportunities for learning in small-group interactions. Additionally, although the study gathered data from various EAP classrooms in Turkey and the UK university settings, more data can be examined to see whether

regularities are occurring in similar settings. This will help contribute to the generalisability of the findings across EAP classrooms.

Although this study has exclusively focused on students' self-selection, another possible avenue for future research on turn-taking organisation in L2 classroom interaction can be extended to students' 'deselection'. For example, this study has observed occasions where students displayed unavailability and unwillingness to take the conversational floor by staying silent, withdrawing their gaze, and accommodating their body posture accordingly. Moreover, there were cases where they assigned turns to their peers to get away from responding to a prompt. These moments of deselection can be further investigated, which will afford a more profound understanding of why students display unwillingness despite being invited.

The study has also focused on the students' perspectives, including their sense of agency and the underlying psychological and contextual factors that affect their participation. Previous studies have suggested that students' willingness to initiate communication can be subject to change over time and show a developmental nature because they are in constant interaction with the socio-cultural environment of the individuals. Hence, longitudinal studies that focus on students' self-selection practice and their willingness to self-select to initiate communication can further increase our understanding of the ways to promote more student talk in EAP classrooms.

8.7 Final reflective remarks

van Lier (2008) marks:

> Language learning is the process of finding one's way in the linguistic world, which is part of the semiotic world (i.e., the world of sign making and using) and taking an increasingly active role in developing one's own constitutive role in it. (p. 177)

This PhD study has been a journey of a lifetime during which I have learned to find my way in the world of academia as a novice researcher, putting exploration at the heart of the process and as a language learner, doing the research in another language other than my mother tongue. I have gained invaluable experiences that have tremendously changed my perspectives and mindset, although it has been the most challenging period of my life due to the inherent difficulties of doing long-term research while dealing with life itself.

Appendices

Appendix A: Informed consent forms

UNIVERSITY *of York*

Information Page

An investigation of student-initiated contributions in English language classes

Dear participant,

I am currently carrying out a research project to explore the characteristics of student-initiated contributions in English language classrooms.

To conduct this study, we are asking for your consent to observe and video-record your classes during normal teaching routines. The researcher will be sitting quietly at the back of the classroom so as to minimise any potential disruptions. You will also be invited to participate in an interview lasting for a maximum of 15 minutes.

All aspects of the study will be strictly confidential and only the researcher will have access to the classroom recordings and information on the participants. Findings of the study will presented at academic conferences or in journal publications; however no participants will be identified and will remain anonymous.

 You may opt out from participating in the study at any time, and also request that your data be removed up to 14 days after collection.

For further information or to request a copy of the results of study, please contact Sermin Arslan (sa1308@york.ac.uk).

If you have any concerns regarding the data collection procedures or the study in general, please contact Ethics Committee (education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk) and/or my supervisor at jan.hardman@york.ac.uk. Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely,

Sermin Arslan

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Consent Form

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above-named research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.
2. I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate the student-initiated participation forms.
3. I understand that data will be stored securely on a password protected computer and only the researcher will have access to it.
4. I understand that my identity will be protected by use of a pseudonym.
5. I understand that the data will be kept in identifiable form for a period of 12 months when the researcher does the transcription and analysis and only the researcher will have access to it.
6. I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes such as seminars and publication by the researcher.
7. I understand that the data will be stored for 6 years and then will be destroyed.
8. I understand that I can withdraw my data at any point during data collection and up to 14 days after data is collected
9. I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of my responses.
10. I understand that this research study has been reviewed and received ethics approval following the procedures of the Department of Education, University of York.

I agree to voluntarily participate in this study.
Name of participant: _____
Signature of participant: _____
Date: _____

s

Appendix B: Transcription notation system

◦ ◦	Spoken softly (decreased volume)
CAPITAL	Louder talk than the utterances surrounding it
↑	Rising intonation in the utterance following the arrow
↓	Falling intonation in the utterance following the arrow
→	A significant line of interest to the analyst
[ ]	Square brackets to denote overlapping talks
> <	Quicker talk
< >	Slow and deliberate speech
( )	Empty space between brackets describes unclear utterances to transcribe
(words)	Uncertain transcription
(( ))	transcriptionist comment
translation	Italicised speech indicates translated speech. An approximate translation has been provided.
[....]	Omitted speech
(.)	Untimed short silence, micro-pause
(0.3)	Timed silence
:	Stretched sounds
::	more prolonged
-	abrupt cut-off
=	Latched talk, a continuous talk
.	Sentence-final falling intonation
,	Phrase-final intonation- more to come
?	Rising intonation- not necessarily question
<u>Word</u>	Underlined words represent stress
Hum(h)our	'h' in brackets indicates laughter within the talk
Hah huh ha ha	A different series of laughter
T	Teacher
S	Student
Ss	Multiple learners
?	rising intonation
+ + * * $ $ % %	The description of embodied actions. The former symbol indicates the onset of the action, whereas the latter refers to the end point of the relevant actions. For each participant, a different symbol is used.
---->>+	The action described continues across subsequent lines until the same symbol is reached.
#	Indicates the position of a visual added to the transcript

Appendix C: Interview guide for main study (English)

Opening:

Thank you for taking the time to meet with me today. Your participation is really appreciated. The interview should take around 30 minutes or 1 hour. I will be taping the session because I don't want to miss any of your comments. All responses will be kept confidential. I will ensure that any information I include in our report does not identify you as the respondent. Remember, you don't have to talk about anything you don't want to, and you may end the interview at any time.

Instructions:

I would like to talk to you about your experiences of participating in classroom talk during whole-group activities in your English language lessons. Especially, I would like to hear how you feel about participating in these situations.

As we're on tape, please be sure to speak up, so we don't miss your comments. Do you have any questions before we start?

Main Questions:

Topic	Broad Questions	Follow-up questions
Their thoughts on their participation	1. How often do you contribute? 2. How do you feel about your contributions? 3. Why do you think it is important that you contribute? 4. Do you recall any memory of this that happened? 5. Any other memory of your participation in talks during whole-group activities?	▪ How did you feel about yourself? ▪ How did you feel when it happened? ▪ I noticed that you participated in the activity. How did you feel about your participation? ▪ How did you help, do you think? ▪ You mentioned that you helped your friends. Can you elaborate on that, please? ▪ You mentioned that you acted different than your friends. Why do you think so? ▪ How was it useful when you participated?
Factors affecting their participation, more and hence turn-taking behaviours	6. You mentioned that you were active/silent in class. What encouraged/discouraged you from speaking up in class, then? 7. How do you feel about speaking out in class during whole-group activities? 8. Could you please explain why you preferred to speak up there? 9. You wanted to share your experience. Can you tell me what motivated you to share it?	▪ Do you recall why did you choose to be the first? ▪ Why did you wait for the teacher to choose you? ▪ Why do you think it is easier when the teacher calls out your name? ▪ Why did you feel that you would cause an interruption? ▪ Could you explain why you let your friend take the lead? ▪ Can you tell me why you were quiet during the debate? ▪ I noticed you were active during the first half of the lesson, but you were quiet later. Do you recall why? ▪ Why did you feel worried about your language skill?

		▪ Why is it important that the teacher does that? ▪ Why did you fear making a mistake? ▪ How did this change affect you?
Closing	10.Is there anything you would like to add?	

Closing

Thank you very much for taking the time to attend this interview and answer our questions. It was kind of you.

Appendix D: Interview guide for main study (Turkish)

Giriş:

Öncelikle, bugün bana zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür etmek istiyorum. Katılımınız gerçekten benim için çok önemli. Görüşme yaklaşık 30 dakika veya 1 saat sürecektir. Oturumu kaydedeceğim çünkü yorumlarınızı kaçırmak istemiyorum. Tüm cevaplar gizli tutulacaktır. Raporumuza dahil ettiğim herhangi bir bilginin kimliğinizi tanımlamaması sağlanacaktır. hatırlatmak isterim ki istemediğiniz hiçbir şey hakkında konuşmak zorunda değilsiniz ve görüşmeyi istediğiniz zaman bitirebilirsiniz.

Açıklama:

Sizinle konuşmak istediğim şey, İngilizce derslerinizdeki tüm grupçak yapilan etkinlikler sırasında derse katılma deneyimleriniz. Özellikle, tum sinif etkinlikleri esnasında derse katılma konusunda ne hissettiğinizi duymak isterim.

Kayıtta olduğumuz için, yorumlarınızı kaçırmamak için lütfen biraz yüksek sesle konuşmaya çalısın. Başlamadan önce herhangi bir sorunuz var mı?

Konu	Ana Sorular	Ilgili sorular
Katılımları hakkındaki düşünceleri	1. Ne sıklıkla katkıda bulunuyorsunuz? 2. Katkılarınız hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? 3. Katkıda bulunmanızın neden önemli olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? 4. Bununla ilgili bugün olan bir deneyiminiz var mı? 5. Tüm grup aktiviteleri sırasındaki katılımınızla ilgili başka bir deneyiminiz var mı?	▪ Kendiniz hakkında ne hissettiniz? Olay olduğunda nasıl hissettiniz? ▪ Aktivite sırasında katıldığınızı fark ettim. Onun hakkında nasıl hissettin? ▪ Nasıl yardımcı oldunuz? ▪ Arkadaşlarınıza yardım ettiğinizden bahsettiniz. Bunu detaylandırabilir misin lütfen? ▪ Arkadaşlarından farklı davrandığını söyledin. Neden böyle düşünüyorsun? ▪ Katıldığınız zaman nasıl faydalı oldu?
Katılımlarını etkileyen faktörler	6. Derste aktif/sessiz olduğunuzu belirtmişsiniz. O zaman sınıfta konuşmanız için sizi ne cesaretlendirdi/caydırdı? 7. Tüm grup etkinlikleri sırasında sınıfta yüksek sesle konuşmak hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? 8. Neden orada konuşmayı tercih ettiğinizi açıklar mısınız? 9. Deneyiminizi paylaşmak istediniz. Onu paylaşmaya seni motive eden şeyin ne olduğunu söyleyebilir misin?	▪ Neden ilk konusan olmayı seçtiğinizi hatırlıyor musunuz? ▪ Neden öğretmenin sizi seçmesini beklediniz? ▪ Öğretmenin sizi secmesinin neden daha kolay olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? ▪ Neden yarida keseceğinizi hissettiniz? ▪ Arkadaşınızın liderliği almasına neden izin verdiğinizi açıklar mısınız? ▪ Münazara sırasında neden sessiz kaldığınızı söyleyebilir misiniz? ▪ Dersin ilk yarısında aktif olduğunuzu fark ettim, ancak daha sonra sessiz kaldınız. Nedenini hatırlıyor musun? ▪ Dil beceriniz konusunda neden endişe duydunuz?

		▪ Öğretmenin bunu yapması neden önemlidir? ▪ Neden hata yapmaktan korktunuz? ▪ Bu değişiklik sizi nasıl etkiledi?
Kapanış	10. Eklemek istediğiniz bir şey var mı?	

Kapanış

Katılımınız ve sorularımı yanıtlamak için zaman ayırdığınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Appendix E: Collection of extracts

Group-1 in University A (Turkey)

Structure and activities for each 65-min session	Form of Interaction	Time (min)	Extracts
Session 1			
Student Presentations	S monologue	40	
A student makes an informative speech on the Beatles using ppt slides. It is followed by other students evaluating their peer's presentation skills. The same pattern follows with three other students' presentations.	Whole group	7	
Discussion on student presentation	*Whole group*	8	1. *Extract: it could be better!*
It is a whole group discussion of students' evaluative comments on their presentation skills.			
Session 2			
Listening (Revision of intonation in tag questions)	*Whole group*	*14*	2. *Extract: Tag questions*
Half of the time is allocated to a pre-listening reflective discussion about the difference that intonation creates in the meaning of the sentence. It is followed by a listening exercise where students identify the meaning by ticking boxes after listening to each sentence and practising.			
Listening (Gap filling exercise with connectors)	Whole group	8	
Pre-listening: A form of exposition talk: revising the use of connectors in speaking. Then they fill the gaps with the missing connectors in the listening dialogue.			
Discussion on sports activities	Pair work	8	
They work in pairs to prepare their answers. Then two students are chosen to lead the discussion. Ss share what they like to do and provide their reasons, using the connectors revised in the previous activity.	*Whole group*	*10*	3. *Extract: Why?*

Revision of the vocabulary The section involves a list of vocabulary with a focus on the differences between academic and non-academic ones and phrases. T checks students' understanding of each vocabulary and phrase, which results in choral responses.	Whole group	9	
Session 3			
Warm-up T asks them to guess the meaning of vocabulary from the picture "sale". They move on to discussion questions on advertisements.	Whole group	12	*4. Extract: About advertisements*
Listening passage They listen to a mini-lesson where groups share their ideas on how ads change our consumption behaviours. After listening, they share their ideas and answer questions listed in their book.	Whole group	14	*5. Extract: A product history*
Listening exercise (Scent marketing) As a pre-listening exercise, they review the meaning of a few phrases. Later, they watch a video about the use of smell in ads with the aim of getting the gist. T initiates a small discussion on smell as an ad strategy)	Whole group	10	*6. Extract: Use of smell*
Discussion on advertising on local radio	Pair work	4	
They work in pairs to prepare their answers. Then T leads the discussion, and all share their ideas of what product they could advertise on the radio.	*Whole group*	7	**7.** *Extract: Really?*
Vocabulary review T checks their understanding of the meaning of a short vocabulary list related to the proceeding listening passage.	*Whole group*	5	
Session 4			
Listening about ad strategy	Whole group	18	

Before listening, T check students' comprehension of vocabulary listed in a box and explains their meaning. Then they listen to a passage while filling a chart. The aim of listening is to get specific information. T frequently pauses the recording after each point to check their understanding and answers.			
Post-listening exercise (matching items) - As a post-listening exercise, they match ad strategies with the actual ads.	Whole group	3	
Pronunciation (Pauses within sentences) Ss read out sentences paying attention to pauses within them. T asks them to read again when they fail to pause when needed.	Whole group	10	
Discussion on promoting products using a particular strategy	Pair work	7	
They work in pairs to prepare their answers. Then two students are chosen to lead the discussion. They share their ideas about what ad strategy they would use to advertise three products listed in their course book by providing reasons to justify their choice.	*Whole group*	*10*	8. *Extract: why Emre?*
Session 5			
Warm-up activity: Vocabulary exercise Multiple choice test. They need to choose the best match from the options synonymous with the word in bold within sentences.	Whole group	3	
Discussion on the most effective advertising technique	Pair work	11	
They work in pairs to prepare their answers. Then two students are chosen to lead the discussion. They share their ideas about what advertising strategy they think is the most effective.	*Whole group*	*23*	**9.** *Extract: Secret advertising*
Listening exercise (identifying facts and opinions) T briefly explains the difference between a fact and an opinion eliciting ideas from students. Then they listen to a list of statements and decide for each of them if they are facts or opinions. T pauses the recording after each sentence and waits for a student to respond.	Whole group	9	
Discussion on ethics in ads	*Whole group*	*8*	10. *Extract: Ethics*

Structure and activities for each 65-min session	Form of Interaction	Time (min)	Extracts
T asks them to describe what ethics might mean in advertising. Not receiving any response, T gives examples to explain it to the students. T gets a few short responses.			
Vocabulary revision T checks their understanding of vocabulary listed in a box in their book. T provides synonyms and sample sentences with the words.	Whole group	8	
Session 6			
Discussion on pros and cons of change in people's life (Prepared ideas at home to share in the group)	*Whole group*	*20*	*11. Extract: Changing*
Listening Skills During pre-listening, T checks their understanding of vocabulary, which results in single-word choral responses. They listen to a recording and answer specific questions (the focus is on note-taking skills). T plays the recording a second time, pauses after each sentence and mostly asks yes/no questions. As a post-listening activity, they do a T/F exercise.	Whole group	26	

Group-2 in University A (Turkey)

Structure and activities for each 65-min session	Form of Interaction	Time (min)	Extracts
Session 1			
Student Presentation	S monologue	35	
A student makes an informative speech on food in America using ppt slides. The presentation is followed by other students providing evaluative comments on the presentation skills of their peers and a teacher-led reflective discussion on students' overall presentation performances	*Whole group*	*15*	*12. Extract: Reflective discussion*
Listening (Revision of intonation in tag questions) The listening passage includes several tag questions that require students to differentiate between rising and falling intonation.	Whole group	16	
Session 2			
Listening (Gap filling with connectors)	Whole group	9	

Before listening, they revise the use of connectors listed in the book. Speaking. Then they move on to the main task of filling the gaps with the missing connectors in the listening dialogue.			
Discussion about sports activities	Pair work	7	
Ss work in pairs to prepare their answers. Then, two students are chosen to lead the discussion. Students share what they like to do, providing their reasons using the connectors revised in the previous activity.	*Whole group*	*14*	*13. Extract: I don't want to choose*
Revision of the vocabulary The unit summary provided in the book involves a list of vocabulary with a focus on the differences between academic and non-academic ones and phrases. T checks students' understanding of each vocabulary and phrase, focusing on pronunciation.	Whole group	7	
T asks them to guess the meaning of vocabulary from the picture "sale". They move on to discussion questions on advertisements.	Whole group	10	
Listening passage about ads They listen to a mini-lesson in which the group shares their ideas on how ads change our consumption behaviours. After listening, they share their ideas and answer questions listed in their book, discussing the effects of advertisements on people.	Whole group	10	*14. Extract: How can advertisements affect us?*
Session 3			
Discussion on pros and cons of change in people's life Ss have prepared their notes at home to share with their friends. Thus, there is no group work done in the class. T leaves them to lead the discussion on their own.	Whole group	26	*15. Extract: I am not here!*
Vocabulary (revision) T checks their understanding of the meaning of a short vocabulary list related to the proceeding listening passage.	*Whole group*	3	
Discussion on the most effective advertising technique	Individually	8	

They mostly work individually to prepare their answers. Then two students are chosen to lead the discussion. They share their ideas about what advertising strategy they think is the most effective.	*Whole group*	*14*	*16. Extract: We have a second question!*
Listening exercise (identifying facts and opinions) T briefly explains the difference between a fact and an opinion eliciting ideas from students. Then they listen to a list of statements and decide for each of them if they are facts or opinions. T pauses the recording after each sentence and waits for a student to respond.	Whole group	9	
Discussion on ethics in ads T asks them to describe what ethics might mean in advertising. Not receiving any response, T gives examples to explain it to the students. T gets a few short responses.	Whole group	8	
Session 4			
Discussion on product placement	Pair work	8	
Ss pair up in order to prepare their answers. Then, T chooses two students as moderators to lead the discussion. As a whole class, they share their ideas.	*Whole group*	*15*	*17. Extract: I haven't got it yet either*
Mini survey (questions about advertisement)	Whole group	5	
Vocabulary (guessing meaning from context) T explains the importance of context to define a word in a sentence. Then, students guess the meaning of words in bold used in a list of sentences. Teacher talk dominates the activity.	Whole group	10	
Vocabulary - Ss provide definitions for vocabulary.	Whole group	8	
Pronunciation - Ss listen to a passage to identify rising and falling intonation in wh- and yes/no questions.	Whole group	6	
Pronunciation Ss listen to a passage to identify how intonation changes a declarative sentence form. Ss are supposed to decide if it is a statement or question in positive sentence form.	Whole group	10	
Listening (gap filling task)	Whole group	5	

They listen to a dialogue and fill in the blanks with expressions and phrases of giving and supporting opinions.			
Session 5			
Note-taking skill (using a mind map to organize ideas) T explains how they can use a mind map to organize their ideas. Then they study a sample mind map provided in their book as an example.	Whole group	4	
Discussion on effective ad technique	Pair work	9	
The focus is on using a mind map to organize ideas. A mind map is provided for them to fill in with their ideas.	*Whole group*	*10*	*18. Extract: Mind map*
Pre-listening (discussion on taking risks)	*Whole group*	*11*	*19. Extract: Taking risk*
Listening to a lecture on taking risks (getting specific information)	Whole group	10	

Group-3 in University B (Turkey)

Structure and activities for each 70-min session	Form of Interaction	Time (min)	Extracts
Session 1			
Grammar/Speaking	Group work	4	
Ss form sentences using "might/could/may have" to make inferences about past events. Ss share their answer with their group peers. T checks a few students' sentences.	Whole group	2	
Discussion	Group work	4	
Ss are asked to discuss questions about early modern humans who left Africa. Ss work in groups. Later, T leads the discussion and receives responses from students.	Whole group	2	
Discussion on the family history	Individual	3	

To organize their answers, ss work with a graphic organizer in which they need to fill in with their personal family history information. Then, ss share their family history within their groups and later with the whole class.	Group work	4	
	Whole group	4	*20. Extract: Family history*
Pre-listening activity (understanding visual information)	Individual	4	
They examine a map to answer questions regarding the migration of animals in Africa.	*Whole* group	2	
Pre-listening activity II (Vocabulary matching activity) - They match vocabulary with their definitions.	Group work	2	
	Whole group	2	
Listening (sequencing the events)	*Individual*	2	
They need to put the events in order and later check their answers while watching a short video clip about the migration of wildebeests. Ss check their answers with the T.	*Whole* group	3	
Listening for key concepts They watch the same clip to fill in a mini text with information to complete sentences. T checks their answers.	*Whole* group	5	
Discussion	Group work	3	
The goal of the activity is to develop critical thinking skills. Ss discuss some questions provided as post-listening activity.	*Whole group*	4	*21. Extract: migration of wildebeest*
Listening and discussion	*Individual*	4	
Ss listen to an interview and guess the meaning of words highlighted from the contexts. After listening, they discuss personal opinions. It is a reflective discussion where students provide personal opinions using vocabulary from the listening.	*Whole group*	4	*22. Extract: wildlife of butterflies*
Vocabulary	*Individual*	3	
They fill in a passage with the correct form of the vocabulary given in a box. T makes students read aloud the sentences to check their answers.	*Whole group*	5	

Group-4 in University C

Structure and activities for each 70-min session	Form of Interaction	Time (min)	Extracts
Session 1			
Vocabulary	Group work	5	
Ss work in groups to put the vocabulary into categories. Then, ss share with the group and T checks if the responses are accurate.	*Whole group*	2	
Discussion	Group work	3	
Ss work in groups of 2-3 people to answer a list of questions regarding online and offline shopping. They discuss it all together, with the T leading the discussion.	*Whole group*	4	*23. Extract: Online shopping*
Vocabulary (gap filling)	Group work	5	
Ss are asked to fill in the blanks in sentences with appropriate verbs to create phrases related to shopping. T checks their responses, making students read the sentences aloud.	*Whole group*	3	
Vocabulary	Individual	3	
Ss form interrogative questions using phrases from the previous exercise. Then, ss ask questions to their peers in pairs.	Pair work	*3*	
Reading - Ss read a mini text individually. Then, as a whole group, ss answer the questions about the text.	Group work	*2*	
	Whole group	2	
Listening (matching)	individual	*6*	
Ss watch a YouTube video about singles day tradition celebrated in China twice. They listen for specific information and complete a matching exercise where they need to match dates with events.	*Whole group*	2	
Debate	Group work	*4*	

Structure and activities for each 2-hour Class	Interactional context	Time (min)	Extracts
They are supposed to be in two opposing groups. However, T does not put them in two separate groups. It turns out to be a discussion rather than a debate.	*Whole group*	*4*	*24. Extract: Which one?*
Session 2			
Vocabulary	Group work	3	
Ss discuss the meaning of vocabulary in a word cloud in groups, adding more vocabulary related to entrepreneurship on the list. Then, T asks them to shout out the vocabulary and phrases they added to the list.	*Whole group*	2	
Vocabulary (creating semantic map)	Group work	5	
Ss create a semantic map where they categorize vocabularies under certain features of entrepreneurship. Ss work in their groups to write a definition for the term entrepreneur. T asks them to provide their response and justifications.	*Whole group*	4	*25. Extract: Entrepreneur*
Reading with vocabulary focus	Group work	12	
Ss read a short text trying to guess the meaning of the idioms from the context, discuss them with their peers and match the definitions with the idioms underlined in the text. T asks them to say the idioms out loud with matching definitions.	*Whole group*	5	
Vocabulary (gap filling)	Group work	10	
Ss use the same idioms from the previous exercise to fill in the gaps in the sentences. Later, T makes them read out the sentences to check their responses.	*Whole group*	12	
Listening - Ss watch a video about an entrepreneur and answer multiple-choice questions.	Group work	*10*	
	Whole group	*3*	

Group-5 in University D (the UK)

Structure and activities for each 2-hour Class	Interactional context	Time (min)	Extracts
Session 1			

Structure and activities	Interactional context	Time (min)	Extracts
T asks ss to express their weak points by referring to the list in front of them, which summarizes the rules to be followed in academic writing.	Whole group	20	*26. Extract: fifteen steps to academic writing*
Matching items Ss match essay titles with essay types in terms of author positions: discuss, describe and defend. Then, ss identify supportive claims in a list of claims given in their handouts.	Whole group	5	
Ss discuss the definition of concepts 'claim' and 'fact' and the difference between them. Then, they identify which statement is a claim and which one is common knowledge in the given list of statements.	Whole group	23	*27. Extract: I want an evidence*
Matching items - They group supportive claims by the topic.	Whole group	5	
Writing activity (sentence completion)	Individual	8	
Ss complete sentences in a body essay with the sentences in the previous exercise. T provides the answer and points out the features of academic style, focusing on cautious and concise language use in the sentences.	Group work	3	
	Whole group	13	
Matching items Ss match supporting evidence with the claims.	Whole group	4	
Explanation (with Gap filling task) T explains the importance of the choice of reporting verbs in academic writing. T asks them to provide the most common reporting verbs.	Whole group	7	

Group-6-7-8 in University E (the UK)

Structure and activities for each 2-hour Class	Interactional context	Time (min)	Extracts
Session 1 [Group 6]			
Warm-up T asks ss to reflect upon whether girls are brought up differently than boys.	Whole group	4	
Listening activity They watch a short clip from a ted talk about the upbringing of girls and boys. They discuss their own experiences in groups.	Whole group	4	
	Group work	6	

Survey Ss fill in a survey showing the degree of their agreement/disagreement with the statements on gender equality and discuss them with their group peers.	Group work	10	
	Whole group	2	
Reading Each student gets a half-page-long article to read and report back to their group members. Ss discuss them in their groups.	Individual Group work	3 17	
Discussion (True/False task) Ss have ten statements about the gender-based use of the English language in their handouts to discuss and decide if they are true or false. Later, T interferes by inviting them to share their opinions.	Group work	6	*28. Extract: Black and white*
	Whole group	6	
Debate on gender equality Ss are divided into two groups opposing each other on gender equality in society. The focus is on their ability to discuss and debate a given topic.	Group work	18	*29. Extract: Gender Equality*
	Whole group	17	
Session 1 (Group 7)			
Role play about gender equality Groups receive a role description. They create a script and rehearse their roles to perform it in front of the whole group. Ss role play. T and peers provide comments on their performance.	Group work Whole group	10 10	
T/F exercise They decide whether the statements are true or false according to a video clip they have watched.	Group work	6	*30. Extract: Gender and GDP*
	Whole group	8	
Simulation (developing problem-solving strategies for a developing country) In a meeting controlled by a chair, the teams from the central government, each of which is responsible for a particular department (e.g., healthcare, education, EU committee), provide ideas to the problems of the country called Notquietheria.	Group work	20	*31. Extract: Notquitethereia*
	Whole group	30	
Session 1 (Group 8)			
Reading a text T distributes three different texts. Ss read one of the texts and meet in groups to discuss with their peers who read the same texts and later with others to report what they have read.	Individual	10	*32. Extract: Digital Human being*
	Group work	20	
	Whole group	5	
Gap Filling exercise They fill in the blanks with expressions of agreement or disagreement.	Individual	4	
	Whole group	5	

| Debate on Artificial Intelligence (AI) T split ss into two groups, a and b, and ss have a debate on whether AI is good or bad. | Group work | 10 | *33. Extract: Artificial intelligence* |
| | Whole group | 14 | |

Group-9-10 in University F (the UK)

Structure and activities for each 2-hour Class	Interactional context	Time (min)	Extract
Session 1 (Group 9)			
Warm-up	Group work	3	*34. Extract: Italia*
Ss share the unusual or unfortunate experiences that they have had during their holidays in groups and later with the whole group.	Whole group	5	
Dictogloss (dictation activity) T slowly reads a story out loud, breaking it into six sentences, and students try to reconstruct the story by writing down the keywords that form the base for reconstruction. Groups compare their answers and later check with T as a whole group.	Individual work Group work Whole group	8 15 12	
Pronunciation exercise They work on the schwa sound in the same story they reconstructed in the previous activity.	Group work Whole group	5 10	
Pronunciation exercise They use the same story to work on the connected speech.	Group work Whole group	5 10	
Exposition (usage of past tense) They discuss the use of past tense in the story used in previous activities.	Group work	5	*35. Extract: Past perfect continuous*
	Whole group	5	
Gap-filling exercise Ss fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct forms of past tenses.	Group work Whole group	4 5	
Writing a short story Ss work on writing a story that happened to them during a holiday in six sentences using narrative tenses (past tenses). Ss share their stories with their peers.	Individual Group work Whole group	10 10 8	
Session 2 (Group 9)			
Pre-reading	Group work	8	

Ss discuss the title of a reading passage in groups and later as a whole group. Then, ss read the text and discuss the underlined words in the text.	Whole group	15	*36. Extract: Nanny State*
T/F exercise Ss predict if the statements are true or false. T checks their answers.	Group work Whole group	7 6	
Reading Ss skim a short text and discuss it in their groups.	Individual work Group work	3 2	
Post-reading T/F exercise Ss work in their groups and later check their answers with T as a whole group.	Group work Whole group	7 3	
Grammar focus on modal verbs Ss work on the difference between the pairs of statements that express obligation/necessity. T checks their answers.	Group work	6	*37. Extract: modal verbs*
	Whole group	6	
T/F exercise Ss decide if they strongly or less strongly agree with given statements that express obligation and necessity.	Group work	5	
Roleplay They write an election speech for the student representative position and read their speech to get the votes of their peers.	Group work	15	*38. Extract: election speech*
	Whole group	15	
Session 3 (Group 9)			
Recap T repeat the sound "w" and give a few examples.	Whole group	3	
Warm-up A quiz about cuisines around the world. Ss are given pictures of dishes and asked to decide which cuisine or country they belong to.	Whole group	12	
Vocabulary T introduces vocabulary to describe the food.	Group work Whole group	2 3	
Vocabulary quiz T divides the class into two teams, each trying to answer questions about dishes and cuisines. Then, both teams compare their answers and decide on the winning team.	Group works Group works	8 5	
Vocabulary T introduces adjectives and asks them to provide an example that matches the descriptive adjective	Group work Whole group	12 5	

Vocabulary game Two teams write food descriptions and later ask the rival team to guess the name of the food. The team who knows more gets to be the winner.	Group work	6	39. *Extract: What is it?*
	Whole group	7	
Reading Ss read a short text about the famous chefs' last meal and briefly discuss the text in groups.	Individual Group work Whole group	2 3 1	
Post-reading Q/A - Ss answer comprehension questions about the text they have read.	Group work Whole group	12 3	
Making a prepared speech Ss prepare a similar speech as in the previous reading exercise share it with the whole class. Other students ask questions to the presenter student.	Individual	4	40. *Extract: Last supper*
	Whole group	15	
Session 1 (Group 10)			
Warm-up Ss share childhood memories in groups.	Group work	3	
Pre-reading exercise Ss discuss the meaning of a riddle teacher has presented.	Group work	3	41. *Extract: Riddle (What am I?)*
	Whole group	20	
Pre-reading Ss share their ideas about poetry and talk about their favourite poems.	Whole group	5	
Ordering activity In pairs, ss construct a poem whose lines are unordered, using rhyming endings as clues.	Pair work Whole group	10 5	
Listening - Ss watch a cartoon on YouTube that is based on the visual animation of the same poem.	Whole group	5	
Pronunication exercise Ss impersonate (imitating intonation, stress, and voice tones) the characters in the story and record it on their phones. Each student gets to be a character in the story. Practising in their groups, ss and T come together to record the story as a whole.	Pair work Whole group	20 15	
Vocabulary game Ss play noughts and crosses with the vocabulary of noise and actions. T divides them into two teams. Players put noughts or crosses on the grid in turn. The player who makes a line of horizontal, vertical, or diagonal noughts or crosses is the winner.	Whole group	20	

Abbreviations

CA:	Conversation Analysis
CIC:	Classroom Interactional Competence
DA:	Discourse Analysis
ESL:	English as a Second Language
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
FPP:	First Pair Part
IRE:	Initiation-Response-Evaluation
IRF:	Initiation-Response-Feedback
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
WTC:	Willingness to communicate
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
SLA:	Second Language Acquisition
SPP:	Second Pair Part
TRP:	Turn transition relevance place
ZPD:	The "zone of proximal development", Vygotsky's concept
WTI:	Willingness to initiate communication

References

Åberg, M. (2017). Talk, text, and tasks in student-initiated instructional interaction. *Discourse Processes*, *54*(8), 618–634. https://doi.org/10.1080/0163853X.2016.1139966

Adler, M., Rougle, E., Kaiser, E., & Caughlan, S. (2004). Closing the gap between concept and practice: Toward more dialogic discussion in the language arts classroom. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *47*(4), 312–322. http://www.jstor.org/stable/40014777

Ahearn, L. M. 2001. Language and agency. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 30,* 109–37.

Ahn, T. Y. (2016). Learner agency and the use of affordances in language-exchange interactions. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *16*(2), 164–181. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2015.1125911

Airey, J. (2016). EAP , EMI Or CLIL ?. In K. Hyland, & S. Philip (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes* (pp. 71–83). Routledge. https://doi-org.libproxy.york.ac.uk/10.4324/9781315657455

Al-Murtadha, M., & Feryok, A. (2017). Studying English in Yemen: situated unwillingness to communicate in sociohistorical time. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *11*(3), 230–240. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2017.1317258

Alexander, R. (2008). *Towards dialogic teaching: Rethinking classroom talk* (4th ed.). Dialogos.

Alexander, O., Sloan, D., Hughes, K., & Ashby, S. (2017). Engaging with quality via the CEM model: Enhancing the content and performance management of postgraduate in-sessional academic skills provision. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *27*, 56–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.04.005

Allwright, R. L. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *5*(2), 156–171. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/5.2.156

Antaki, C. (2011). *Applied conversation analysis: Intervention and change in institutional talk*. Springer.

Antón, M. (1999). The discourse of a learner-centred classroom: Sociocultural perspectives on teacher-learner interaction in the second-language classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, *83*(3), 303–318. https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00024

Appel, J. (2010). Participation and instructed language learning. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *Conceptualising "learning" in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 206–224). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230289772_12

Applefield, J. M., Huber, R., & Moallem, M. (2001). Constructivism in theory and practice: Toward a better understanding. *The High School Journal*, *84*(2), 35–53. http://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/40364404.pdf

Arik, B. T., & Arik, E. (2014). The role and status of English in Turkish higher education. *English Today*, *30*(4), 5–10. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078414000339

Aslan, M. (2018). The debate on English-medium instruction and globalisation in the Turkish context: a sociopolitical perspective. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *39*(7), 602–616. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1417413

Atkinson, J. M., & Drew, P. (1979). *Order in court*. Springer.

Avila, M. O. C. (2019). Exploring teachers' and learners' overlapped turns in the language

classroom: Implications for classroom interactional competence. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *9*(4), 581–606. https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2019.9.4.2

Bailey, A. L. (2007). *The language demands of school: Putting academic English to the test*. Yale University Press.

Bandura, A. (1995). *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. Cambridge University Press.

Bandura, A. (2006). Toward a psychology of human agency. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *1*(2), 164–180. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6916.2006.00011.x

Banerjee, J., & Wall, D. (2006). Assessing and reporting performances on pre-sessional EAP courses: Developing a final assessment checklist and investigating its validity. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *5*(1), 50–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2005.11.003

Barnes, D. (1969). Language in the secondary classroom. In D. Barnes, J. Britton, & M. Torbe (Eds.), *Language, the learner, and the school* (pp. 11–87). Heinemann.

Basturkmen, H. (2003). So what happens when the tutor walks in? Some observations on interaction in a university discussion group with and without the tutor. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *2*(1), 21–33. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(02)00034-6

Basturkmen, H. (2016). Dialogic interaction. In K. Hyland, & P. Shaw (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of English for Academic Purposes* (pp. 152–164). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315657455-22

Baynham, M. (2006). Agency and contingency in the language learning of refugees and asylum seekers. *Linguistics and Education*, *17*, 24–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2006.08.008

Bellack, A., Kliebard, H., Hyman, R., & Smith, L. (1966). *The language of the classroom*. Teachers College Press.

Bernales, C. (2016). Towards a comprehensive concept of willingness to communicate: Learners' predicted and self-reported participation in the foreign language classroom. *System*, *56*, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.11.002

Block, D. (2003). *The social turn in second language acquisition*. Edinburgh University Press.

Block, D. (2015). Structure, agency, individualization and the critical realist challenge. In P. Deters, X. Gao, E. R. Miller, & G. Vitanova (Eds.), *Theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches* (pp. 17–36). Multilingual Matters.

Boulima, J. (1999). *Negotiated interaction in target language classroom discourse*. John Benjamins Publishing.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Qualitative research in psychology using thematic analysis in psychology using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77–101.

Breen, M. P. (1985). The social context for language learning - a neglected situation?. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *7*(2), 135–158.

Brown, D. (2007). *The principles of language learning and teaching*. Pearson.

Buckingham, L., & Alpaslan, R. S. (2017). Promoting speaking proficiency and willingness to communicate in Turkish young learners of English through asynchronous computer-mediated practice. *System*, *65*, 25–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.12.016

Cao, Y. K. (2009). *Understanding the notion of interdependence, and the dynamics of willingness*

to communicate. The University of Auckland.

Cao, Y. K. (2013). Exploring dynamism in willingness to communicate: A longitudinal case study. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *36*(2), 160–176. https://doi.org/10.1075/aral.36.2.03cao

Cao, Y. K. (2014). A sociocognitive perspective on second language classroom willingness to communicate. *TESOL Quarterly*, *48*(4), 789–814. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.155

Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behaviour in whole class, group and dyadic interaction. *System*, *34*(4), 480–493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.05.002

Cazden, C. B. (1988). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Heinemann.

Cekaite, A. (2008). Soliciting teacher attention in an L2 classroom: Affect displays, classroom artefacts, and embodied action. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(1), 26–48. doi:10.1093/applin/amm057

Cetinkaya, Y. B. (2005). *Turkish college students' willingness to communicate in English as a foreign language* [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. The Ohio State University.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Sage.

Chichon, J. (2019). Factors influencing overseas learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) on a pre-sessional programme at a UK university. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *39*, 87–96. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.04.002

Chika, O. P. (2012). The extent of students' responses in the classroom. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *2*(1), 301–307.

Christoph, J. N., & Nystrand, M. (2001). Taking risks, negotiating relationships: One teacher's transition toward a dialogic classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English, 36*(2), 249–286.

Clarke, S. N., Howley, I., Resnick, L., & Rosé, P. C. (2016). Student agency to participate in dialogic science discussions. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, *10*, 27–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2016.01.002

Clément, R., Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Effects of Context, Norms, and Vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *22*(2), 190–209. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X03022002003

Clift, R. (2016). *Conversation analysis*. Cambridge University Press.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). London. Routledge.

Cooper, P., & Mcintyre, D. (1994). Patterns of interaction between teachers' and students' classroom thinking, and their implications for the provision of learning opportunities. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *10*(6), 633–646.

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL quarterly*, *34*(2), 213–238.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice, 39*(3), 124–130. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip3903_2

Cummins, J. (1979). Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Bilingualism, 19,* 121–129.

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire.* Multilingual Matters.

Davydov, V. V., & Kerr, S. T. (1995). The influence of L. S. Vygotsky on education theory, research, and practice. *Educational Researcher*, *24*(3), 12–21.

De Bot, K. (2015). Rates of change: Time scales in second language development. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 29–37). Multilingual Matters.

de Saint Léger, D., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System*, *37*(2), 269–285. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.01.001.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. Rochester: The University of Rochester Press.

Denzin, N. K. (2001) The reflexive interview and a performative social science. *Qualitative Research, 1*(1), 23–46. https://doi.org/10.1177/146879410100100102

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2003). *The landscape of qualitative research theories and issues*. Sage.

Dippold, D. (2014). "That's wrong": Repair and rapport in culturally diverse higher education classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal*, *98*(1), 402–416.

Dippold, D., Heron, M., & Gravett, K. (2022). International students' linguistic transitions into disciplinary studies: a rhizomatic perspective. *Higher Education*, *83*, 527–545.

Dolce, F. M., & van Compernolle, R. A. (2020). Topic management and student initiation in an advanced Chinese-as-a-foreign-language classroom. *Classroom Discourse*, *11*(1), 80–98. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2018.1563799

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf, & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33–56). Ablex.

Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classrooms. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 27–50). Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9–42). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-28380-3_4

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2017). Conceptualizing learner characteristics in a complex, dynamic world. In L. Ortega, & Z. Han (Eds.), *Complexity theory and language development.* (pp. 79–96). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.48.05dor

Dörnyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). *Group dynamics in the language classroom.* https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511667138

Drew, P. (2005). Foreword: Applied Linguistics and Conversation Analysis. In K. Richards, & P. Seedhouse (Eds.), *Applying Conversation Analysis* (pp. 14–20). Palgrave Macmillan.

Drew, P. (2009). "Quit talking while I'm interrupting": A comparison between positions of overlap onset in conversation. In M. Haakana, & J. Lindström (Eds.), *Talk in Interaction: Comparative Dimensions* (pp. 70–93). Finnish Literature Society.

Drew, P., & Heritage, J. (1992). *Talk at work: interaction in institutional settings*. CUP.

Drew, P. (2013). Turn Design. The handbook of conversation analysis, In J. Sidnell, & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 131–149). Wiley-Blackwell.

Du, P. (2022). Shared laughter as relational strategy at intercultural conflictual workplace interactions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *188*, 39–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2021.11.016

Duff, P. A., & Doherty, L. (2015). Examing agency in (second) language socialization research . In P. Deters, X. Gao, E. R. Miller, & G. Vitanova (Eds.), *Theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches* (pp. 54–72). Multilingual Matters.

Dufva, H., & Aro, M. (2015). Dialogical View on Language Learners' Agency: Connecting Intrapersonal with Interpersonal. In P. Deters, X. Gao, E. R. Miller, & G. Vitanova (Eds.), *Theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches* (pp. 37–53). Multilingual Matters.

Duran, C. S. (2015). Theorizing young language learner agency through the lens of multilingual repertoires: A sociocultural perspective. In P. Deters, X. Gao, E. R. Miller, & G. Vitanova (Eds.), *Theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches* (pp. 73–90). Multilingual Matters.

Duran, D., & Sert, O. (2021). Student-initiated multi-unit questions in EMI classrooms. *Linguistics and Education*, *65*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2021.100980

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2010). Theoretical pluralism in SLA: Is there a way forward?. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *Conceptualising 'learning' in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 23–51). Palgrave Macmillan.

Elwood, J. (2011). *Enriching structural models of L2 willingness to communicate: The role of personality, ego, permeability, and perceived distance* [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. Temple University

Engin, M. (2017). Contributions and silence in academic talk: Exploring learner experiences of dialogic interaction. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, *12*, 78–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2016.11.001

Erickson, F. (1982). Classroom discourse as improvisation: Relationships between academic task structure and social participation structure in lessons. In L. Wilkinson (Ed.), *Communicating in the classroom* (pp. 153–181). Academic Press.

Evnitskaya, N., & Berger, E. (2017). Learners' multimodal displays of willingness to participate in classroom interaction in the L2 and CLIL contexts. *Classroom Discourse*, *8*(1), 71–94. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2016.1272062

Fagan, D. S. (2012). 'Dealing with' unexpected learner contributions in whole group activities: an examination of novice language teacher discursive practices. *Classroom Discourse*, *3*(2),

107–128. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2012.716621

Fallah, N. (2014). Willingness to communicate in English, communication self-confidence, motivation, shyness and teacher immediacy among Iranian English-major undergraduates: A structural equation modelling approach. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *30*, 140–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2013.12.006

Fanselow, J. F. (1977). Beyond Rashomon: Conceptualizing and describing the teaching act. *TESOL Quarterly, 11*(1), 17–39.

Fasel Lauzon, V., & Berger, E. (2015). The multimodal organization of speaker selection in classroom interaction. *Linguistics and Education*, *31*, 14–29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2015.05.001

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *The Modern Language Journal*, *81*(3), 285–300. https://doi.org/10.2307/329302

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (2007). Second/foreign language learning as a social accomplishment: elaborations on a reconceptualized SLA. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*, 800–819.

Fisher, R. J. (1993). Social desirability bias and the validity of indirect questioning. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *20*(2), 303–315. https://www.jstor.org/stable/2489277

Flanders, N. A. (1960). *Teacher influence on pupil attitudes and achievement; Final report*. University of Minnesota.

Flanders, N. A. (1970). *Analyzing teaching behaviour*. Addison-Wesley.

Flowers, A. (2011). Encyclopedia of survey research methods. In P. J. Lavrakas (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of survey research methods* (pp. 202–203). Sage Publications. https://doi.org/https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412963947

Fogle, L. W. (2012). *Second language socialization and learner agency: Adaptive family talk*. Multilingual Matters.

Foster, P., & Ohta, A. S. (2005). Negotiation for meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics*, *26*(3), 402–430. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami014

Galton, M., Hargreaves, L., & Pell, T. (2009). Group work and whole-class teaching with 11- to 14-year-olds compared. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *39*(1), 119–140. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057640802701994

Gao, X. (2010). *Strategic language learning: The roles of agency and context*. Multilingual Matters.

Gao, X. (2013). Reflexive and reflective thinking: A crucial link between agency and autonomy. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *7*(3), 226–237. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2013.836204

Gardner, R. (2012). Conversation analysis in the classroom. In J. Sidnell, & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 593–611) https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118325001.ch29

Gardner, R. (2015). Summons turns: The business of securing a turn in busy classrooms. In P. Seedhouse, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *International perspectives on ELT classroom interaction* (pp. 28–48). Palgrave Macmillan.

Gardner, R. (2019). Classroom interaction research: The state of the art. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, *52*(3), 212–226. https://doi.org/10.1080/08351813.2019.1631037

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A student's contributions to second-language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language teaching, 26*(1), 1–11.

Garfinkel, H. (1967). *Studies in Ethnomethodology*. Polity Press.

Garton, S. (2012). Speaking out of turn? Taking the initiative in teacher-fronted classroom interaction. *Classroom Discourse, 3*(1), 29–45. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2012.666022

Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. J. Doughty, & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224–255). Blackwell Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470756492

Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gass, S. M., Mackey, A., & Pica, T. (1998). The role of input and interaction in second language acquisition introduction to the Special Issue. *The Modern Language Journal*, *82*(3), 299–307. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb01206.x

Gass, S. M., & Varonis, E. M. (1994). Input, interaction, and second language production. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *16*, 283–302. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100013097

Gass, S., Mackey, A., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2005). Task-based interactions in classroom and laboratory settings. *Language Learning*, *55*(4), 575–611.

Gass, S., & Varonis, E. M. (1985). Task variation and nonnative/nonnative negotiation of meaning. In S. M. Gass, & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 149–161). Newbury House Publishers.

Gass, S. (2015). Comprehensible input and output in classroom interaction. In N. Markee (Ed.), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction* (pp. 182–197). Wiley Blackwell.

Girgin, U., & Brandt, A. (2020). Creating space for learning through 'Mm hm' in a L2 classroom: Implications for L2 classroom interactional competence. *Classroom Discourse*, *11*(1), 61–79. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2019.1603115

Goffman, E. (1981) Footing. In E. Goffman (Ed.), *Forms of talk* (pp. 124–159). University of Pennsylvania Press.

Goffman, E. (2010). *Relations in public: Microstudies of the public order*. Transaction Publishers.

Goffman, E. (1983). The interaction order. *American Sociological Review*, *48*, 1–17.

Goodwin, C. (2000). Action and embodiment within situated interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics, 32*, 1489–1522.

Goodwin, C. (1980). Restarts, pauses, and the achievement of a state of mutual gaze at turn-beginning. *Sociological Inquiry*, *50*, 272–302. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-682X.1980.tb00023.x

Goodwin, C., & Heritage, J. (1990). Conversation analysis. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, *19*, 283–307.

Goodwin, M. H. (2000). Participation. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology, 9*, 177–180.

Greer, T. (2016). Learner initiative in action: Post-expansion sequences in a novice ESL survey

interview task. *Linguistics and Education*, *35*, 78–87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2016.06.004

Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Communication and Technology*, *29*(2), 75–91.

Hall, J. K. (2004). Language learning as an interactional achievement. *Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 607–612. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3588591

Hall, J. K. (2020). L2 classroom interaction and its links to L2 learners' developing L2 linguistic repertoires: A research agenda. *Language Teaching*, 1–16.

Hall, J. K. (2018). From L2 interactional competence to L2 interactional repertoires: reconceptualising the objects of L2 learning. *Classroom Discourse*, *9*(1), 25–39.

Hall, J. K., & Walsh, M. (2002). Teacher-Student interaction and language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *22*, 186–203.

Haneda, M. (2014). From academic language to academic communication: Building on English learners' resources. *Linguistics and Education*, *26*(1), 126–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.01.004

Haneda, M., & Wells, G. (2008). Learning an additional language through dialogic inquiry, *Language And Education*, (*22*)2, 114–136.

Hardman, J. (2016). Opening-up classroom discourse to promote and enhance active, collaborative and cognitively-engaging student learning experiences. In: C. Goria, O. Speicher, & S. Stollhans (Eds.), *Innovative language teaching and learning at university* (pp. 5–16). Research-publishing.net.

Hardman, J. (2019) Analysing student talk moves in whole class teaching. In: N. Mercer, R. Wegerif, & L. Major, (Eds.) *The Routledge International Handbook of Research on Dialogic Education* (pp. 152–166). Routledge.

Hardman, J., & Hardman, F. (2019). Systematic observation methods. In P. Atkinson, S. Delamont, A. Cernat, J.W. Sakshaug, & R.A. Williams (Eds.). *SAGE Research Methods* (pp. 2–12). SAGE Publications Ltd.

Harper, M., & Cole, P. (2012). Member checking: Can benefits be gained similar to group therapy?. *Qualitative Report*, *17*(2), 1–8. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2012.2139

Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 Use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies*, *20*(2), 29–70.

Hauser, E. (2009). Turn-taking and primary speakership during a student discussion. In H. t. Nyugen, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Talk-in-Interaction* (pp. 215–244). Multilingual Perspectives.

Hazel, S., & Mortensen, K. (2017). The classroom moral compass–participation, engagement and transgression in classroom interaction. *Classroom Discourse*, *8*(3), 214–234. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2017.1282881

He, A. W. (2004). CA for SLA: Arguments from the Chinese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 568–582. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-19-.x

Hepburn, A. and Bolden, G. (2013). The conversation analytic approach to transcription. In J. Sidnell, & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 57–76). Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Heritage, J. G. (1984). *Garfinkel and Ethnomethodology*. Polity.

Heritage, J. (2002a). The limits of questioning: Negative interrogatives and hostile question content. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *34*(10–11), 1427–1446. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00072-3

Heritage, J. (2002b). Oh-prefaced responses to assessments: a method of modifying and agreement/disagreement. In C. Ford, B. Fox, & S. Thompson, (Eds.), *The language of turn and sequence* (pp. 196–224). Oxford University Press.

Heritage, J. (2005). Conversation analysis and institutional talk. In K. L. Fitch, & R. E. Sanders (Eds.), *Handbook of language and social interaction* (pp. 103–147). Routledge.

Heritage, J., & Clayman, S. E. (2010). *Talk in Action: Interactions, Identities and Institutions*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Heritage, J., & Raymond, G. (2012). Navigating epistemic landscapes: Acquiescence, agency and resistance in responses to polar questions. In J. P. De Ruiter (Ed.), *Questions: Formal, functional and interactional perspectives* (pp. 179–192). Cambridge University Press.

Heritage, J., & Robinson, J. D. (2011). "Some" vs "any" medical issues: Encouraging patients to reveal their unmet concerns. In C. Antaki (Ed.), *Applied conversation analysis: Changing institutional practices* (pp. 15–31). Palgrave Macmillan.

Heron, M. (2018). Dialogic stance in higher education seminars, *Language and Education, (32)*2, 112–126. 10.1080/09500782.2017.1417425

Heron, M. (2019). Pedagogic practices to support international students in seminar discussions, *Higher Education Research & Development, (38)*(2), 266–279. 10.1080/07294360.2018.1512954

Holstein, J. A., & Gubrium, J. F. (Eds.). (2003). *Inside interviewing: New lenses, new concerns.* SAGE.

Hunter, J., & Cooke, D. (2007). Through autonomy to agency : giving power to language learners. *Prospect : An Australian Journal of TESOL*, 22(2), 72–88.

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2008). *Conversation analysis: Principles, practices and applications* (2nd ed.). Polity.

Hyland, K. (2016). General and specific EAP. In K. Hyland, & S. Philip (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes* (pp. 17–29). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315657455-10

Jacknick, C. M. (2009). *A conversation-analytic account of student-initiated participation in an ESL classroom* [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. Colombia University.

Jacknick, C. M. (2011). "But this is writing": post-expansion in student-initiated sequences, *Novitas Royal, 5*(1), 39–54.

Jääskelä, P., Ville, H., Kärkkäinen, T., & Häkkinen, P. (2021). Student agency analytics: Learning analytics as a tool for analysing student agency in higher education. *Behaviour and Information Technology, 40*(8), 790-808. https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929X.2020.1725130

Jefferson, G. (1972). Side sequences. In D. N. Sudnow (Ed.), *Studies in social interaction* (pp. 294–338). Free Press.

Jefferson, G. (1981) 'Caveat speaker: A preliminary exploration of shift implicative recipiency in the articulation of topic', End of grant report to the Social Science Research Council [Great Britain]

Jefferson, G. (1993). Caveat speaker: Preliminary notes on recipient topic-shift implicature. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 26*(1), 1–30.

Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In G. Lerner (Ed.), *Conversation Analysis: Studies from first generation* (pp. 13–31). John Benjamin.

Jefferson, G., Sacks, H., & Schegloff, E. A. (1977). The preference for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation, *Language, 53*(2), 361–382.

Jenks, C. (2010). Adaptations in online voice-based chat rooms: Implications for language learning in Applied Linguistics. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *Conceptualizing "learning" in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 147–163). Palgrave Macmillan.

Jo, M., Nelson, J. E., & Kiecker, P. (1997). A model for controlling social desirability bias by direct and indirect questioning. *Marketing Letters*, *8*(4), 429–437.

Johnson, K. E. (1995). *Understanding communication in second language classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, R. T., & Johnson, D. W. (2008). Active learning: Cooperation in the classroom. *The Annual Report of Educational Psychology in Japan, 47*, 29–30.

Jones, R., & Thornborrow, J. (2004). Floors, talk and the organization of classroom activities. *Language in Society*, *33*(3), 399–423. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404505043047

Kachru, B. B. (1986). *The alchemy of English*. Pergamon Press.

Kääntä, L. (2012). Teachers' embodied allocations in instructional interaction. *Classroom Discourse*, *3*(2), 166–186. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2012.716624

Kang, S. J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, *33*(2), 277–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.10.004

Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics, 22*(4), 502–530.

Kasper, G. (2004). Participant orientations in German conversation-for-learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*(4), 551–567.

Kasper, G. (2006). Beyond repair: conversation analysis as an approach to SLA. *AILA Review, 19*, 83–99.

Kaufman, D. (2004). Constructivist issues in language learning and teaching. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *24*, 303–320. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190504000121

Kendon, A. (1990). *Conducting interaction: Patterns of behavior in focused encounters*. Cambridge University Press.

Khajavy, G. H., MacIntyre, P. D., & Barabadi, E. (2018). Role of the emotions and classroom environment in willingness to communicate. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *40*(3), 605–624. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263117000304

Khazaei, Z. M., Zadeh, A. M., & Ketabi, S. (2012). Willingness to communicate in Iranian EFL learners: The effect of class size. E*nglish Language Teaching, 5*(11), 181–187. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n11p181.

King, J. (2013). Silence in the second language classrooms of Japanese universities. *Applied Linguistics, 34*, 325–343.

Kinginger, C. (1994). Learner initiative in conversation management: An application of van Lier's pilot coding scheme. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(1), 29–40. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02012.x

Kinginger, C. (2002). Defining the zone of proximal development in US foreign language education. *Applied Linguistics*, *23*(2), 240–261. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/23.2.240

Kingston, E., & Forland, H. (2008). Bridging the gap in expectations between international students and academic staff. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *12*(2), 204–221. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315307307654

Kirkgöz, Y. (2009). Globalization and English language policy in Turkey. *Educational Policy*, *23*(5), 663–684. https://doi.org/10.1177/0895904808316319

Klemenčič, M. (2015). What is student agency? An ontological exploration in the context of research on student engagement. *Student engagement in Europe: society, higher education and student governance, 20*, 11-29.

Ko, S. (2014). The nature of multiple responses to teachers' questions. *Applied Linguistics*, *35*(1), 48–62. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt005

Koshik, I. (2002). Designedly incomplete utterances: A pedagogical practice for eliciting knowledge displays in error correction sequences. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 35,* 277–309.

Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. OUP Oxford.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Longman.

Kunitz, S. (2018). Collaborative attention work on gender agreement in Italian as a foreign language. *Modern Language Journal*, *102*, 64–81. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12458

Kunitz, S., & Marian, K. S. (2017). Tracking immanent language learning behavior over time in task-based classroom work. *TESOL Quarterly*, *51*(3), 507–535. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.389

Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Lantolf, J. P., & Pavlenko, A. (2001). (S)econd (L)anguage (A)ctivity theory: Understanding second language learners as people. In M. Breen (Ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research* (pp. 141–158). Longman.

Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2008). *Sociocultural theory and the teaching of second languages*. Equinox Publishing.

Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2015). Ten "lessons" from complex dynamic systems theory: What is on offer. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 11–19). Multilingual Matters.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2019). On language learner agency: A complex dynamic systems theory

perspective. *Modern Language Journal*, *103*, 61–79. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12536

Lee, Y. (2007). Third turn position in teacher talk: Contingency and the work of teaching. *Journal of Pragmatics, 39*, 180–206.

Lee, J. (2016). Teacher entries into second turn positions: IRFs in collaborative teaching. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *95*, 1–15.

Lee, J. (2017). Multimodal turn allocation in ESL peer group discussions. *Social Semiotics*, *27*(5), 671–692. https://doi.org/10.1080/10350330.2016.1207353

Lee, J. H. (2020). Relationships among students' perceptions of native and non-native EFL teachers' immediacy behaviours and credibility and students' willingness to communicate in class. *Oxford Review of Education*, *46*(2), 153–168. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054985.2019.1642187

Lee, I., & Mak, P. (2021). Classroom Atmosphere. *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching,* 1-7. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0217.pub2

Lerner, G. H. (1993). Collectivities in action: Establishing the relevance of conjoined participation in conversation. *Text - Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse, 13*(2), 213–246. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1993.13.2.213

Lerner, G. H. (1995). Turn design and the organization of participation in instructional activities. *Discourse Processes*, *19*(1), 111–131. https://doi.org/10.1080/01638539109544907

Lerner, G. H. (2003). Selecting next speaker: The context-sensitive operation of a context-free organization. *Language in Society*, *32*(2), 177–201. https://doi.org/10.1017/S004740450332202X

Lerner, G. H. (2004). On the place of linguistic resources in the organization of talk-in-interaction: Grammar as action in prompting a speaker to elaborate. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, *37*(2), 151–184. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327973rlsi3702_3

Li, H. (2013). Student initiatives and missed learning opportunities in an IRF sequence: A single case analysis. *L2 Journal*, *5*(2), 68–92. https://doi.org/10.5070/l25218838

Liddicoat, A. J. (2007). *An introduction to conversation analysis*. Continuum.

Lindgren, R., & McDaniel, R. (2012). Transforming online learning through narrative and student agency. *Educational Technology and Society*, *15*(4), 344–355.

Long, M. H. (1981). Input, interaction, and second-language acquisition. *Annals New York Academy of Sciences: Native Language and Foreign Language Acquisition, 379,* 259–278.

Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*(2), 126–141. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.2.126

Long, M. H. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. M. Gass, & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 377–393). Newbury House Publishers Inc.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie, & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). Academic Press.

Long, M. H. (1997). Construct validity in SLA research: A response to Firth and Wagner. *The Modern Language Journal, 81*(3), 318–323. doi:10.1111/modl.1997.81.issue-3

Long, M. H. (2020). Optimal input for language learning: Genuine, simplified, elaborated, or modified elaborated?. *Language Teaching*, *53*, 169–182. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444819000466

Lyster, R. (1998). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 20*, 51–81.

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *23*, 369–388. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263101003035

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2003). Talking in order to learn: willingness to communicate and intensive language programs. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *59*(4), 589–607. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.59.4.589

MacIntyre, P. D., Burns, C., & Jessome, A. (2011). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: A qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. *Modern Language Journal*, *95*(1), 81–96. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01141.x

MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *15*(1), 3–26.

MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in an L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal*, *82*(4), 545–562. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb05543.x

MacIntyre, P. D., & Doucette, J. (2010). Willingness to communicate and action control. *System*, *38*, 161–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.12.013

MacIntyre, P. D., & Legatto, J. J. (2011). A dynamic system approach to willingness to communicate: Developing an idiodynamic method to capture rapidly changing affect. *Applied Linguistics*, *32*, 149–171.

Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction, and second language development: An Empirical Study of Question Formation in ESL. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *21*(4), 557–587. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263199004027

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Lawrance Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2012). *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide*. Blackwell Publishing.

Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: a meta-analysis and research synthesis, In A. Mackey (Ed.) *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition* (pp. 407–452). Oxford University Press.

Maloch, B., & Beutel, D. D. (2010). "Big loud voice. You have important things to say": The nature of student Initiations during one teacher's interactive read-alouds. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *45*(2), 20–29.

Markee, N. (2000). *Conversation analysis*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Markee, N. (2004). Zones of interactional transition in ESL classes. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 583–596.

Markee, N. (2008). Toward a learning behavior tracking methodology for CA-for-SLA. *Applied*

Linguistics, *29*(3), 404–427. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm052

Markee, N. (2013). Emic and etic in qualitative research. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 404–427). Blackwell Publishing.

Markee, N. (Ed.) (2015). *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction.* Wiley Blackwell.

Markee, N., & Kasper, G. (2004). Classroom talks: An introduction. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 491–500. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-14-.x

Markee, N., & Kunitz, S. (2013). Doing planning and task performance in second language acquisition: An ethnomethodological respecification. *Language Learning*, *63*(4), 629–664. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12019

Markee, N., & Kunitz, S. (2015). CA-for-SLA studies of classroom interaction: Quo vadis?. In N. Markee (Ed.), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction* (pp. 425–439). Wiley Blackwell.

Martin, J. (2004). Self-regulated learning, social cognitive theory, and agency. *Educational Psychologist*, *39*(2), 135–145. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep3902

McAdams, D. P. (2006). *The redemptive self: Stories Americans live by*. Oxford University Press.

McCroskey, J. C., & Baer, J. E. (1985). *Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement*. Speech Communication Association.

Mchoul, A. (1978). The organization of turns at formal talk in the classroom. *Language in Society*, *7*(2), 183–213. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500005522

McNeil, L. M. (1999). *Contradictions of control: School structure and school knowledge*. Routledge.

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom*. Harvard University Press.

Mehan, H., & Griffin, P. (1980). Socialization: the view from classroom interactions. *Sociological Enquiry, 50*, 357–392.

Mercer, N., & Howe, C. (2012). Explaining the dialogic processes of teaching and learning: The value and potential of sociocultural theory. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, *1*, 12–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2012.03.001

Mercer, S. (2012). The complexity of learner agency. *Journal of Applied Language Studies*, *6*(2), 41–59. http://apples.jyu.fi

Mercer, S. (2016). The contexts within me: L2 self as a complex dynamic system. In J. King (Ed.), *The dynamic interplay between context and the language learner* (pp. 11–28). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137457134_2

Mercer, S., Ryan, S., & Williams, M. (Eds.). (2012). *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice.* Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781848608399.n9

Merke, S. (2016). Establishing the explainable in Finnish-as-a-foreign-language classroom interaction: Student-initiated explanation sequences. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, *9*, 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2016.03.002

Miller, E. R. (2014). *The language of adult immigrants: Agency in the making*. Multilingual Matters.

Mondada, L. (2013). Embodied and spatial resources for turn-taking in institutional multi-party interactions: Participatory democracy debates. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *46*(1), 39–68. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2012.03.010

Mondada, L. (2019). *Conventions for multimodal transcription*. https://www.lorenzamondada.net/multimodal-transcription

Mondada, L., & Pekarek-Doehler, S. (2004). Second language acquisition as situated practice: Task accomplishment in the French second language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 501–518. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-15-.x

Moore, T., & Morton, J. (2005). Dimensions of difference: A comparison of university writing and IELTS writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 4*(1), 43–66.

Mori, J. (2004). Negotiating sequential boundaries and learning opportunities: A case from a Japanese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 536–550. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-17-.x

Mori, J., & Markee, N. (2009). Language learning, cognition, and interactional practices: An introduction. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *47*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2009.001

Mortensen, K. (2008). Selecting next speaker in the second language classroom: How to find a willing next speaker in planned activities. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *5*(1), 55–79. https://doi.org/10.1558/japl.v5i1.55

Murphy, P. (2009). *Higher education access/foundation courses: A research report*. http://www.nuigalway.ie/access/documents/access_courses_final_report_3.pdf

Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A. (2016). Dynamics of classroom WTC: Results of a semester study. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *6*(4), 651–676. https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2016.6.4.5

Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., & Pawlak, M. (2014). Fluctuations in learners' willingness to communicate during communicative task performance: Conditions and tendencies. *Research in Language, 12*(3), 245–260. https://doi.org/10.2478/rela-2014-0019.

Nayar, P. B. (1997). ESL/EFL dichotomy today: Language politics or pragmatics?. *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(1), 9–37. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587973

Norris-holt, J. (2005). Frequency of student-initiated turns and teacher-solicited questions in junior and senior high school English classes in Japan. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 18*, 79–92.

Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity, and educational change*. Longman/Pearson Education.

Nystrand, M. (1997). *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom*. Teachers College Press.

Öz, H., Demirezen, M., & Pourfeiz, J. (2015). Willingness to communicate of EFL learners in Turkish context. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *37*, 269–275. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2014.12.009

Ozkose-Biyik, C., & Meskill, C. (2015). Plays well with others: A study of EFL learner reciprocity in action. *TESOL Quarterly*, *49*(4), 787–813. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.205

Park, Y. (2014). The roles of third-third repeats in two L2 classroom interactional contexts.

Applied Lisnguistics, 35(2), 145–167.

Parkinson, J. (2016). EAP in multilingual English-dominant contexts. In K. Hyland, & S. Philip (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes* (pp. 84–96). Routledge. https://doi-org.libproxy.york.ac.uk/10.4324/9781315657455

Pawlak, M., & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A. (2015). Investigating the dynamic nature of L2 willingness to communicate. *System*, *50*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.02.001

Pawlak, M., Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., & Bielak, J. (2016). Investigating the nature of classroom willingness to communicate (WTC): A micro-perspective. *Language Teaching Research, 20*(5), 657–671.

Pekarek-Doehler, S. (2010). Conceptual changes and methodological challenges: on language, learning and documenting learning in conversation analytic SLA research. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *Conceptualising 'learning' in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 105–27). Palgrave Macmillan.

Peng, J. E. (2014). *Willingness to communicate inside the EFL classroom and beyond: An ecological perspective*. Multilingual Matters.

Peng, J. E. (2019). Understanding willingness to communicate as embedded in classroom multimodal affordances: Evidence from interdisciplinary perspectives. *Linguistics and Education*, *51*, 59–68. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2019.04.006

Peng, J. E., & Woodrow, L. (2010). Willingness to communicate in English: A model in the Chinese EFL classroom context. *Language Learning*, *60*(4), 834–876. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00576.x

Peng, J. E., Zhang, L., & Chen, Y. (2017). The mediation of multimodal affordances on willingness to communicate in the English as a foreign language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, *51*(2), 302–331. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.298

Peräkylä, A. (2004). Conversation analysis. In C. Seale, G. Gobo, J. F. Gubrium, & D. Silverman (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice* (pp. 153–167). https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-12-369398-5/00438-2

Peräkylä, A. (1997). Validity and reliability in research based tapes and transcripts. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative analysis: Issues of Theory and Method* (pp. 201–220). Sage.

Peräkylä, A. (2008). Conversation analysis and psychoanalysis: interpretation, affect and intersubjectivity. In A. Peräkylä, C. Antaki, S. Vehviläinen, & I. Leudar (Eds.) *Conversation analysis and psychotherapy* (pp. 100–119). Cambridge University Press.

Philips, S.U. (1983) *The Invisible Culture: Communication in Classroom and Community on the Warm Springs Indian Reservation*. Longman.

Phillipson, R. (2015). English as threat or opportunity in European higher education. In S. Dimova., A. K. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education* (pp. 19–42). Mouton.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly*, *21*(4), 737–758.

Polio, C., Gass, S., & Chapin, L. (2006). Using stimulated recall to investigate native speaker perceptions in native-nonnative speaker interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *28*(2), 237–267. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263106060116

Purpura, J. E. (2004). *Assessing grammar*. Cambridge University Press.

Rainio, A. P. (2008). From resistance to involvement: Examining agency and control in a play world activity. *Mind, Culture, and Activity*, *15*(2), 115–140. https://doi.org/10.1080/10749030801970494

Raymond, G. (2011). Questions at work: Yes/No type interrogatives in institutional contexts. *Talk and Interaction in Social Research Methods*, 114–134. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849209991.n8

Reddington, E. (2018). Managing participation in the adult ESL classroom: Engagement and exit practices. *Classroom Discourse*, *9*(2), 132–149. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2018.1433051

Reinders, H., & Loewen, S. (2013). Autonomy and language learning behavior : The role of student initiation and participation in L2 classrooms. *Study in English Language Teaching*, *1*(1), 1–7.

Roller, M. R., & Lavrakas, P. J. (2015). *Applied qualitative research design: A total quality framework approach*. Guilford Publications.

Rossano, F., Brown, P., Levinson, S. C. (2009). Gaze, questioning and culture. In J. Sidnell (Ed.), *Conversation analysis: Comparative perspectives* (pp. 187–249). Cambridge University Press.

Sacks, H. (1984). On doing 'being ordinary'. In J. M. Atkinson, & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 413–429). Cambridge University Press.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & G. Jefferson. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation, *Language, 50*, 696–735.

Sahlström, F. (2002). The interactional organization of hand raising in classroom interaction. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *37*(2), 47–57.

Saldaña, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1108/qrom-08-2016-1408

Sanders, L., & Daly, A. (2013). Building a successful foundation? The role of Foundation Year courses in preparing students for their degree. *Widening Participation and Lifelong Learning*, *14*(1), 42–56. https://doi.org/10.5456/wpll.14.s.42

Schegloff, E. A. (1973). Turn organization: one intersection of grammar and interaction. In E. Ochs, E. A. Schegloff, & S. A. Thompson (Eds.), *Interaction and grammar* (pp. 52–133). Cambridge University Press.

Schegloff, E. A. (1981). Discourse as an interactional achievement: Some uses of "Uh huh" and other things that come between sentences. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Analysing discourse: Text and talk* (pp. 71–93). Georgetown University Press.

Schegloff, E. A. (1991). Conversation analysis and socially shared cognition. In L. B. Resnick, J. M. Levine, & S. D. Teasley (Eds.), *Perspectives on socially shared cognition* (pp. 150–171). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10096-007

Schegloff, E. A. (1992). Repair after next turn: The last structurally provided Defense of intersubjectivity in conversation. *American Journal of Sociology*, *97*(5), 1295–1345. https://doi.org/10.1086/229903

Schegloff, E. A. (1998). Body torque. *Social Research*, *65*(3), 535–586.

Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction*. Cambridge University Press.

Schegloff, E. A. (2010). Some other "Uh(m)"s. *Discourse Processes*, *47*, 130–174.

Schultz, K. (2009). *Rethinking classroom participation: Listening to silent voices*. Teachers College Press.

Schwab, G. (2011). From dialogue to multilogue: a different view on participation in the English foreign-language classroom. *Classroom Discourse, 2* (1), 3–19.

Schwandt, T. A. (2003). Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructionism. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 292–331). Sage.

Seedhouse, P. (1996). Classroom interaction: possibilities and impossibilities. *ELT Journal*, *50*(1), 16–24. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/50.1.16

Seedhouse, P. (1999). The relationship between context and the organization of repair in the L2 classroom. *IRAL*, *37*, 59–80.

Seedhouse, P. (2004a). Different perspectives on language classroom interaction. *Language Learning*, *54*(1), 55–100. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00269.x

Seedhouse, P. (2004b). The organization of language classroom interaction. *Language Learning Journal*, *54*, 181–222. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00272.x

Seedhouse, P. (2004c). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Blackwell.

Seedhouse, P. (2005). Conversation analysis and language learning. *Language Teaching*, *38*(4), 165–187. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444805003010

Seedhouse, P. (2009). The interactional architecture of the language classroom. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, *1*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.5565/rev/jtl3.32

Seedhouse, P. (2013). Conversation analysis. In R. Bayley, R. Cameron, & C. Lucas (Eds.) *The Oxford handbook of sociolinguistics* (pp. 91-110). Oxford University Press.

Seedhouse, P., & Walsh, S. (2010). Learning a second language through classroom interaction. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *Conceptualising 'learning' in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 127–146). Palgrave Macmillan.

Sert, O. (2013). 'Epistemic status check' as an interactional phenomenon in instructed learning settings. *Journal of Pragmatics, 45*, 13–28.

Sert, O. (2015). *Social interaction and L2 classroom discourse*. Edinburgh University Press.

Sert, O. (2017). Creating opportunities for L2 learning in a prediction activity. *System*, *70*, 14–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.08.008

Sert, O. (2021). Transforming CA findings into future L2 teaching practices: Challenges and prospects for teacher education. In S. Kunitz, N. Markee, & O. Sert (Eds.) *Classroom-based conversation analysis research* (pp. 259–279). Springer International Publishing.

Sert, O., & Walsh, S. (2013). The interactional management of claims of insufficient knowledge in English language classrooms. *Language and Education, 27*(6), 542–565.

Shepherd, M. A. (2012). A quantitative discourse analysis of student-initiated checks of understanding during teacher-fronted lessons. *Linguistics and Education*, *23*(1), 145–159.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2011.09.003

Sidnell, J. (2010). *Conversation analysis: An introduction*. John Wiley and Sons

Silverman, D. (2001). *Interpreting qualitative data* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Simsek, E., & Dörnyei, Z. (2017). Anxiety and L2 self-images: The "anxious self". In C. Gkonou, M. Daubney, & J.-M. Dewaele (Eds.), *New insights into language anxiety: Theory, research and educational implications* (pp. 51–69). Multilingual Matters.

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: the English used by teachers and pupils*. Oxford University Press.

Sloan, D., & Porter, E. (2009). The management of English language support in postgraduate business education: the CEM model (contextualisation, embedding and mapping). *International Journal of Management Education*, *7*(2), 51–58.

Sloan, D., & Porter, E. (2010). Changing international student and business staff perceptions of in-sessional EAP: using the CEM model. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *9*(3), 198–210. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.03.001

St. John, O., & Cromdal, J. (2016). Crafting instructions collaboratively: Student questions and dual addressivity in classroom task instructions. *Discourse Processes*, *53*(4), 252–279. https://doi.org/10.1080/0163853X.2015.1038128

Stevick, E. W. (1980). *Teaching languages: A way and ways*. Newbury House.

Stivers, T. (2001). Negotiating who presents the problem: Next speaker selection in pediatric encounters. *Journal of Communication*, *51*(2), 252–282. https://doi.org/10.1093/joc/51.2.252

Stivers, T., & Robinson, J. D. (2006). A preference for progressivity in interaction. *Language in Society*, *35*(3), 367–392. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404506060179

Stivers, T., & Sidnell, J. (2013). Introduction. In J. Sidnell, & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 1–8). Wiley Blackwell.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. M. Gass, & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235–253). Newbury House Publishers Inc.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook, & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honour of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 125–144). Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (2000). French immersion research in Canada: Recent contributions to SLA and Applied Linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *20*, 199–212.

Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471–483). Routledge.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *16*(3), 371–391. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/16.3.371

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: Two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*, 285–304.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2013). A Vygotskian sociocultural perspective on immersion education: The L1/L2 debate. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, *1*(1), 101–

129. https://doi.org/10.1075/jicb.1.1.05swa

Swain, M., Lapkin, S., Knouzi, I., Suzuki, W., & Brooks, L. (2009). Languaging: University students learn the grammatical concept of voice in French. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(1), 5–29.

Syed, H. A. S. (2016). *Dynamics of variables underlying Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in English (L2): A case study of postgraduate business students at a university classroom in Sukkur, Pakistan* [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. University of York.

Syed, H. A. S., & Kuzborska, I. (2018). Dynamics of factors underlying willingness to communicate in a second language. *Language Learning Journal*, 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2018.1435709

Syed, H. A. S., & Kuzborska, I. (2019). Understanding the nature of variations in postgraduate learners' willingness to communicate in English. *Cogent Education*, *6*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1606487

Takahashi, J., (2018). Practices of self-selection in the graduate classroom: Extension, redirection, and disjunction. *Linguistics and Education*, *46*, 70–81. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2018.06.002

Takeuchi, M. (2015). The situated multiliteracies approach to classroom participation: English language learners' participation in classroom mathematics practices. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, *14*(3), 159–178. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2015.1041341

ten Have, P. (2001). Applied conversation analysis. In A. McHoul, & M. Rapley (Eds.), *How to analyse talk in institutional settings: A casebook of methods* (pp. 3–11). A&C Black.

ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing conversation analysis: A practical guide*. Sage Publications.

Tharpe, R., & Gallimore, R. (1988). *Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context*. Cambridge University Press.

The British Sociological Association. (2002). *Statement of ethical practice for the British Sociological Association*. http://www.sociology.org.uk/as4bsoce.pdf

The British Sociological Association. (2017). *BSA statement of ethical practice*. BSA Publications.

Thorpe, A., Snell, M., Davey-Evans, S., & Talman, R. (2017). Improving the academic performance of non-native English-speaking students: the contribution of pre-sessional English language programmes. *Higher Education Quarterly*, *71*(1), 5–32. https://doi.org/10.1111/hequ.12109

van Compernolle, R. A. (2010). Incidental microgenetic development in second-language teacher-learner talk-in-interaction. *Classroom Discourse*, *1*(1), 66–81. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463011003750608

van Compernolle, R. A., & Williams, L. (2013). Group dynamics in the language classroom: embodied participation as active reception in the collective Zone of Proximal Development. *Classroom Discourse*, *4*(1), 42–62. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2013.779284

van Lier, L. (1988). *The classroom and the language learner: Ethnography and second-language classroom research*. Longman.

van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy, and authenticity*. Longman.

van Lier, L. (2000). Constraints and resources in classroom talk: Issues in equality and symmetry. In C. N. Candlin, & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context: A reader* (pp. 90–107). Routledge.

van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology & semiotics of language learning*. Kluwer.

van Lier, L. (2008). Agency in the classroom. In J. P. Lantolf, & M. E. Poehner (Eds.), *Sociocultural theory and the teaching of second languages* (pp. 163–86). Equinox.

van Lier, L. (2010). The ecology of language learning: Practice to theory, theory to practice. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *3*(1), 2–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.005

Varonis, E., & Gass, S. M. (1985a). Miscommunication in native/nonnative conversation. *Language in Society*, *14*, 327–343.

Varonis, E. M., & Gass, S. (1985b). Non-native/non-native conversations: A model for negotiation of meaning. *Applied Linguistics*, *6*(1), 71–90. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/6.1.71

Vitanova, G., Miller, E. R., Gao, X. (Andy), & Deters, P. (2015). Introduction to theorizing and analysing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches. In P. Deters, X. (Andy) Gao, E. R. Miller, & G. Vitanova (Eds.), *Theorizing and analysing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary Approaches* (pp. 1–13). Multilingual Matters.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*. MIT Press. (Original work published 1934)

Walker, G. (2012). Coordination and interpretation of vocal and visible resources: "Trail-off" conjunctions. *Language and Speech, 55*, 141–163. doi:10.1177/0023830911428858

Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, *6*(1), 3–23. https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168802lr095oa

Walsh, S. (2003). Developing interactional awareness in the second language classroom through teacher self-evaluation. *Language Awareness*, *12*(2), 124–142.

Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. Routledge.

Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. Routledge.

Walsh, S. (2012). Conceptualising classroom interactional competence. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 6*(1), 1–14. http://www.novitasroyal.org/Vol_6_1/ Walsh.pdf.

Walsh, S. (2013). *Classroom discourse and teacher development*. Edinburgh University Press.

Walsh, S., & Li, L. (2013). Conversations as space for learning. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 23*(2), 247–266.

Waring, H. Z. (2008). Using explicit positive assessment in the language classroom: IRF, feedback, and learning opportunities. *Modern Language Journal*, *92*(4), 577–594. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00788.x

Waring, H. Z. (2009). Moving out of IRF (initiation-response-feedback): A single case analysis. *Language Learning*, *59*(4), 796–824. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00526.x

Waring, H. Z. (2011). Learner initiatives and learning opportunities in the language classroom. *Classroom Discourse*, *2*(2), 201–218. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2011.614053

Waring, H. Z. (2013a). Managing competing voices in the second language classroom. *Language Education, 26*(5), 316–338.

Waring, H. Z. (2013b). Managing Stacy: A case study of turn-taking in the language classroom. *System*, *41*(3), 841–851. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.08.007

Waring, H. Z., Reddington, E., & Tadic, N. (2016). Responding artfully to student-initiated departures in the adult ESL classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, *33*, 28–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2015.12.001

Watanabe, Y., & Swain, M. (2007). Effects of proficiency differences and patterns of pair interaction on second language learning: Collaborative dialogue between adult ESL learners. *Language Teaching Research*, *11*(2), 121–142. https://doi.org/10.1177/136216880607074599

Weaver, C. (2005). Using the Rasch model to develop a measure of second language learners of willingness to communicate within a language classroom. *Journal of Applied Measurement*, *6*(4), 396–415.

Wells, G. (1993). Reevaluating the IRF sequence: A proposal for the articulation of theories of activity and discourse for the analysis of teaching and learning in the classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, *5*(1), 1–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0898-5898(05)80001-4

Wells, G. (1998). Using L1 to master L2: A response to Antón & DiCamilla's 'Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom.' *Canadian Modern Language Review, 54,* 343–353.

Wen, W. P., & Clément, R. (2003). A chinese conceptualisation of willingness to communicate in ESL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *16*(1), 18–38. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310308666654

White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The input hypothesis and the development of second-language competence. *Applied Linguistics*, *8*(2), 95–110. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/8.2.95

Wood, D. (2016). Willingness to communicate and second language speech fluency: An idiodynamic investigation. *System*, *60*, 11–28. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.05.003

Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *RELC Journal*, *37*(3), 308–328. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206071315

Wooffitt, R. (2005). *Conversation analysis and discourse analysis: A comparative and critical introduction*. SAGE Publications.

Woolfolk, A. E., Winne, P. H., & Perry, N. E. (2000). *Educational psychology*. Allyn and Bacon

Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal*, *86*(1), 54–66. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00136

Yashima, T., Ikeda, M., & Nakahira, S. (2016). Talk and silence in an EFL classroom: Interplay of learners and context. In J. King (Ed.), *The dynamic interplay between context and the language learner* (pp. 104–126). Palgrave Macmillan.

Yashima, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Ikeda, M. (2018). Situated willingness to communicate in an L2: Interplay of individual characteristics and context. *Language Teaching Research*, *22*(1),

115–137.

Yilmaz, K. (2008). Constructivism: Its theoretical underpinnings, variations, and implications for classroom instruction. *Educational Horizons*, *86*(3), 161–172.

Young, R. F., & Miller, E. R. (2004). Learning as changing participation: Discourse roles in ESL writing conferences. *Modern Language Journal*, *88*, 519–535.

Zerey, M. Ö., & Cephe, P. T. (2020). An investigation into the relationship between willingness to communicate and classroom environment in a Turkish EFL context. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *16*(2), 896–911.

Ziegler, G., Sert, O., & Durus, N. (2012). Student-initiated use of multilingual resources in English-language classroom interaction: next-turn management. *Classroom Discourse*, *3*(2), 187–204.