

**'Doing language teaching' in the adult ESOL classroom: collaborative  
shaping of the target language**

**Emma Greenhalgh**

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## **Abstract**

The teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages [ESOL] is a profession with a truly global reach. One of its defining and unusual characteristics is the dual role that language plays, as both the goal (the product) and the means to reach that goal (the process); this creates a specialised form of pedagogical interaction that justifies further investigation (Seedhouse, 2004). Additionally, the acquisition of a language (first or second) requires the development of both accuracy and fluency in the target language, which is reflected in the teaching contexts in the L2 classroom.

Previous CA studies (e.g. Seedhouse, 2004; Waring, 2016) have demonstrated how talk is a collaborative endeavour, co-constructed by participants, and shaped by the context in which it is taking place. This study builds on this previous research by presenting a detailed analysis of the activities and practices that L2 teachers employ in the development and shaping of the target language in differing pedagogical contexts: form-focused and fluency-focused; with a particular focus on the meaning-and-fluency context that had received less attention in previous studies (Gardner, 2019). Furthermore, this study unpacks the practices that ESOL teachers employ to synthesise pedagogical contexts and/or create hybrid contexts.

This study utilises Conversation Analysis [CA] to investigate talk in the institutional setting of the ESOL classroom. The data comprise approximately 14 hours of video and audio recordings. The findings of this study detail the actions and practices adopted by ESOL teachers, as they respond contingently to the contributions of their learners, in turn shaping the development of the target language. By presenting the data, its analysis and findings, this study adds to our understanding of ESOL teachers' skilful and complex practices in the classroom, particularly in synthesised or hybrid contexts, thus providing more opportunities for the sharing of best practice.

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## **List of Abbreviations**

Abbreviations used in this study are expanded below:

CA: Conversation Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESL – US term)

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

NS: native speaker

NNS: non-native speaker

FLA: First Language Acquisition (CLA: Child Language Acquisition)

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

CF: corrective feedback

# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 Setting the scene

This thesis presents an investigation of Second Language [L2] classroom talk, specifically L2 teachers' actions and practices in the teaching of general English as a second (or additional) language [ESOL] to adult students, focusing on the teachers' response turns to student contributions in a range of teaching contexts from the more formal to the more conversational, including synthesised and/or hybrid contexts.

The language learners in this study are adults who are learning English (as an L2 or additional language) in group classes at either a Further Education college or a private language college located in two cities in the North of England in the UK. A distinction is made in the L2 literature (e.g. Carter & Nunan, 2001; Mayo & Milla, 2021) between learners acquiring a foreign language while living in their home country, referred to as English as a Foreign Language [EFL], and those, like the participants in this study, acquiring the language of their resident or host country, referred to as English as a Second Language [ESL] or English for Speakers of Other Languages [ESOL]<sup>1</sup>. The L2 teaching context in this study fits the ESL/ESOL definition and the term ESOL, which is more commonly applied in the UK, along with L2 in a more general sense are adopted throughout the thesis.

My own interest in the analysis of interaction in this context stems from a long career in L2 teaching of English. First, teaching EFL and ESP (English for Specific Purposes) in Lisbon, Portugal for 10 years, including 5 years at the British Council, and the teaching of EAP (English for Academic Purposes) at various universities in the UK over the last 12 years. Through this professional experience, the complexity and skill involved in successfully 'doing language

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<sup>1</sup> Other contexts for learning English as a Second Language that are less relevant to this study, include English as an Additional Language [EAL], applied to school children who speak a different language at home and are learning English at school and English for Specific Purposes [ESP] which encapsulates various academic or professional learning contexts, e.g. English for Academic Purposes [EAP].

teaching' became apparent (e.g. Waring, 2013, 2014; Wright, 2005), thus inspiring this in-depth study into L2 teaching actions and practices. Moreover, Widdowson (1990) posited that 'language teaching can be seen as a principled problem-solving activity: a kind of operational research which works out solutions to its own local problems' (p.7), indicating the complex nature of the decision making happening spontaneously in the classroom and evidenced in L2 teacher talk.

In L2 teaching, there is general agreement on the benefits of using the L2 or target language for the majority of classroom talk (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002), with the resulting distinct set-up, as highlighted by Seedhouse (2004), that the goal of the interaction (proficiency in the L2) and the method to attain that goal (interacting in the L2) overlap to create a specialised form of interaction that warrants further investigation. An example of this distinction is when a L2 teacher may opt to correct a language error in a 'target language' utterance (e.g. a grammar point that has been set as one of the lesson's aims) yet may let a similar error pass when it constitutes part of a social communicative element of talk, in other words non-target (e.g. talking about what happened at the weekend). Therefore, a characteristic of learning a language that should be fundamental to investigations of talk in the language classroom is the distinction between teaching practices that aim to improve L2 learners' accuracy on the one hand and alternative practices that focus on fluency on the other, which affect the design of any corrective feedback. Kasper (1985) made the distinction between 'language-centered' and 'content-centered' teaching and its accompanying practices, which is also reflected in Seedhouse's (2004) useful distinction between 'form-and-accuracy' and 'meaning-and-fluency'<sup>2</sup> contexts in the L2 classroom. What is also apparent, and investigated in this study, is that in contingently responding to the complexities of the classroom dynamics, the ESOL teacher may devise 'synthesised' contexts (Seedhouse, 1996) or 'hybrid' contexts (Greenhalgh & Wilkinson, 2018) of interaction that combine previously identified L2 teaching contexts, as well as everyday

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<sup>2</sup> Seedhouse (2004) categorised four contexts: form-and-accuracy, meaning-and-fluency, task-oriented and procedural. For the purposes of this study only the first two have been deemed relevant as will be justified in the Literature Review Chapter 2.

conversational talk. For example, a ‘form-and-accuracy’ context may include side sequences of ‘meaning-and-fluency’ talk or a hybrid ‘storytelling’ context may be set up that combines a ‘meaning-and-fluency’ context with everyday storytelling talk as will be analysed in this thesis.

## 1.2 Research overview

Since the 1960s, classroom discourse has been extensively researched, producing key findings on aspects of student and teacher behaviour that are viewed as optimizing learning outcomes (e.g. Chaudron, 1988). For example, Lyster, et al.’s (2012) review of classroom and laboratory studies into which type of teacher feedback move proved the most effective in terms of L2 acquisition produced a complex set of concluding comments that will be reviewed in Chapter 2. As highlighted by Seedhouse (2022), a fundamental conundrum persists in interactional research as to how the mental process of learning can be analysed through talk-in-interaction, as commensurate with the approach of Conversation Analysis [CA], which will be reviewed/discussed in Chapter 3. Meanwhile, in echoing Strobelberger’s (2012) argument that the fundamental influence of classroom talk on classroom learning leads to the assertion that analysis to unpack its characteristic features is a worthwhile task, and one whose findings can be used to suggest improvements to L2 teaching; this study’s focus is on the key interactional actions and practices that L2 teachers’ employ in a bid to positively affect and/or facilitate learning.

CA, which Leydon and Barnes (2020) posit can usefully be considered both a theory and a method, has been adopted as the methodology for this study due to its emic approach<sup>3</sup> and fine-grained analysis of turns-at-talk that permit the unpacking of potentially previously unidentified phenomena, as well as the well-developed tradition of research (e.g. Clift, 2016; Hutchby &

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<sup>3</sup> An ‘emic’ approach to research essentially takes an insider’s perspective. Please refer to the Methodology chapter for definition and discussion on the emic approach as applied to CA.

Wooffitt, 2008; Schegloff, 2007; Sidnell, 2010). As posited by Sacks during one of his early lectures:

‘It is possible that detailed study of small phenomena may give an enormous understanding of the ways humans do things and the kinds of objects they use to construct and order their affairs.’ (1984, p. 24).

While there is a common insistency on the use of naturally occurring data, a distinction is made between CA investigations of talk-in-interaction in institutional and non-institutional contexts (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage & Clayman, 2010). By analysing talk in the language classroom, this thesis draws upon the central tenet that ‘it is within these local sequences of talk, and only there, that these institutions are ultimately and accountably talked into being’ (Heritage, 1984a, p290). Therefore, it is the talk-in-interaction in the institutional setting, in this case the language classroom, that permits an observer to peel back the layers that make up ‘doing the business’ of that particular context and its institutional goals (Schegloff, 1987a, p.207), in this case of ESOL teaching and its distinct pedagogical contexts.

Bearing in mind that ESOL teaching in the UK (despite its similarities to ESL teaching in the US) is an under-researched area in the arena of CA and L2 teaching (e.g. Tai, & Khabbazzbashi, 2019) and one that I was familiar with through personal professional experience, I was keen to collect data from this setting. Data used in the analysis are taken from approximately 14 hours of video and audio recordings of ESOL lessons in two settings: a Further Education college and a private language college. The recordings were made between April and June 2016. There are five teachers in the dataset and approximately 50 students in total across the different classes. While I was clear in my overall aim to explore the complexity of L2 teacher talk that I had witnessed and experienced in my teaching practice, I was also keen to adopt what Psathas (1995) coined 'unmotivated looking' to allow the observation of phenomena to arise from an initial analysis of the data. Following this initial scan, interesting or striking phenomena were organized into collections and the analysis continued. As I was committed to unpacking the professional/pedagogical ‘doing’ of L2 teaching, I focused on the teacher moves in the

interaction and how they appeared to support production and development in the target language. The results of this focus can be seen in the layout of the analysis section and the resulting discussion.

### **1.3. Objectives and relevance of the study**

This study contributes to general knowledge of L2 teacher actions and practices in the adult ESOL classroom. While there exists a substantial body of applied linguistic research into pedagogical practices in the L2 classroom, the majority have taken a psycholinguistic or cognitive view of what is commonly referred to as Second Language Acquisition [SLA] (Gardner, 2019). This study takes up the mantle posited by Firth and Wagner (1997; 2007) that L2 teaching and learning should be equally viewed as a social and contextualized phenomenon, thus adding to key CA research in this area (e.g. Markee, 2000; Seedhouse, 1997b; 2004; Waring, 2018). Furthermore, Ellis (2017) has highlighted the division between attitudes and recommendations in teacher guidebooks and current research into effective corrective feedback practices, claiming that research is failing to properly inform what actually happens in the classroom. This study's research design enables the unpacking and detailing of what L2 teachers actually do in the classroom, i.e. the *doing* of L2 teaching, thus enabling, while also contributing to, a debate on best practice.

In terms of particular phenomena, this study adds to knowledge of L2 teacher practices in correction sequences (in third-turn and extended third-turn sequences); L2 teacher shaping of fluency tasks and the facilitation of *spontaneous* fluency talk through contingent and collaborative correction practices, as reflected in the research questions listed below. Moreover, this study adds to knowledge on IRE sequences in the L2 classroom by the inclusion of extended sequences in the analysis, as called for by Hall (2019). In addition, the complex nature of L2 teaching talk is unpacked through an orientation to actions and practices present in the ESOL teachers' contingent responsiveness to the students' contributions. Waring (2016) refers to this



phenomenon of ‘the differing and competing ‘voices’ that a L2 teacher frequently manages simultaneously as ‘multivocality’. For example, an L2 teacher is often simultaneously engaged in maintaining control, engaging with pedagogical goals, promoting learner participation, building rapport and establishing connections, hence demonstrating the complexity of *doing* L2 teaching. Waring (2016) claims that the reality of 'doing teaching' can be observed as 'responding to a series of emerging moments rather than implementing a prepackaged plan' (p.148). This highlights the notion of contingency in L2 teaching that results in L2 teachers needing to regularly design and redesign their turns to simultaneously align and affiliate with the learners’ responses. In addition to this, L2 teachers are engaged in the management of pedagogical contexts, e.g. form-and-accuracy and meaning-and-fluency contexts or they may invoke a hybrid context where storytelling is observed that reflects both everyday conversational and classroom talk.

The overarching aims of the thesis are to identify the actions and practices of ‘doing ESOL teaching’ in the ESOL classroom and to observe how ESOL teachers shape development in the target language through contingent and collaborative practices that may engender synthesised and/or hybrid contexts. With the resulting central argument posited that ‘Teachers respond to the contingencies of ESOL classroom interaction by employing a wide range of interactional techniques; in some cases this includes teachers devising 'hybrid contexts’.

With the following research questions for each of the analysis chapters:

Chapter 4: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers use to shape the accurate production of the target language in form-and-accuracy pedagogical contexts?

Chapter 5: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ in shaping fluent production in the L2 in meaning-and-accuracy pedagogical contexts?

Chapter 6: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ to support learner storytelling in a hybrid pedagogical context?

## **1.4 Organisation of the thesis**

In this chapter, the background to the research and its findings of the study have been outlined. These will be expanded on in the subsequent chapters. In this, the final section of this chapter the organisation of the thesis will be outlined.

Chapter 2 situates the study in terms of relevant literature and is divided into two main sections. The first explores the literature on L2 teaching and SLA from a non-CA perspective. The second covers the literature on L2 teaching from a CA perspective. An overview of key texts is provided which is followed by a detailed commentary on the literature on key phenomena that are explored in this study.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the CA methodology, as applied to the analysis in this study, and the methodological process of analysis. Further it provides information regarding the data collection process including ethical considerations, transcription and analysis.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 comprise the empirical findings of the analysis. Chapter 4 focuses on form-and-accuracy type teaching and the IRE sequences that are predominant in this type of formal language teaching (Seedhouse, 2004). Findings related to third turn teacher evaluations will be unpacked and explored alongside the use of correction prompting sequences. In chapters 5 and 6, the focus changes to meaning-and-fluency type teaching contexts with the resulting pedagogical and interactional shift from an emphasis on accuracy to fluency. Chapter 5 is focused on meaning-and-fluency contexts in general with a particular focus on teacher repair and formulation practices in fluency-developing instructional sequences. Moreover, the ESOL teachers' skilful interactional work in talking different pedagogical contexts in and out of being is unpacked that leads to a consideration of synthesising of contexts can be effectively managed in the L2 classroom. In Chapter 6, attention is turned to one type of extended response, storytelling, that appears to constitute a hybrid context between meaning-and-fluency and the

everyday conversation. The analysis aims to unpack the teachers' behaviours in eliciting and supporting the student tellings, as well as considering similarities and differences to storytelling in everyday conversation

In Chapter 7 the salient features of the study will be drawn together for discussion, findings concluded and any future research/applications to practice suggested.

## Chapter 2: Literature review

### 2.1 Introduction

This thesis is based on the premise that interaction plays a vital role in L2 learning and teaching (e.g. Wong & Waring, 2008). As L2 teachers effectively ‘teach discourse through discourse with [their] learners’ (Walsh, 2011, p.19), it is advantageous to understand how talk facilitates the activities of the language classroom. Therefore, it is the inherent behaviours and practices underpinning L2 teaching and classroom interaction that will be explored in depth in this study from a CA perspective. The literature review aims to provide the background context for analysis into the *doing* of adult ESOL teaching, concerning how the teachers design their turns and sequences to improve accuracy, facilitate participation and encourage fluency in the L2.

The literature review chapter, which is necessarily selective, provides an overview of the current literature on L2 teaching, both from a non-CA and CA perspective, as apposite in terms of providing context for the analysis of the data. The literature review is organized into two sections. The first provides an overview of the L2 / SLA literature on classroom interaction, including the specific context of L2 teaching to adult students. The second section develops the review of L2 teaching practices through the lens of Conversation Analysis, focusing on key phenomena as relevant to the analysis on teacher responses to student utterances. Due to its specialised nature, the literature review on storytelling in the L2 classroom is located at the start of Chapter 6.

## **2.2 L2 classroom discourse (non-CA)**

In terms of formal teaching of an L2, some of the earliest records date back to the teaching of Latin or Greek as ‘lingua francas’ in medieval Europe, much like the position that English holds globally today (Musumeci, 2011). The systematic study of L2 teaching and SLA are more recent phenomena, with classroom observational studies first coming into prominence in the 1970s (e.g. Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), which coincided with a rise in the functional approach in linguistics and the emergence of sociological studies into how ordinary conversation was constructed (e.g. Sacks et al., 1974). While SLA and L2 classroom discourse research has benefitted from multi-disciplinary influences, including applied linguistics, psychology, education, and sociology (Ellis, 2015; Tsui, 1995), a bias has been noted towards cognitive rather than interactional studies (Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007; Gardner, 2019), which this study also serves to readdress.

This section begins with a summary of relevant SLA theories that have influenced L2 teaching methodologies and approaches, thus helping to explain what happens interactionally in the classroom. Secondly, an overview of the literature on general classroom discourse from an applied linguistic and interactional perspective is provided as a background to CA studies in classroom talk. Lastly, an overview of the literature on L2 classroom discourse provides a background for and supplements the review of CA-L2 studies in the following section.

### **2.2.1 SLA theories and L2 teaching approaches**

Over the last 70 years, L2 teaching methodology has been influenced by theories of First (or Child) Language Acquisition (FLA), which have commonly been categorised into four fundamental approaches: behaviourist, innatist, cognitive and interactionist/sociocultural (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). While it may appear obvious to note the essential differences in learning a first language from a second (or subsequent) language as an adult, particularly that the critical period of language acquisition will have passed (Clark, 2016), many FLA theories

have proved unyielding in shaping SLA theories and approaches to L2 teaching. An example of this being Krashen's (1982) 'monitor model', which was developed in the 1970s from innatist theory, and is still highly influential in EFL teaching today (Lichtman & VanPatten, 2021). Meanwhile, others have sought to distinguish SLA, and particularly adult L2 learners, by defining their characteristics and suggesting relevant approaches to L2 teaching. For example, Sanz (2005) noted that adult L2 acquisition takes place after cognitive development is basically complete; therefore, adult language learners need to make the most of their cognitive resources in order to compensate for the resulting limitations, both external and internal. Meanwhile, Segalowitz (2003) suggested that one approach to SLA is to view it as a type of complex-skill acquisition, similar to driving a car or becoming adept at mathematical equations. This element of skills-training is perhaps a useful way to distinguish language teaching from the more usual 'content' based teaching, e.g. the teaching of history, and may be a practical descriptor for the type of communication that takes place in an L2 classroom, i.e. that is focused on building skills or 'communicative competence' in the target language (Scarcella et al., 1990).

Interactionist and sociocultural theories of language acquisition are those most closely aligned with the CA methodology adopted in this study. Similar to Krashen's 'monitor model', Long (1983) emphasised that input must be 'comprehensible', but he was also concerned with how the input is made comprehensible (i.e. how it is modified). He posited that L1 speakers commonly modify their speech (e.g. use 'foreigner talk' – as discussed further in section 2.2.4) and that this aids SLA. In an experimental setting where native speakers [NS] and non-native speakers [NNS]<sup>4</sup> were asked to perform several communicative tasks, some pedagogical (e.g. giving instructions) and some conversational, Long (1983) identified fifteen devices of modification that he split into three groups: strategies for avoiding trouble, tactics for repairing trouble and those that were a combination of the first two (see Table 1).

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<sup>4</sup> It is common in the literature to see L1 speakers referred to as native speakers [NS] and L2 as non-native speakers [NNS]. While I acknowledge the potentially problematic background to these terms, this thesis is not the place to have that discussion. I have therefore used NS/L1 and NNS/L2 interchangeably.

**Table 1***Devices used by native speakers to modify the interactional structure of NS-NNS conversation*

Strategies (S) (for avoiding trouble)	Tactics (T) (for repairing trouble)
S1 Relinquish topic-control	T1 Accept unintentional topic-switch
S2 Select salient topics	T2 Request clarification
S3 Treat topics briefly	T3 Confirm own comprehension
S4 Make new topics salient	T4 Tolerate ambiguity
S5 Check NNS's comprehension	
Strategies and Tactics (ST) (for avoiding and repairing trouble)	
ST1 Use slow pace	ST4 Decompose topic-comment constructions
ST2 Stress key words	ST5 Repeat own utterances
ST3 Pause before key words	ST6 Repeat other's utterances

Note. Adapted from a table produced by Long (1983, p.132)

This list has several similarities to phenomena identified in more recent CA studies, e.g. Kurilha's (2006) highlighting of candidate understandings mirrors 'T3 Confirm own comprehension' and Firth's (1996) 'let it pass' can be seen to echo 'T4 Tolerate ambiguity'. Despite its applicability being limited by its experimental methodology, this list provides a useful overview of how NS speakers may adapt their talk with NNS, which will be supplemented further in this review by literature on L2 teacher's talk in the classroom.

Meanwhile, Vygotsky's sociocultural theories, that purport that all cognitive development is the result of social interaction, have had a significant impact on more recent SLA approaches and methodologies. Key to Vygotskian approaches is the notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD): that which is just beyond the learner's current ability level and which would be achievable with assistance from an expert (Newman & Latifi, 2021), or in SLA terms from an 'advanced interlocuter' (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p.44). For the analysis of this study, the notion of scaffolding that describes how teachers design their actions to provide support while also activating the ZPD is particularly useful (Koole & Elbers, 2014). For example, following an incorrect response from a student, teachers can 'scaffold' their prompt to provide an

appropriate level of support for the student to be able to then answer correctly. By extending Vygotsky's focus on the individual child, Lave and Wenger (1993) examined development within groups or 'communities of practice'. They emphasised the importance of being able to play participatory roles or engaging in 'legitimate peripheral performance' that allows the participant to move from the periphery, as their skills develop, to ultimately becoming a full participant in the community of practice (in the case of language learning, in the L2 itself). While not directly relevant to SLA, Lave and Wenger's community of practice model provides a social critique that can be useful for understanding the complex sociocultural processes that affect groups of L2 learners, e.g. adult refugees, who have a particular concern for being accepted into a speech community (Watson-Gegeo & Nielsen, 2003), which is a profile shared by some participants in my dataset.

With its roots in interactionist and cognitive approaches, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in the 1970s, primarily as an alternative to audiolingual and structure-based approaches (Nunan, 1991). Marking a major paradigm shift in L2 teaching, it was widely adopted in the 1980s and remains the most influential approach in L2 teaching today. Unlike traditional teaching approaches, CLT is rooted in a shift 'from emphasis on form to emphasis on communication' (Cook, 2003, p. 36). This in turn liberated interactional practices in the L2 classroom and placed an emphasis on achieving natural conversation; despite the fact that some (e.g. Seedhouse, 2004) would claim this was an impossible goal due to the institutional constraints inherent in classroom talk. In attempting to move the focus from accuracy in the target language to incorporate fluency, many theorists view CLT as a more balanced approach to L2 teaching that reflects the kind of SLA that happens 'in the wild' (i.e. outside the language classroom). For example, one purported advantage of NS and NNS talk in everyday conversation is that the NNS regularly engages in 'negotiation of meaning' (Tsui, 1995), which it has been argued helps to speed up SLA (Long, 1983). By incorporating more conversational type interaction into the classroom, as with CLT, greater opportunities for negotiating of meaning may occur which it is argued has a positive effect on SLA. A central theoretical concept in CLT is 'communicative competence' (Walsh, 2005) with a resulting preference for Task-based



Learning (TBL) that developed concurrently to the functional work-based learning approach to pedagogy in adult education (Scruton, & Ferguson, 2014). Overall, while there is clear support for increasing communication in the classroom, some have criticised CLT for becoming a 'monolithic entity' (Kumaravadivelu, 2005, p.116) that takes it beyond a method into an all-embracing rather nebulous concept, where any activity that is labelled 'communicative' is approved, thus sidestepping proper pedagogical consideration of the benefits of the purported activity. For example, Afitska (2012) reports on the how L2 teaching that includes a focus-on-form (where language items are purposely taught) as well as communicative activities results in higher attainment than teaching practices that are solely communicative.

Finally, in considering the L2 teacher role, it has also been observed that it may differ from that of a traditional teacher, with many adult L2 teachers viewing their role as closer to that of a facilitator (Clifton, 2006). As O'Dwyer (2006) notes, this development is the result of two distinct movements that have intersected in the current approach to L2 teaching to adults: the CLT approach, as previously described, that encouraged a more democratic and student-centred approach to learning, combined with Adult Learning theories, e.g. Knowles' andragogy model (1970, cited in Knowles et al., 2015), that highlights the importance of learner autonomy, recognition of previous learning/experience and responsibility for managing own's own learning.

To conclude, there are varied theories and approaches to SLA many of which have been influenced by theories of FLA. Over the past 70 years, various trends in approaches and methods in L2 teaching have been observed with CLT and TBL remaining resiliently popular. What is relevant for this study is how sociocultural and interactional models, particularly CLT, have informed the activities and goals set and the resulting classroom discourse, thus, providing a useful background for this study that focuses on the 'communicative' elements of L2 teaching.

### 2.2.2 General classroom discourse

In noting that spoken discourse is essentially how teaching happens, Cazden (2001) reinforces the fundamental importance of effective classroom interaction to achieving pedagogic goals, whatever the subject matter of instruction. While this literature review focuses on the specialised context of language teaching, it is necessary to first consider the general characteristics of classroom discourse that are also present in L2 teaching.

One of the most influential studies of classroom discourse was Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) investigation into communication in school classrooms. They designed a hierarchical rank-scale, based on Hallidayan notions of systematic grammar from largest to smallest interactional units, which was used to categorise the interaction. From that, they labelled 'exchanges of moves', with initiating, responding and follow-up [IRF] as 'moves' in an 'exchange'. What was notable about Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) study was the identification of a repeating tripartite sequence that seemed to have a distinctly pedagogic function in the interaction. They observed that the IRF exchange appeared to be the 'norm' in their dataset, which has remained enduringly prevalent in most classroom discourse, including language classrooms (Ellis, 2012). Nevertheless, the categorising that is intrinsic in discourse analysis and some pragmatic sociolinguistic approaches can be criticised for turning 'acts' into discrete standalone elements of talk, rather than essential components within ongoing sequences (Chaudron, 1988), as will be discussed further in the Methodology chapter.

As interest continued to rise in the social organisation of institutional settings, other researchers began making similar discoveries in classroom discourse structures, albeit ascribing different labels. McHoul (1978) identified a question-answer-comment tripartite sequence and demonstrated that teachers held control of the turn-taking mechanism. Meanwhile, Mehan (1979) labelled the same sequences as initiation-response-evaluation [IRE] and advocated for more detailed analysis of classroom interaction. While the IRF/IRE sequence has remained key in understanding classroom talk, more recent research has expanded on the IRF sequence itself

and its analysis. For example, Nassaji and Wells' (2000) discourse system provides useful elaboration on the F-move (the third turn of the IRF sequence) resulting in six functional categories of: evaluation, justification, comment, clarification, action and metatalk (p.384). These serve to illustrate how the teacher may opt to adapt the IRF sequence for different pedagogical actions and/or expand beyond the standard 'triadic dialogue' (Gourlay, 2005). One of the foci of the analysis section of this study, will be these types of expanded IRE sequences (see Chapter 4).

In highlighting that institutional discourse is context specific and serves to maintain the power structures of that institution, van Lier (1996) posited that the institution of education bestows on the teacher not only the right to speak, but also the responsibility to speak in an appropriate way. Therefore, the IRF may be considered the 'performative utterance' of teachers, as it is frequently viewed as 'doing teaching' (Huth, 2011), thus demonstrating the teacher's bestowed institutional role. Moreover, Cullen (2002) conjectured that 'teachers instinctively adopt an IRF mode of instruction because it is perceived, perhaps unconsciously, to be a powerful pedagogical device for transmitting and constructing knowledge' (p.118). Meanwhile, a useful distinction has been made in the classroom discourse literature between display or 'closed' and referential or 'open' initiating questions of the IRF/IRE sequence. However, Cazden (2001) postulates that there is some blurring of the boundary, with a seemingly open question often having an expected or acceptable answer.

## #2.1

01 T: Can you tell me why do you eat all that food?  
02 Yes.  
03 S: To keep you strong.  
04 T: To keep you strong. Yes. To keep you strong.  
05 Why do you want to be strong.

(Waring, 2018, p. 42)

In the initiation or first turn, the teacher asks a question that makes a response relevant or expected from one or more of the students. In this example it does not appear to be a 'known-

answer question' (Schegloff, 2007) or the initiation turn in an IRE sequence. In the response or second turn a student produces an answer, which in this case appropriately takes the form of an explanation. In the third turn, the teacher produces an evaluation or feedback to the student by repeating the student's response with an affirmative token of 'yes'. It is this third turn that distinguishes the IRE sequence as pedagogical as a more common everyday reaction to the second turn response would be perhaps a 'genuine' comment on the response. It is also shown that an IRE sequence can be followed by a subsequent IRE sequence, with the new first turn being produced in the same turn as the preceding third turn in this example.

Despite the acknowledgement of the IRE sequence representing a 'traditional' lesson or as the 'unmarked pattern' of teaching (Cazden, 2001, p.31), others have sought to explore alternative instructional sequences and to suggest possible ways of moving away from the 'straight jacket' or 'lockstep' of the IRE sequence (e.g. Myhill & Warren, 2005). This is perhaps particularly relevant for L2 teaching where practicing various types of interaction in the target language are key for learning a language. Berry (1981) observed that for the IRF to not be prominent either the teacher would need to relinquish primary knower status and/or allocate initiating role to the students, which is often referred to as a 'facilitator' style of teaching (Clifton, 2006). This echoes one of Long's (1983) strategies for avoiding trouble in talk between a NS and NNS, that of '[r]elinquishing topic control' (p.132), thus, creating what Cazden (2001) refers to as a 'nontraditional' lesson that is more dialogic in nature (as defined by Bakhtin, 1981). The notion of the teacher's epistemic knowledge in relation to turn initiation and other interactional aspects will be returned to later in the thesis (see section 3.3.4).

### **2.2.3 L2 classroom discourse**

L2 teaching and learning is largely enacted through the interactions of teachers and their students. While the focus of this thesis is on L2 teacher talk, I believe it is important to avoid

analysing teacher talk in isolation from student talk and/or the shared talk-in-interaction. What is observed in the empirical chapters, is that often while maintaining control of the turn-taking, teachers are extremely sensitive to student responses and contingently adjust their following turn. Furthermore, teachers often collaborate with students to produce extended stretches of talk, co-construct utterances and negotiate meaning, as will be investigated in the empirical chapters (4, 5 and 6) and resulting discussion (chapter 7).

Regarding L2 teachers' talk, Hall (2010) suggests that it employs similar tactics to ‘...the foreigner talk L1 speakers use when talking to L2 learners or the caretaker talk parents use with children, slower and grammatically simplified (but not grammatically inaccurate)’ (p.10). Chaudron (1988) outlined characteristics of L2 teacher talk as including: ‘slower speech, more pauses, exaggerated pronunciation, simpler lexis, less subordination, frequent self-repetition and curiously less frequent questioning’ (p.85), which appears to mirror Long’s (1983) category of combined strategies/tactics that NS use when talking to NNS listed in the previous sub-section. Additionally, there are clearly parallels with the language caregivers often use with young children (Child directed speech or CDS), which Clark (2016) describes as having higher pitch, exaggerated intonation patterns, slower tempo, longer pauses, louder, streamlined speech with fewer errors, frequent repetition and questions. Therefore, L2 teacher talk is noted as being a simpler form of input than what would be standard between two adult speakers of a shared language, and can be seen to bear some resemblance to Child Directed Speech. When we consider adults learning an L2, this raises the concern that this type of teacher talk is less appropriate, possibly even demeaning to their status as an adult member of society, yet there is an element of an insurmountable bind here as unsimplified talk could prove to be incomprehensible to a learner of the L2 (see also Long’s (1983) call for comprehensible input).

A further concern that is often raised in the literature is how teachers tend to dominate talk in the classroom, with Tsui (1995) citing a figure of 70% for the use of the IRF/IRE sequence in classroom discourse. While this could be an issue in any classroom in terms of encouraging student participation, in an L2 classroom a dominance of teacher talk time is even more

problematic as it results in less speaking or practice time for the language learners, the students. Van Lier (1996) focused on the students' response turn in the ubiquitous IRF/E sequence, noting that it 'is hemmed in, squeezed between a demand to display knowledge and a judgement on its competence' (p.151), which cannot 'represent true joint construction of discourse', thus highlighting how the learner is restricted from engaging in interaction by a lack of input opportunities. He suggests that a continuing shift towards a communicative approach in the form of CLT (van Lier, 1984) over the last 30 years should have reduced that percentage of teacher talk time. Meanwhile, Garton (2012) proposes that the frequency of the IRF/IRE sequences will be either reduced (or at the very least modified) as learners improve, suggesting a possible link between frequency of IRF/IRE use and language level. Therefore, it is plausible that scaffolding (in relation to the ZPD) and modification of input will be reduced in higher level language level classes. Furthermore, alternatives to the IRF/IRE have been suggested in efforts to reduce teacher talk time. One example being 'collaborative dialogue', which employs a type of scaffolded learning as proposed by Lantolf & Thorne (2006), where the support or scaffold is gradually reduced as the learner becomes more advanced and therefore more autonomous. Essentially, the aim is to reduce teacher talk-time in favour of greater learner participation in classroom discourse.

Corrective feedback (CF) has been highlighted as a defining feature of L2 teaching. Chaudron (1977) designated CF as 'any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance' (p. 31). There is an inherent assumption here that a learner error that has occurred needs remedying. However, this is not as straightforward as it may first appear; learner errors are complex, often unpredictable and may not need 'correcting'. For example, Allwright and Bailey (1991) highlight how a focus on communicative competence rather than language accuracy, as is a characteristic of CLT, has led to many researchers advocating for less correction of learner errors, or at least more selective management of CF. As a result, the L2 teacher will frequently need to make contingent pedagogic decisions as to whether to correct an error or ignore it. Lyster and Ranta (1997) refer to this as 'the very practical issue of what to do when students make errors in classrooms that

are intended to lead to communicative competence' (p.38). However, teachers' treatment of errors has been found to be less ad hoc than was first assumed, with teachers' CF practices displaying 'a certain degree of systematicity' (Lyster, 2001). This potential systematicity of teacher feedback turns is an element of teacher response practices that will be analysed using CA in the empirical chapters of this study.

Furthermore, when a correction is initiated, there are various corrective moves available to the teacher, the choice of which seems to reflect the teacher's assumption of a learner's prior (or lack of) knowledge of the linguistic element pinpointed for attention (Lyster, 2001). For example, if prior knowledge is assumed then it is more likely that the L2 teacher will prompt the learner to self-correct, while an assumed lack of prior knowledge would lead to some form of input from the teacher, which echoes Drew's (1981) observations of adult correction practices in adult-child talk-in-interaction. He noted that prompts (e.g. repetitions with rising intonation or non-verbal pointing) and rejection tokens (e.g. no) were used when the adult judged that self-correction was in the child's capability, while corrections (e.g. recasts) were used when the adult judged that the response was beyond the child's current ability. Recasts, which Loewen and Sato (2018) define as a teacher's reformulation of a learner's response by providing 'the correct form immediately after the learner's erroneous utterance' (p.290), have been found to be the most common CF technique in L2 classroom discourse, often comprising over 50% of feedback types recorded (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004). In a more recent study, Ranta and Lyster (2007) suggested two overall categories of 'reformulations' and 'prompts', with reformulations incorporating recasts and explicit corrections that include direct teacher input, while prompts include targeted elicitations or prompts from the teacher that are designed to encourage the learner to produce the correct answer (i.e. permitting self-correction). Ellis and Sheen (2006) note that corrective prompting techniques may also include metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests. It is noted that CF contains both negative and positive input. Examples of these CF moves will be highlighted and discussed in the analysis chapters, albeit from a CA perspective.

A further distinction is made in the SLA and L2 teaching literature between explicit and implicit CF techniques. This is in regard to the tension between how disruptive the correction may be to the classroom interaction, while simultaneously provoking debate as to how ‘noticeable’ or clear the correction is (Ammar, & Spada, 2006). For example, one key focus of much research on CF is to establish that learner uptake of the correction has occurred. While Lyster et al. (1997) surmised that oral CF is significantly more effective than no CF, a common finding seems to be that recasts (or reformulations) were generally less effective than prompting techniques. While much SLA research has sought to evaluate which CF technique leads to most instances of learner uptake<sup>5</sup>, Ellis (2012) argued that ‘it may be fundamentally mistaken to look for the most effective strategy’ and that in fact the best strategy ‘may be a chimera’ (p.263). Furthermore, Lyster et al. (1997) posited:

Classroom research is likely to yield more productive outcomes by moving away from dichotomous comparisons of CF strategies that isolate CF from other relevant instructional variables and towards an examination of combinations of CF types that more closely resemble teachers’ practices in classroom settings. (p.30)

Additionally, Ellis (2017) has argued that positive evaluation moves should be included in the analysis of CF as they can usefully confirm ‘correctness’ of a learner’s utterance and provide ‘affective support’ (p.3). In the analysis for this study, positive moves are included in the analysis of various CF practices.

According to Shavelson and Stern (1981), no teacher plans or evaluates according to ‘methods’ but rather they plan, teach and reflect on lessons in terms of less abstract units, such as activities or tasks. This also serves to highlight the notable differences in orientation between L2 teachers and SLA researchers as illustrated by Ellis (2017) in his discussion on CF previously mentioned.

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<sup>5</sup> uptake is a term that refers to ‘a learner’s immediate repetition of a recast, whether the repetition was partial or complete.’ (Révész et al., 2011, p.207)



Moreover, attention has been drawn to the complex and contingent in-the-moment decision making that L2 teachers routinely make:

On the classroom floor, rather abstract strategic prescriptions and proscriptions take a back seat to the 101 tactical decisions teachers must make as even the slowest-paced lesson unfolds (Long, 2011, p.374).

Thus, classroom management techniques can be seen to play a key role in the input that learners receive and that many teacher decisions are made spontaneously in response to student participation. As a result, multi-layering of talk occurs, at times more focused on accuracy and at others on fluency, which will be explored further in section 2.3 on CA and L2T.

#### **2.2.4 Conclusion**

The literature on L2 teaching and SLA research provides a relevant background to this study, particularly in terms of discourse analysis studies that have described and categorised IRF and CF moves in classroom interaction. What has been developed more recently is the granularity of analysis of talk in the L2 classroom, made available through CA, which will be reviewed in the next section. A further gap in the literature that I believe CA can help to address is the ‘interface issue’ (Ellis, 2017, p. 3) between teachers and researchers, as CA is by its nature concerned with the unfolding of interaction as it occurs moment by moment in the classroom and less concerned with whether CF ‘works’.

## **2.3 CA and L2 teacher talk**

### **2.3.1 Introduction**

While some early ethnomethodological studies utilized a CA approach in the 1970s and 1980s (e.g. McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979), during the last three decades investigations into the analysis of talk in the EFL/ESOL classroom using a CA approach have developed at pace (Waring, 2016). Moreover, CA-for-SLA developed as a specialised field of enquiry following the publication of Firth and Wagner's (1997) article that called for greater understanding and awareness of interactional and contextual aspects of language learning from the participants' perspective. Prior to this (as discussed in section 2.2), cognitive approaches had tended to dominate the SLA research field. Regarding the importance of interactional analysis for understanding language learning, Markee and Kasper (2004) proffered that it is helpful to consider SLA 'as a conversational process that observably occurs in the intersubjective space between participants, not just in the mind/brain of individuals' (p.496). Meanwhile, Pekarek Doehler (2010, p. 106) notes that CA-for-SLA views language learning as 'the continuous adaptation of linguistic and other semiotic resources in response to locally emergent communicative needs'. Therefore, it is the L2 teachers' orientation to the constantly adapting nature of language learning, its contingent and collaborative nature, as embedded in the social activities of the classroom, or arguably equally possible outside of the classroom while 'learning in the wild' (Theodórsdóttir, 2018), that provides the rationale for research into the interactional nature of L2 classroom discourse that this study aims to unpack.

Firstly, an overview of seminal studies (e.g. Seedhouse, 2004; Waring, 2016) in the field CA and L2 teaching is provided. This is followed by a survey of more recent CA and L2 teaching classroom literature in relation to key CA phenomena covered in the analysis: IRE sequences and their third turn; correction sequences, epistemics and storytelling. An overview of the methodology of CA and detailed reviews on relevant key phenomena for the analysis (e.g. sequence, repair, and storytelling) are presented in Chapter 3.

### **2.3.2 Background of CA research into L2 classroom/teacher talk**

Since Firth and Wagner's (1997) seminal work, the last 20 years has seen a marked rise in CA studies into the context of the L2 classroom, with Markee (2000) and Seedhouse (2004) noted as two highly influential works that 'kickstarted' the field of study (Gardner, 2019). Markee's (2000) pioneering publication utilised a CA approach to analyse and understand L2 classroom interaction, resulting in a key distinction between on-task and off-task talk in the classroom. Meanwhile, Seedhouse's (2004) comprehensive study investigated what he coined the 'interactional architecture' of the L2 classroom, producing an overarching description of interaction in distinct contexts of L2 teaching. Both Markee (2000) and Seedhouse's (2004) work developed McHoul's (1978) findings on turn-taking in the classroom, which he had summarized as 'only teachers can direct speakership in any creative way' (p.188). While Markee's (2000) study was relatively small in size, with 4 teachers and 14 ESL classes recorded at an American university, he successfully demonstrated how effective CA could be in analysing L2 classroom discourse, covering sequential organization, turn-taking and repair practices. On turn-taking practices, Markee (2000) presented these as being strongly affected by the 'unequal power speech exchange systems in the classroom' (p.97), resulting in the suggestion of several adaptations to the traditional turn-taking system including: a pre-allocation of turns, choral learner turns, typically short learner turns and long teacher turns. What becomes apparent is how much of this description fits a more formal style of L2 teaching, which later studies (e.g. Waring, 2014) have shown to not be the only one available or adopted in L2 classrooms. Meanwhile, Seedhouse (2004) demonstrated how different teaching contexts in L2 produce remarkably different interactional 'architecture'. In doing so, he critiqued Markee's (2000) distinction between on-task and off-task by exemplifying how off-task talk between two L2 students with different L1s can still align with L2 pedagogical goals. However, he also conceded that L2 classroom talk can be talked in and out of being, depending on whether it orients to the pedagogical goal(s) or not. Gardner (2019, p.24) surmised that Seedhouse's (2004) seminal work

'revealed greater complexity in for example, turn-taking and IREs in the classroom than McHoul (1978) or Mehan (1979) had shown' which will be developed further in this study.

What is of particular note for this study is how Seedhouse (2004) identified a reflexive relationship between the pedagogical focus of the interaction and its organization in terms of turn-taking and sequence. He sought to 'match the evolving pedagogical focus with the evolving patterns of interactions' (2004, p.198), resulting in the labelling of various classroom contexts: form-and-accuracy, meaning-and-fluency, task-oriented and procedural. In this study, the focus will be on the first two contexts (form-and-accuracy and meaning-and-fluency) due to these being the most relevant for analysing teacher talk (e.g. task-oriented contexts are generally peer to peer). This distinction between focus on form or language-centred and focus on fluency or content-centred is a vital one in L2 teaching and has been referred to frequently in the literature (e.g. Afitska, 2012; Kasper, 1985). In form-and-accuracy contexts, the focus is on correct performance of specific structures being assessed by the teacher for linguistic accuracy, with the students' real-world or personal experiences not usually included (Seedhouse, 1996). On the other hand, in meaning-and-fluency contexts the emphasis is on the personal experiences and feelings of students, and seek to elicit extended and meaningful interaction on a variety of topics or based around pedagogical activities (Seedhouse, 2004). However, as Seedhouse (2004) concedes, these are not fixed modes of operation and shifts may occur within a lesson or even within an activity. In a case study, Waring (2014) demonstrates how one ESL teacher was able to shift between conversational and institutional frames within the course of a single lesson, which is also evident in the dataset for this study (e.g. for a conversational side-sequence during a form-and-accuracy focused context see extract #4.3 in Chapter 4). Further research on shifts in and out of pedagogical contexts and possible synthesised contexts, which Seedhouse (1996) defined as '...a base context which has 'grafted' onto it certain pedagogical and interactional features which are atypical of that context but which are typical of another context.' (p.315) would be useful for further describing the nature of L2 classroom talk.

In the dataset gathered for this study an overall distinction was observed between form-and-accuracy contexts and meaning-and-fluency contexts, resulting in separate analytic chapters (Chapter 4 on form-and-accuracy, Chapters 5 and 6 on meaning-and-fluency). As established in the L2 classroom literature, different pedagogical goals can result in varying interactional design in the classroom. While this study focuses on L2 teacher responses and how these shape learner production in the target language, the way that the teacher designs their responses varies considerably depending on the context and its pedagogical goals. What will be covered in the next section will serve to provide a background for this analysis in terms of relevant CA/L2 studies.

### **2.3.3 IRE sequences in L2 teacher talk**

In terms of classroom discourse, and that of the L2 classroom specifically, the IRE (Mehan, 1979) or ‘known-answer question’ sequence (Schegloff, 2007) remains its most prominent feature. In an IRE sequence, the teacher elicits a display of knowledge from a student which the teacher then evaluates for linguistic accuracy and appropriacy. It is therefore apparent that the teacher is assigned an expert role, with the target language (the second turn response) being deemed as within the teacher’s domain of expertise, thus permitting the typical evaluative move from the teacher in the third turn. This tripartite sequence of the IRE is often regarded as ‘doing teaching’ (Huth, 2011), thus inherently pedagogic, with Lee (2007) positing that the analysis of IRE sequences can usefully unpack ‘the communicative act that teachers display’ (p.1226).

Many CA/L2 teaching studies of the last 20 years have focused on the teacher’s role in the IRE sequence, specifically the first and third turns of the sequence. For example, CA research into the first turn of the IRF/IRE sequence, has documented the different types of questions that teachers use and how they can provide scaffolding for the learners (Yaqubi & Mozaffari, 2011); while Waring’s (2012) investigation into yes-no or polar questions noted how they convey the teacher’s stance, which may force the learner to ‘align or dis-align’ with that stance, thus further

limiting the response options open to the students in the second turn. As this study focuses on teacher responses to L2 student contributions in ESOL classrooms, the third turn of the IRE, which Lee (2007) mooted as being the sequential position where learning occurs, is a focal point. In investigating the frequency and design of evaluations in a secondary school classroom, Margutti and Drew (2014) found that evaluations were overwhelmingly positive (approximately three-quarters) with explicit negative evaluations avoided. In categorising the positive evaluations, they listed:

- explicit positive assessments,
- verbatim full repetitions of students' answers,
- embedded repetitions, or repetitions accompanied by other turn components,
- formulaic receipt particles,
- direct transition to the next Q–A sequence (Margutti & Drew, 2014, p.439)

with the most common being an echo-type repetition of the student's response.

In exploring the subsequent turns following the IRE, Wong and Waring (2008) observed that a positive evaluation such as 'very good' may not have the supposed encouraging effect on learning opportunities due to its tendency to shut down the interaction. Reflecting on this, Gardner (2019) claimed that there is not much point asking students what they already know, and that learning occurs in the space following a rejection, i.e. how an 'unacceptable' response is transformed into an 'acceptable' one. Nevertheless, there appears to also be a slot for additional learning following a positive evaluation, e.g. a teacher may provide an unsolicited explanation or 'embedded extension' (Gourlay, 2005, p.409). Meanwhile, Zemel and Koschmann (2011) presented their research into teachers opting to reinitiate the IRE sequence with a revised version of their FPP in the place of the 'usual' third turn evaluation, which appears to assign a co-producer role to the student. It was also observed that teachers may appeal to previous learning events in the form of an 'reference to a past learning event' (Can Daşkın, & Hatipoğlu, 2019) and/or highlight previously taught rules that apply to grammatical structures (e.g. when to use present continuous or present simple verb tense) or lexical forms (e.g. suffixes).

Furthermore, Lee (2007) posits that L2 teachers are frequently engaged in more than just giving feedback or an evaluation in the third turn; in orientating to ‘local and immediate contingencies’ (p.1205), that include responding to the prior turn in terms of accuracy, relevancy and appropriateness, he argues that they are also engaged in planning how to move the interaction forward. In many ways this can be seen to echo Heritage's adage of talk being ‘context shaped and context renewing’ (1984, p.242) while providing a strong indication of how complex the relationship is between teacher talk and pedagogy in the L2 classroom, thus demanding a skilfully contingent responsiveness from teachers to learner contributions (Walsh, 2002; Waring, 2016). One of the key analytic foci of chapter 4 will be to unpack ESOL teacher responses in the third turn and the resulting sequential implications.

### **2.3.4 Correction sequences in L2 teacher talk (including formulations)**

In CA terms, a learner ‘error’ is merely one type of a range of possible ‘troubles at talk’ (e.g. non-hearing, non-understanding, a wordsearch) that can lead to a repair sequence. Schegloff et al. (1977) note that ‘nothing is, in principle, excludable from the class “repairable”’ (p.363), thus it is up to the participants to deem what may need repairing. For example, when a L2 teacher hears and understands a learner’s utterance, they may still opt to initiate repair (or a correction) if they deem a grammatical error or an inappropriate lexical choice to be within the range of the learner’s current level of language proficiency, despite the fact that the progressivity of talk may be negatively affected by doing so. This is one clear distinction between everyday talk and the institutional talk of the classroom, where the teacher has an enhanced status as both a teacher and an expert in the L2, thus bestowing the right or epistemic responsibility (Stivers et al., 2011), even the expectation, to correct the learners’ contributions. Schegloff et al. (1977) suggested that other-correction of ‘not-yet-competent’ speakers, e.g. young children, is a permitted but temporary exception to the preference for self-repair, which appears to also be applicable to the L2 classroom. McHoul (1990) observed that the self-repair preference (as discussed in Chapter

3) still held in the classroom, however, it was much weaker than in everyday conversation due to the accompanying institutional/pedagogical goals. Further, McHoul (1990) identified classroom corrections as a subset of repair, which behave differently to those in everyday talk, e.g. other-correction is noted to be unmarked in talk where one participant has an expert role such as in a classroom setting (Norrick, 1991). However, it is worth noting that while a significant amount of research has focused on correction in the classroom, repair in the manner of conversational repair also occurs in classroom talk, particularly in meaning-and-fluency contexts (see Chapters 5 and 6).

It is anticipated that the differing knowledge states of the participants in an L2 classroom affect the nature of repair or correction that occurs (Norrick, 1991). Moreover, it can be quite a challenge to bring the divergent research traditions of L2/SLA and CA together to analyse the phenomenon of repair or correction in the L2 classroom, with Hall (2007) arguing that conflating the two hides the important role that each performs in analysing L2 classroom talk. A further consideration, as highlighted by Seedhouse (2005), is that varying pedagogical goals will affect not only the interactional architecture of the classroom but also the type of repair and/or correction being performed. As stated by Seedhouse (2004) regarding form-and-accuracy contexts:

...any learner contribution which does not correspond exactly to the precise string of linguistic forms required by the teacher may be treated as trouble by the teacher and may be treated as repairable. (p.149)

Related to this, Kasper (1985) reported a greater incidence of other-initiation of repair in the language-centred phase (as opposed to the content-centred phase) of L2 classes. Therefore, one expectation is that teaching that focuses on meaning-and-fluency (Chapters 5 and 6) would see less explicit correction than that focused on form-and-accuracy (Chapter 4).

While it is apposite to explore the different types of correction that are specific to the classroom context (which will be discussed below), I have noted earlier that conversational repair can and



does occur in the classroom. Learners of an L2 often self-repair in the form of false starts and reformulations, along with hesitations and repetitions (Hellermann, 2009). They also self-initiate repair, particularly when doing a wordsearch and may enlist both their fellow students and the teacher for repair (Duran et al., 2019). Regarding other-initiated repair in everyday talk (see also Chapter 3, including the Schegloff et al. 1977 paper), Kendrick (2015) reports that minimal and extended sequences occur with the following types identified:

1. open class repair ‘what?’ and ‘huh?’ (see also Drew, 1997)
2. category specific questions
  - a. interrogatives as complete TCUs e.g. ‘Who?’
  - b. interrogatives with partial repeats e.g. ‘Which wall?’
3. repeating the trouble source
  - a. partial repeats e.g. ‘Kubota?’
  - b. full repeats e.g. ‘Where did he go?’
  - c. incomplete repeats (see also use of DIUs, Koshik, 2002)
4. copular interrogatives e.g. ‘Who’s Phillips?’
5. candidate understandings
  - a. replacement
  - b. continuation
  - c. insertion
  - d. complex candidate understandings
6. other practices e.g. ‘what do you mean?’
7. other corrections
8. complex other-initiations of repair
9. bodily-visual practices

Notably, other-corrections only form approximately 6% of repair in Kendrick’s study of everyday talk; however, they are much more common in classrooms as discussed below. Generally, other-initiations seek to locate the trouble source (over 80% in Kendrick’s study) and

the most frequent format is the candidate understanding (nearly 30%). Candidate understandings, which are analysed in chapter 6 on storytelling, will be discussed in the later section on 'Formulations'.

Meanwhile, Jefferson (1987, reissued in 2018), in her seminal work on corrections, unpacked a fundamental distinction between exposed and embedded types of correction, which can be usefully applied to the analysis of correction sequences in classroom talk. For an exposed correction, Jefferson (2018, p.300) outlines an XYY sequence:

1. A speaker produces some object (X)
2. A subsequent speaker produces an alternative (Y)
3. Prior speaker produces the alternative (Y)

With the prior speaker also having the option to reject the correction in the third slot, thus creating an XYX sequence. An example of an exposed correction sequence (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p.190, abridged from longer version):

## #2.2

```
01      Student:  It bug me to have-  
02  →  Teacher:  It bugs me. It bugzz me.  
03      Student:  It bugs me when my brother takes my bicycle.
```

As is typical with a repair trajectory, the prior interactional activity is suspended while correction is resolved with 'possible attendant activities' e.g. accounting regarding the perceived error often included. Meanwhile, an embedded correction does not interrupt the progressivity of the talk, nor does it become the 'interactional business' of the talk (Jefferson, 2018). An example is provided by Norrick (1991, p.62) from adult-adult L1 talk where Frank, who has recently returned from a trip to England, is therefore in the more knowledgeable position (or K+ as will be discussed in Chapter 3):

### #2.3

- 01        John:        Hey Frank. How far is Reading ((ri:dɪŋ)) from London?  
02 →     Frank:        Reading((rɛdɪŋ)). Oh: not that far really.  
03        John:        Well: I was just looking at this ma:p.

Frank's second position correction of John's pronunciation of Reading is accepted, due simply to the fact that it is not challenged by John in the third turn, and progressivity of the talk is maintained. Norrick (1991) notes that John uses the correct pronunciation of Reading later in the conversation, which supports the presentation of this as a correction sequence. In many of the examples of embedded corrections provided by Jefferson the XYY sequence is either maintained or may be reduced to XY as above. In contrast to the explicit correction, it appears that a replacement of one item for another has occurred rather than a correction that could be accounted for. One of the issues raised in the FLA and SLA literature is that learners may not notice this type of embedded correction and therefore 'fail to benefit' from the intervention (e.g. Corrin, 2010; Saxton, 2000), yet as shown in the example above John does pronounce Reading correctly later in the conversation. Meanwhile, it has been noted that embedded other-corrections are common in non-teaching contexts e.g. business calls between a L1 and L2 speaker (Brouwer et al., 2004; Kurhila, 2001), due to allowing a K+ (more knowledgeable) speaker to correct without disrupting the progressivity of the talk. In terms of L2 teaching contexts, both explicit and embedded corrections are evident and will vary depending on the teaching context and its resulting interactional patterns (see Chapters 4 and 5). What is noted in the analysis is how exposed corrections appear to be more minimally disruptive to the talk than expected, which may be explained by the teachers designing their turns to 'camouflage the repair' (Seedhouse, 1997a). Certainly, there seems to be a preference here for maintaining fluency while also attending to accuracy.

McHoul (1990) and Macbeth (2004) are considered seminal CA papers on repair and correction in classroom talk. Macbeth (2004) notes that 'correction sequences are one of the ways in which members display and recognise that instructing is going on' (p.729), in other words 'doing teaching'. McHoul's (1990) work concludes that while self-repair and self-initiation do occur in



Despite the teacher's prompts, Tom appears unable to produce the target answer. In line 12, the teacher performs an other-correction by producing the target word 'alluvial'. Due to Tom's response in line 13, which is a combination of a change of state token 'ah' that is extended and an agreement 'yeh', this appears to have a target status and one that Tom should have known. This correction sequence is an example of a standard extended IRE sequence until line 12 when the teacher's evaluation is replaced with an other-correction which the learner acknowledges in line 13. Macbeth (2004) concurs with McHoul's (1990) findings that correction in the classroom follows the normative order of repair (see Chapter 4 extract #4.22 'collime' for a similar example) and that correction techniques should be viewed as a subset of repair practices. The essential difference being that correction occurs where one party has a superior epistemic status in relation to the interactional focus, i.e. in known-answer question (Schegloff, 2007) or IRE sequences, and the focus is on production of a 'correct' form rather than on confirming understanding.

In terms of repair and correction techniques specific to adult L2 classrooms, Jung (1999) investigated what she deemed as repair practices in an adult ESL class at an American university. In teacher-fronted activities, she notes frequent other-initiated repair or 'cuing' and linking to IRE sequences (p.164). An example of 'cuing' that is seen in my dataset is in the form of designedly incomplete utterances (DIUs) (Koshik, 2002, Margutti, 2010). In a DIU, the teacher provides a partial turn that is grammatically incomplete with the expectation that the student will complete the remainder, i.e. an aligning second pair part completes the teacher's incomplete utterance. As a result, they are useful for pinpointing the trouble source and appear to only minimally affect the progressivity of the talk. Meanwhile, in learner role-playing activities Jung (1999) notes a different set of repair practices that are more akin to those recognized as common in everyday talk (see section on Repair in Chapter 3), including collaborative completion of turns. Theodórsdóttir's (2018) research into adult L2 'learning in the wild' (i.e. outside the classroom) found that correction sequences were usually co-constructed and more likely to be initiated by the L2 learner. Overall, Seedhouse's (2004) claim that repair in meaning-and-fluency contexts are closer in form to conversational repair seems to be supported (see chapters 5 and 6).

With regard to correction sequences in Aphasia Therapy, Simmons-Mackie and Damico (2008) argue that ‘therapist-imposed corrections’ could inappropriately interpret the clients’ utterances and impose their ‘voice’ in place of the client’s, thus marginalizing the speaker and negatively affecting self-image and ownership of talk. This is also applicable to the adults in an L2 classroom, as Norrick (1991) observes that operating in an L2 adds to an already ‘lopsided’ balance of power that exists in classrooms. Furthermore, the ‘permeability’ of learner turns (Gourlay, 2005; Lerner, 1996) is evident when it is noted how teachers demonstrate the ‘right’ to interrupt a turn as in line 03 of this correction sequence:

#### #2.5

01       Cindy:        Okay, like wh- so what started it was because this  
02                        little country Saudi Arabia- coz it =  
03 → Teacher:       = No, not Saud- Serbia.  
04 → Cindy:         Serbia  
05       Teacher:       Serbia

(Norrick, 1991, p.72)

Cindy’s turn displays typical L2 characteristics of hesitation and restarts, before continuing her turn. She finishes her turn or TCU (see Chapter 3 for an explanation of the term TCU) at Saudi Arabia which she appears to latch to the next TCU by cutting short the final vowel sound of Arabia. During the next TCU, the teacher interrupts with an other-correction, thus not giving the student a chance to self-repair. Cindy accepts the other-correction, repeating it with identical prosody, which is reconfirmed by the teacher before the previous sequence is resumed. While children may be used to being interrupted in this manner, for adults this could be quite unsettling. Moreover, the general lack of status and control over how they come across in an L2 could be quite inhibiting. One role of the L2 teacher is to support the confidence of their adult students and provide opportunities for ‘adult talk’ through participation engagement strategies, such as the storytelling episodes from their own lives (see Chapter 6) and/or cultural explanations about their country (see Chapter 5; also Reddington, 2018).

## 2.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented and discussed studies of SLA theory and L2 classroom discourse as relevant for the analysis of the dataset. The position adopted by this thesis is that an adequate understanding of the relationship between SLA and classroom interaction can only be achieved when full attention is paid to the mutual and reciprocal nature of co-constructed talk-in-interaction as afforded by CA. Previous SLA studies (e.g. Chaudron, 1988; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen, 2004) have tended to focus on teachers' or learners' talk, excluding the inherent joint nature of action formation in talk. A CA approach fosters the notion that the activities of the L2 classroom in particular are 'working on talk' with the teachers and the students as joint participants in the development of language use in the L2, thus collaboratively shaping production through the co-constructed designing of talk.

While this study leans towards a focus on how the ESOL teacher fosters and facilitates productive moments of L2 interaction in the classroom, the orientation to the contingent and complex nature of interaction yields a more nuanced and detailed overview of a broad range of classroom interactional patterns, as well as a focus on certain key practices, e.g. correction and synthesised fluency sequences, than has been analysed to date. As a result, it develops previous work by Seedhouse (1997a, 2004), Waring (2014) and others in the analysis of distinct pedagogical sequences and repair practices in form-and-accuracy and meaning-and-fluency contexts by providing greater granularity in an ESOL classroom setting, presenting a 'toolkit' of evaluative responses that these teachers select from to contingently respond to learner contributions. Moreover, how ESOL teachers appear to actively 'camouflage' repair (Seedhouse, 1997a) in meaning-and-fluency contexts is an under researched phenomenon that is further unpacked in this study through the analysis of the use of recasts in meaning-and-fluency contexts.

Furthermore, this study addresses the research gap as highlighted by Gardner (2019) and Hall (2019) in analysing how evaluative sequences are extended in the ESOL classroom, particularly

with the activation of meaning-and-fluency side sequences in form-and-accuracy contexts and the addition of ‘learnables’ (Majelsi & Broth, 2014). In addition, this study builds on the limited research that has been conducted into how L2/ESOL teachers talk pedagogical contexts ‘in and out of being’ (e.g. Reddington, 2018; Seedhouse, 1996, Waring, 2009; Waring, et al., 2016) (see Chapter 5). Moreover, how teachers may create hybrid contexts of pedagogical and non-pedagogical interaction is explored, as exemplified in the analysis of the storytelling context in Chapter 6.



## Chapter 3: Methodology

### 3.1 Introduction

The overarching aim of the study is to unpack how L2 teacher responses are designed to support the development of the target language and how this is managed in various pedagogical contexts including potentially those of a hybrid nature. This involves identifying and analysing the recurrent L2 teacher actions and practices that make up those pedagogical sequences. CA's framework was used to investigate the sequences and turns within the classroom talk.

CA is a qualitative and sociolinguistic method that promotes an empirical and inductive approach for analysing how talk functions in everyday and institutional settings (Sidnell, 2010). The aim of CA is 'to reveal the tacit, organised reasoning procedures which inform the production of naturally occurring talk' (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1988, p.1) or more accurately *talk-in-interaction*, which conversation analysts regard as the 'primordial site of human sociality' (Schegloff, 1987b, p.207). While CA takes ordinary or mundane conversation as the fundamental or base form, it is concerned with any instances of naturally occurring talk-in-interaction (Psathas, 1995), including those which occur in institutional settings, e.g. classrooms. According to Sacks et al. (1974), conversation is the base form of the speech system with other types of interaction 'representing a variety of transformations of conversations' turn-taking system' (p.730).

In terms of an analytic base query, Seedhouse's (2004) 'why that, in that way, right now?' (p.16) encompasses the fundamental CA aspects of action, design and sequence, which will be briefly explored to provide a background for the analysis. Overall, this chapter provides a background to CA (3.2), an overview of central tenets of CA as relevant to the analysis (3.3/3.4), information about the data sample and the rationale supporting the procedures that were followed to collect and analyse the data (3.5).

### 3.2 Introduction to Conversation Analysis

Comparable to other strands of ethnomethodological study, CA is concerned with the analysis of ‘the competences that underlie ordinary social activities’ (Heritage, 1984a, p. 241). With its origins in sociology and anthropology, early CA researchers, notably Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson (e.g. Sacks & Schegloff, 1973; Sacks, et al., 1974; Schegloff et al., 1977) in the 1970s (and Harvey Sacks’ lectures in the 1960s), set out rigorous empirical standards that have been maintained to the present day, resulting in a substantial accumulation of established findings on which to draw.

Central to the CA understanding of talk are several core assumptions that were influenced by the work of Goffman (1967) and Garkinkel (1967). Goffman’s premise that ‘social interaction is a form of social organisation in its own right’ (Heritage & Clayman, 2010, p.8) established the basis of interaction itself being worthy of analysis, giving rise to some of the earlier studies in face-to-face interactions (Goffman, 1983). Furthermore, he posited that institutions are shaped by the interactions that take place in them, echoed in Heritage’s claim that institutions are ‘talked into being’ (1984a, p.290). This brings us to the first assumption, that ‘talk amounts to action’ (Schegloff, 1992b, p.104). Hence, it is the actions that the talk manifests that are the subject of enquiry, with language being the vehicle for achieving those actions.

Secondly, Sacks (1984, p.22) observed that there exists ‘order at all points’ in talk. Thus, rejecting the general consensus that existed amongst theorists in the 1960s (e.g. Chomsky) that everyday talk was too disorderly to be the object of analysis (Sacks, 1984). Goodwin and Heritage (1990) reiterated that actual talk in interaction had been dismissed as ‘mere noise that gets in the way of the ideal structures that it is the real job of the analyst to investigate’ (p.285). However, Sacks (1984) contested this with the argument that talk, the ‘methods persons use in doing social life’, is actually highly structured, systematic and ‘intrinsically stable’ (p.21), thus making it available to participants and analysts which permits the observation and analysis of social activities.

Regarding the third assumption, this purports that interactants work together through talk in interaction, to achieve mutual understanding or intersubjectivity (Heritage, 1984a). Although, Goffman was concerned with how face, identity and morality can influence interaction, a critique of his work is that he paid little attention to the matter of understanding in talk (Heritage & Clayman, 2010). On the other hand, Garfinkel argued that people can ‘make shared sense of their circumstances and act on the shared sense they make’ (Heritage & Clayman, 2010, p.9). In other words, he highlights the importance of shared understanding and much of his analyses serve to explain how this works through ‘methods of reasoning’. This has been developed in CA to showcase the interactional work that is undertaken to achieve and maintain intersubjectivity, which highlights two further tenets of CA: that of next-turn relevance (see 3.3.1) and that of repair (see 3.3.3.), that can be seen as safety mechanisms for maintaining intersubjectivity.

The fundamental assumptions detailed here serve to remind that the basic premise of CA, as Arminen (2005) suggested, ‘is so simple that it is difficult to grasp’; essentially, the analyst analyses as the participants do, they orient to the talk through the talk itself. As a result, there is no reason to revert to speculation on what the participants may or not be thinking (Heritage & Atkinson, 1984). In investigating the practices and procedures of participants in a particular setting, CA is based on what is displayed in the talk itself, thus adopting an emic<sup>6</sup> approach to the research, which Seedhouse (2005) describes as ‘the participants’ perspective within the interactional environment in which the talk occurs’ (p.166).

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<sup>6</sup> Based on Pike’s seminal work in the 1950s, etic researchers observe from an objective outsiders’ viewpoint, while the emic researchers’ lense is essentially that of an insider, i.e. that of a participant (Beals, et al., 2020).

### 3.3 Some key concepts in CA

Notably a certain rigour has been maintained from those early CA days, giving rise to a set of research principles which has allowed CA's research findings to become both 'cumulative and interlocking' (Heritage, 1984a, p.234). Building on the three assumptions previously presented, CA researchers focus on what participants are doing with their talk. This perspective relies on three key principles of conversation:

- 1) Social action: with each turn at talk, participants are 'doing' something (e.g. questioning or answering).
- 2) Action sequences: social actions are positioned in sequences known as 'adjacency pairs' in which, following an initiating action (e.g. a request), a responding action (e.g. a granting) is accountably due.
- 3) Turn design: the same actions can be implemented or accomplished in different ways.

Systematic analysis tells us that such differing formulations can have consequences for the unfolding talk, such as acceptance of, or resistance to, a recommendation. (Leyden & Barnes, 2020, p.136)

Regarding action formation in talk, Robinson (2013) notes a 'relative lack of clarity and precision regarding the conceptualization and definition of activity as a unit of interaction' (2013, p.260). Meanwhile, Schegloff (2007, p.9) defines a sequence as 'a course of action implemented through talk'. Actions in talk may consist of a minimal sequence, such as a single adjacency pair in the form of a greeting (Schegloff, 2007), or they may come in 'big packages' (Sacks 1992 vol. II, p.354), i.e. longer, more extended sequences, such as troubles talk. In considering activities as sequences of actions that are produced and shaped by an overall structural organization, participants orient to the activity or sequence as a coherent whole. As a result, CA emphasises the 'nextness' of talk (Schegloff, 2007, p.15) that is both 'context-shaped' and 'context-renewing' (Heritage, 1984a), which refers to how a turn is shaped by the previous turn(s)/action and makes relevant a future turn(s)/action. In relation to institutional talk, Levinson (2013) notes

that actions are more readily ascribable due to goals being more explicit, which is reflected by the varying interactional architecture of the L2 classroom when the pedagogical goals shift, e.g. from accuracy to fluency (Seedhouse, 2004).

In the following subsections, I will review some of the fundamental components of CA that are considered most relevant to the analysis in relation to previous CA literature. The first section covers turn taking, including turn design (3.3.1), the second on sequence organisation (3.3.2), the third on repair (3.3.3) and the fourth on epistemics (3.3.4). In the following section, I will review the literature on CA applied to institutional settings, e.g. an L2 classroom as in the dataset.

### **3.3.1 Turn taking and turn construction**

Turn-taking, one of the basic tenets of CA, was outlined in Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's seminal 1974 paper from what they described as the 'grossly observable facts about conversation' (p.696). In describing the basic organisation for conversation, they observed that one speaker speaks at a time, that 'transitions are finely coordinated' and 'that techniques are used for allocating turns' (Sacks et al., 1974, p.699-700). Additionally, they observed that turns are composed of turn-constructive units (TCUs), which can be of varying lengths, but all have a projectable completion point, namely a transition relevance point (TRP), where speaker transition can occur. They argue that it is the projectability of the TRPs that enable smooth speaker transition to take place ideally with 'no gap and no overlap' (Sacks, et al., 1974, p.708).

While turn length and order of turns-at-talk are not specified or prescribed in advance, they remain 'locally managed, party-administered and interactionally controlled' (p.727), which highlights how the participants design their turns with an 'orientation and sensitivity' to their co-participants (Sacks et al., p.727). According to Drew (2013, p.132), turn design refers to how a participant selects what to include and builds their turns 'to do the action it is designed to do, in such a way as to be understood as doing that action'. It is fundamental to how participants behave

in interaction and displays sensitivity to co-participants. As noted by Tarplee (1993), this observation provides a foundation for the fundamental notion that one participant's talk influences their co-participant in terms of how they are 'establishing, repairing, and maintaining intersubjective understandings through the collaborative construction of their talk' (p.50).

As recipients respond to the talk, they reveal their understanding, or lack of, of the prior talk which we as analysts can also witness: '...while understandings of other turns' talk are displayed to co-participants, they are available as well to professional analysts, who are thereby afforded a proof criterion...' (Sacks et al., 1974, p.729), commonly referred to as next turn proof procedure (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). Ultimately, it is this contingent connection between turns, both prior and subsequent, i.e. 'context shaped and context renewing' (Heritage, 1984a, p.242), that creates sequences or 'strings' of turns (Drew, 2013, p.131).

### 3.3.2 Sequence organisation

The notion of adjacency or 'nextness' (Schegloff, 2007, p.15) is central to understanding sequential relevance in talk-in-interaction. With the adjacency pair as the minimal constituent of a sequence: 'a current action (a "first pair part" [FPP] such as a greeting or a question) requires the production of a reciprocal action (or "second pair part" [SPP]) at the first possible opportunity after the completion of the first' (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990, p.287). Therefore, it is not just a case of statistical occurrence or frequency; it is a system where participants are held accountable for their actions (or non-actions) and display their understanding (or lack of it) of the prior turn (Schegloff, 2007). As is shown in this excerpt:

#3.1

01	A:	Is there something bothering you or not?
02		(1.0)
03	A:	Yes or no
04		(1.5)

05           A:     Eh?  
06           B:     No.

(Atkinson & Drew, cited in Levinson, 1983, p.300)

A orients to B's lack of response, evidenced by a one second or 'attributable' silence (Jefferson, 1989), and further prompts in lines 03 and 05. B eventually produces a relevant response in line 06. What is noticeable in this extract is not simply that a question is responded to with an answer but that the answer is expected and therefore its omission is marked, and responded to. However, a SPP is not the only available response; for example, an insertion sequence is a common alternative and is often seen in the form of a clarification check (e.g. Jacknick, 2011). Further, Schegloff (2007) notes that while many sequences are organised centrally around adjacency pairs (e.g. telephone openings), there are also some that are not (e.g. storytelling) and that not all actions require talk, e.g. gesture or gaze can suffice.

Returning to consider the notion of nextness and next positioning, Schegloff (2007, p. 15) states that 'moving from some element to a hearably-next-one with nothing intervening is the embodiment of, and the measure of progressivity.' Related to this is how participants ratify the prior turn, known as 'next turn proof procedure', by their display of understanding, which Schegloff notes as often displayed 'en passant' (1992, p.1301), i.e. not explicitly. An example of next positioning where a display of understanding is often also evident (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990, p.288) are continuers, e.g. 'uh uh's, 'yeahs' (Schegloff, 1982, p.79), which were common in the dataset for Chapters 5 and 6.

While in everyday talk, issues of understanding may only be brought to the surface of talk when misunderstanding becomes noticed, as Heritage (1984a, p. 259) notes 'the issue of 'understanding' per se is rarely topicalised'. This contrasts to the fundamental nature of understanding in talk in an L2, where understanding is not assumed or perhaps oriented to as potentially problematic on a turn-by-turn basis. For example, in L2 classrooms, understanding is regularly attended to either through third turn IRE e.g. 'good' or through continuers e.g. 'hm mm' or 'yeah'. As a result, the topic of understanding can be viewed as constantly bubbling under

the surface and being attended to by the participants. As such, this is a characteristic of the institutional nature of this type of talk, with one of the L2 teachers' main roles apparently being to show that understanding is being managed and repair initiated where necessary. For CA, understanding is a local, interactional matter, that is routinely claimed and/or exhibited by participants (Sacks, 1992, Vol II, p.252).

### **3.3.3 Repair**

When displays of understanding are not forthcoming, it is likely that a repair sequence will be initiated to resolve the perceived trouble in the previous turn. In CA terminology, repair has various functions in conversation but is generally instigated to avoid or resolve 'trouble', i.e. a problem of some sort or other in the interaction. Sidnell (2010) defines repair as '...an organized set of practices through which participants in conversation are able to address and potentially resolve such problems of speaking, hearing or understanding' (p.110), which highlights the fact that different sources of trouble can give rise to the perceived necessity to initiate repair. Repair sequences, or trajectories, in which repair or at least prompting can be achieved are usually tripartite: the *trouble source* is where the trouble initially arose, the *repair initiation* is where the trouble is flagged up and the *repair* is where the trouble is, or attempts to be, resolved (Sacks et al., 1977). However, the repair trajectory can be shorter, e.g. if a current speaker self-initiates, this is often launched within the same TCU as the trouble source (Schegloff et al. 1977), or may be extended, e.g. if an other-initiated repair is unsuccessful the first time it will probably be relaunched in potentially a fourth turn (Schegloff, 2007).

What becomes apparent is that the nature of the repair is strongly affected by who initiates the repair and who performs the repair, i.e. whether it is the original speaker (self-) or a co-participant (other-). There are four possible combinations: self-initiated, self-repair (SISR); self-initiation, other-repair (SIOR); other initiation, self-repair (OISR) and other-initiated, other-repair (OIOR).



An early finding in the study of repair in ordinary conversation was the preference for self-repair, which showed a clear statistical leaning towards self rather than other repair/correction (Schegloff et al., 1977). Talk is therefore designed to allow the originator of the trouble source the first chance to repair, preferably self-initiated but also when other-initiated. Moreover, Schegloff et al. (1977) explain how other corrections are frequently modulated by participants in adult conversations, e.g. downgraded with 'I think' or designed as a question, which seems to demonstrate a perceived infringement by the corrector. In terms of epistemic knowledge, it has been pointed out that:

When the hearing/understanding of a turn is adequate to the production of a correction by 'other', it is adequate to allow production of a sequentially appropriate next turn. (Schegloff et al., 1977, p.380)

Therefore, other-corrections in everyday talk are noted as a risky endeavour and thus marked. However, this is clearly not necessarily the case in institutional talk, where the higher status of one of the participants (e.g. as a teacher) gives that participant certain rights and even an expectation to perform other-corrections. A more detailed discussion of the literature review on repair and L2 teaching was presented in the Literature Review, section 2.3.4.

Finally, and despite acknowledging that they are not a form of repair, this section will review the CA literature on formulations. Heritage and Watson (1979) characterise formulations as offering up different versions of a previous utterance, accompanied by some sort of transformation which is to be agreed upon by the participants. It is also useful to consider how formulations operate in other institutional contexts, e.g., news interviews (Heritage, 1985), business meetings (Barnes, 2007; Clifton, 2006; Svennevig, 2008), psychotherapy (Antaki, Barnes & Leudar, 2005), medical interaction (e.g. Landmark, Svennevig, & Gulbrandsen, 2016) and how these compare to L2 teaching. In terms of encouraging fluency, L2 teaching has parallels to psychotherapy (Nakamura, 2009) and facilitating (Franco & Nielsen, 2018) while in considering the overhearing audience probably more akin to news interviews and in terms of leadership operates in a similar way to business meeting chairs (Clifton, 2006; Svennevig, 2008).

While formulations have been discussed in terms of the CA truism of next turn displaying understanding of the prior, Drew (2022) posits that this is only partly true due to the various displays and understandings that are possible; therefore, the response is one of many possible forms of action that could be ascribed. Drew (2022) argues that action ascription is in itself a social action and I would add that as formulations are a distinct practice in action ascription (in performing an action on the prior turn) they are included in this description. A further action to include in this category are 'candidate understandings' which Heritage (1984a) describes in these terms: '...in proposing a candidate understanding of what an earlier speaker had intended, the producer of an understanding check thereby invites that speaker to confirm (or disconfirm) the adequacy of that proposal' (p.319). Antaki (2012) highlights the potentially risky nature of performing a candidate understanding and elucidates how these can be considered as affiliative or disaffiliative depending on the perceived usefulness or redundancy of the action. Overall, the L2 teachers' position should allow for affiliative candidate understandings as will be noted in the analysis of Chapter 5. Meanwhile, Heritage and Watson (1979) distinguish between self-formulations and other-formulations and how territories of knowledge affect the design of these. It is clearly a riskier endeavour to formulate someone else's utterance than your own. However, special rights are allotted to certain professionals and those in positions of power to formulate others' speech, with teachers being one of those. Formulations are commonly used by teachers to control the established knowledge base in the classroom and ensure understanding is maintained for all participants

There has been limited CA research into formulations in teaching (e.g. Solem & Skovholt, 2017), none in adult L2 or ESOL and only very limited in L2 teaching in general (Kapellidi, 2015). Heritage and Watson (1979) identified gists and upshots as types of formulation, while Solem and Skovholt (2017) categorised formulations in the (general) classroom as: transforming, challenging and summarising. Other relevant studies include Thoms (2014) who identified three categories in an L2 literature classroom: access-creating, funnelling and content-enhancing and Kapellidi (2015) who divided teacher formulations, in a secondary language classroom, according to the teacher's epistemic domain. Solem & Skovholt (2017) suggest that formulations

demonstrate a ‘shared focus on the learnable’, either by summarising the gist of a story, clarifying the student’s response or by formulating a student’s response into an alternative format or ‘higher level’ response. In the same way that the interaction patterns vary depending on the pedagogical focus of the activity being undertaken (Seedhouse, 2004), it would also follow that the teacher’s use of formulation will vary depending on the activity. According to Kapellidi (2015), the teachers’ formulations are affected by the epistemic status of the teacher with K+ formulations requiring confirmation and K- not requiring. What is of interest here is how the L2 teacher makes their selection between correction (and non-correction), repetition, formulations and ultimately positive or negative evaluation of the student response. It is this ‘toolbox’ of responses that will be explored in the analytic chapters of this study.

### **3.3.4 Epistemics**

Finally, attention will be drawn to the notion of epistemics and ‘epistemic status’, which Heritage (2012a) defines as an interpersonal and comparative concept that considers the level of access to certain domains of knowledge that co-participants possess in relation to each other, with the more knowledgeable being K+ and less K-. However, this status is not necessarily a fixed state, as it can ebb and flow over the trajectory of the conversation, and can be at times more ‘shallow’ or ‘deep’. Moreover, ‘epistemic territories’ highlight the complex nature of knowledge and experience (Heritage, 2012a), resulting in competing statuses sometimes being in operation, e.g. a student telling a story in an L2 class being K+ in relation to the content, while the teacher retains K+ status in relation the L2. Meanwhile ‘epistemic stance’ is defined as the actual positioning that interactants take, regardless of their actual epistemic status (Heritage, 2012a). Stivers et al. (2011, p.3) claim that ‘these micro-interactional moral calibrations have critical consequences for our social relations, most directly through our moment-by-moment alignments and affiliations with others’, which serves to illustrate their impact on talk-in-interaction. Moreover, it has been noted that not assuming the appropriate epistemic stance as prescribed by

one's epistemic status can have a significant effect on the interaction, particularly in institutional settings where epistemic status often aligns with institutional status, e.g. in the role of teacher (Stivers et al., 2011). Furthermore, Stivers et al. (2011, p.9) presented three 'epistemic dimensions': 'epistemic access, epistemic primacy and epistemic responsibility', which are useful for understanding the complexity of how epistemics affects talk-in-interaction. They explain how fundamental epistemics are to interaction and the interactants' identity, by claiming that the 'reason [why] we may insist on our epistemic position is because this is so intertwined with how we relate to one another and indeed who we are to one another' (2011, p.16).

In relating these three dimensions to the L2 classroom, the first dimension of epistemic access demonstrates that two norms are seen to exist: firstly, not telling people things they already know and secondly, not making claims from insufficient knowledge. In relation to the typical 'known answer questions' (Schegloff, 2007) that appear in classroom discourse, Stivers et al. (2011, p.11) state that, '[i]n posing a question to a particular recipient, the questioner presupposes recipient access as well as willingness to answer the question.' Following on from this, a proffered response aligns with the presupposition, while a dis-aligned non-response causes interactional trouble. Meanwhile, the second of Stivers et al.'s (2011) epistemic dimensions of 'epistemic primacy' refers to one's rights to knowledge; for example, who has this right between a doctor and a mother regarding her children. It introduces the complex world of upgrading and downgrading of responses, e.g. tag-questions can be either depending on their position in the sequence, in relation to epistemic authority (Stivers et al. 2011; Heritage, 2012a). In the L2/ESOL classroom, this can relate to the student's epistemic right to not be corrected on content about their own lives, countries and cultures. Finally, 'epistemic responsibilities' are delineated, which is explained as not just that you know your identity, but that you also have an obligation to act accordingly (Stivers et al., 2011). It is therefore relevant to claim that L2 teachers will have an epistemic responsibility to know about the target language and may feel uncomfortable if this is questioned or if they fail to correct errors. The topic of epistemics and L2 classroom talk will be returned to in the Discussion Chapter.

### 3.4 Institutional CA

Since its inception in the 1970s, CA has been concerned with investigating talk-in-interaction in any context, including those deemed institutional. According to Sarangi and Candlin (2011), institutional discourse is both ‘task-driven and goal-orientated, with constraints on participation and language use’ (p.10). Thus summarising both the contextual element and the restrictions this forces on participants, which is echoed by Drew and Heritage (1992) who define institutional discourse as task-related talk, where at least one participant in the interaction represents ‘a formal organization of some kind’ and where ‘participants’ institutional or professional identities are somehow made relevant to the work activities in which they are engaged’ (p.3). In breaking this down further, they propose that institutional interactions:

- (1) involve goal orientation by at least one of the participants to some core goal, task or identity (or set of them) conventionally associated with the institution in question;
- (2) may often involve special and particular constraints on what will be treated ‘as allowable contributions to the business at hand’;
- (3) may be associated with ‘inferential frameworks and procedures that are particular to specific institutional contexts’ (Drew & Heritage, p.22)

Therefore, when considering institutional talk the aspect of context is highlighted, with Heritage’s (1984a) claim that utterances are both ‘*context-shaped* and *context-renewing*’ (p.242), referring to the maxim that the context shapes the talk being produced and is in turn then reinstated by that talk, being particularly relevant.

Despite one of the first noted CA studies, Sacks on the calls to a suicide prevention line, being institutional in nature, analysis of everyday talk and investigation into its internal machinery have held greater prominence (Mondada, 2012). Essentially, what stands CA apart from other approaches, is the focus on ‘ordinary’ conversation as being the foundation and comparative benchmark for analysis. However, Drew and Heritage (1992) purport that there is no reason why the practices and perceptions of sequential analysis of everyday conversation are ‘inimical to the

analysis of institutional talk'(p.4). Here, Heritage highlights the reduced options available to speakers in interactional contexts while also hinting at the benefit of comparison to everyday talk:

Institutional interaction tends to involve two related phenomena: (1) a selective reduction in the full range of conversational practices available for use in mundane interaction; and (2) a degree of concentration on, and specialization of, particular procedures which have their 'home' or base environment in ordinary talk. (Heritage, 1984a, p.239)

For example, in Chapter 6, one benefit of the comparison between classroom storytelling episodes and those in everyday conversation, is to ascertain if they provide an authentic practice opportunity for using the target language in life outside the classroom.

Meanwhile, Drew (2008) highlights some of the ambiguities in the distinction between the mundane and the institutional. For example, a family could be considered an institution (Drew, 2008), while chat in an office between two colleagues who are also friends outside of work could be considered non-institutional (Drew & Heritage, 1992). According to Drew and Heritage (1992), institutional talk differs from ordinary talk in that it is shaped by institutional goals and that at least one participant is in a position of authority thus creating an asymmetry of power and/or knowledge; however, as stated previously it is not bound by a physical institutional setting. For example, in an ESOL classroom the teacher holds a more powerful role as the teacher in an educational setting and is more knowledgeable (or an expert) in terms of the target language. Furthermore, Kasper (2009, p.14) notes, it is not the physical location or the designated roles that make talk institutional or not, it is whether an institutional agenda is addressed/perceived by the participants themselves or not that governs its institutional nature. Therefore, Seedhouse's (2004) claim that the CLT goal of providing 'natural conversation' in the classroom will flounder, is not due to the physical setting or the participants, but ultimately a result of the participants orienting to the pedagogical goals.

In terms of sequential constraints, a useful distinction has been made between ‘formal’ and ‘non-formal’ institutional talk (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1991). The more formal types of institutional talk are observed as containing constrained sequences, resulting in strict turn-type allocation. An example of this type of constriction is the IRF/IRE sequence of classroom talk, which normatively expects the teacher to ask the question and evaluate it, with the student’s role being that of a responder. In terms of the pedagogic goals of the language classroom, the elicitation and acceptance of an appropriate response can be viewed as evidence of teaching (and learning) having taken place. Meanwhile, ‘non-formal’ institutional settings give rise to more fluid and less constrained forms of interaction (Drew & Heritage, 1992). While the presence of asymmetries between the participants will still affect the interaction, the talk is closer to that of everyday non-institutional contexts. This is useful for considering how the talk in meaning-and-fluency contexts in the dataset appears to exhibit a hybrid quality, somewhere between the formal and non-formal, i.e. quasi-conversational, which will be explored further in the analysis chapters 5 and 6 on language in meaning-and-fluency teaching contexts.

### **3.5 Research Design**

Video-recordings of ESOL classroom interaction were made with the objective of allowing detailed analysis of ‘naturally-occurring occasions of everyday interaction’ (Heritage, 1984a, p.236). This section outlines the research design of the study. It provides a brief sketch of the research setting (3.5.1) and the participants (3.5.2), followed by a discussion on the processes by which ethical permissions were requested and granted for this study (3.5.3). In addition, the processes of data collection (3.5.4), and transcribing and analysing data (3.5.5), as they were carried out during this project and which form the core of this study are described.

Before detailing the research design for this study, I will explain the process that went into its design and some of the decision making along the way that has altered the final version that I am presenting here. The original aim for the study was to compare the actions and practices of

teachers of ESOL with Speech and Language Therapists (SLT) working with people with aphasia. The premise being that both professionals, while working in vastly divergent contexts (education and healthcare), were essentially ‘teaching language through language’, albeit one teaching an L2 and the other re-teaching an L1. Coming from my background in L2 teaching, it was interesting to research and explore the divergences and overlaps in these two fields. As documented in the university’s Ethics Approval letter (see appendix B), permission was granted for the study and I set about gaining NHS Ethics Approval. Unfortunately, this process was much more time-consuming and complex than I had anticipated, taking me more than 12 months to complete. By this time, I had had the ESOL recordings for nearly 12 months and had made significant headway with the initial analysis which was already yielding notable findings. At this point, the decision was made to concentrate on the ESOL data only for this study. Hence, the rest of this section will only describe the data collection and analysis of the ESOL data.

### **3.5.1 Research settings**

The dataset of approximately 14 hours of ESOL classroom data was video (and audio as a back up) recorded at two settings in cities in the North of England in 2016: an FE college and a private language school. Due to the nature of the teaching provision and size of the buildings, the class sizes differed with the FE college typically having between 15 and 20 students, while the private language school tended to have smaller class sizes of between 4 and 8 students.

In the FE college, ESOL classes are available for students from a variety of backgrounds with many being offered free places due to their status as refugees, asylum seekers or being in receipt of job seekers allowance. The FE college offers ESOL classes from Pre-Entry to Level 2 (which is equivalent to Beginners through to GCSE level). The classes recorded were at Entry level 2, or B1 on the Cambridge European Framework of Reference [CEFR], which is described with the following ‘can do’ statements:



Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. (Council of Europe, 2022)

According to the FE college's website, the ESOL courses 'allow students to develop skills that are essential in the world of work, such as teamwork and being able to communicate with confidence', as well as meeting new people and socialising (Local FE college, 2022). Furthermore, the FE students are guided to take the nationally recognized ESOL qualifications at the end of the academic year. This was reflected in the materials taught in the classes with the teachers seeking to prepare students for the tests. At the FE college, I recorded 2 teachers and their respective classes. In one class, teacher SR stated that she was preparing students for a reading practice test by teaching some of the vocabulary items that will come up in a reading text they will practice in the next lesson. In the other class, teacher SJ was preparing students for the oral part of the exam where they would be required to say where they came from and talk about their country. At the same time, the lessons recorded did not solely focus on these outcomes, with a variety of teaching activities taking place that ranged from more formal to non-formal or conversational.

The private language school has fee-paying students, from a wide variety of countries, who enrol for short or long courses and usually stay with a host family. Many of the students that I recorded were preparing to take the International English Language Testing System [IELTS] at a later date to gain entry to a UK university. However, the students were not yet at a high enough level to prepare for the IELTS test and were enrolled in general English classes (ESOL). The classes recorded in the private language school were purposefully selected to be at the same level as those in the FE college, thus assisting in comparison of teaching practices. As with all L2 instruction, the teachers at the private language school may choose to focus on one of the four

skills (speaking, reading, listening and writing) but often seemed to take an integrated-skills approach (Oxford et al., 1994). An example being one of the lessons that I recorded which began with a listening exercise providing practice and vocabulary input which was later be developed into a speaking task.

Due to the nature of CA and the study's overall research aim to investigate the interaction between teachers and students, I asked the teachers not to select classes that focused mainly on written work and/or student group work. The resulting collection of recordings includes some classes with more formal teaching and others with a more conversational focus. While it is acknowledged that the overarching pedagogic aims of the contexts are likely to affect the teaching and learning expectations of the participants the distinction was not clearly enough defined to treat these as separate datasets. From the overall dataset of approximately 14 hours of ESOL classroom-based teaching, a collection of data fragments were selected and transcribed in order to respond the research questions.

### **3.5.2 Participants**

The researcher exploited her professional contacts in the L2 teaching field to ask for volunteers and recruit experienced and qualified teachers of ESOL, and their respective students. The decision to recruit only experienced and qualified ESOL teachers was taken to ensure a dataset of teaching actions and practices were collected that reflected the professional standard. The professional participants were asked to suggest suitable classes for recording, but the researcher remained ultimately responsible for gaining consent. Site visits were made one week prior to the first recordings to meet with the teachers and students, to verbally explain the project and to hand out the Participant Information Sheets (PIS) and Consent forms (see appendix C). As these were students of English as an L2 it was important to ensure that the project and associated forms were explicated in clear and simple terms at an appropriate level of English. As the students had a variety of L1s, it was not practical to have the PIS and consent forms translated into their L1s.

As well as visiting the classes to provide a verbal explanation and allow the students to ask questions, the researcher took care to design the forms for participants with low literacy and/or language skills, utilizing her professional experience as an L2 teacher.

Along the lines recommended by Schegloff (1992a), any discussion of socio-economic status, sex, and other social identity tags are only relevant if made so in the talk of the participants. Thus in the dataset the participants status as native or non-native in relation to the target language is relevant but the socio-economic status or sex of the participants less so. The only inclusion criteria for the teacher participant selection was that they were experienced, qualified and taught classes that were suitable for the study. Any other factors of differentiation are provided here for information but did not affect their inclusion in the study. There were 5 teachers included in the dataset: 3 at the private language school and 2 at the FE college. A code was provided for each teacher with Y referring to teachers from the private language school and S the FE college. These teacher codes are included in the reference for each extract and in the line by line labelling in the transcript.

**Table 2**

*List of teacher participants*

YM	male, native speaker
YD	male, native speaker
YI	female, non-native speaker
SR	female, native speaker
SJ	female, native speaker

In the classes I recorded there were students from various countries, including Spain, Eritrea, Iran, Angola, Qatar, Turkey and Czech Republic. When transcribing the classes, I gave the students culturally appropriate pseudonyms (a different name from their L1). Due to the large number of students in the FE classes (approximately 16 – 18 students) not every student took part in the interaction and it was sometimes difficult to identify which student was speaking. When I transcribed an unidentifiable single speaker, I labelled this as Sx. When several students were speaking at the same time, which often occurred in choral voice, this was labelled this as Ss. Due to the sheer number of student participants and the fact that the study's focus was on the teacher's talk, I have not listed details of the student participants. As stated previously, all the students were enrolled in Intermediate or B1 level classes which gives a general guide as to their language level. In not seeking to evaluate any longitudinal progress in language learning, no further information regarding the learners' language levels was sought. In this regard, I draw on Tarplee's (1993) argument in the study of child-adult study that the focus is on description and not in proving the effectiveness of the adult's (or teacher's) talk. In this study the focus is on providing a description of the talk-in-response that L2/ESOL teachers perform in various classroom contexts and not charting the learners' L2 acquisition.

### **3.5.3 Ethical considerations and permissions**

This study required that ethical permissions were sought and given from a number of institutions, namely the University of Sheffield, the private language school and the FE college, and from the teacher and student participants. Ethical approval was applied for internally at the University of Sheffield via the standard process and an Approval Letter was provided (see appendix B). As stated at the beginning of section 3.5, the original design for the study also included gathering data from SLT contexts, which it was later omitted from the study. The research design and participants for the L2 part of the study were unchanged from that detailed on the university ethical approval form and no changes were required to be made.

Once potential teacher participants had been identified, initial approvals were established via email with the participants themselves and their management team. The Participant Information Sheet (PIS) and consent forms (1 version for teachers and 1 for L2 students) were sent to the teacher participants with the request to check that the design of the PIS and consent forms were appropriate for their students' level of English (see Appendix C). In Palmer et al.'s (2017) study on capacity to consent in patients with Alzheimer's disease, they note that little research has been conducted on multilingual participants' capacity to give consent and suggest a preference for collaborators to assist in the process. The fundamental right to informed consent was enshrined in the Nuremberg Code (1949), with the influential-to-this-day Belmont Report's (The National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1978) three fundamental conditions to obtain this listed by Mackey and Gass (2016) as:

1. suppliance of sufficient information (i.e. full disclosure about the experiment by the researcher)
2. comprehension on the part of the participant
3. voluntary participation, where the participant is free from undue pressure or coercion

(p.32)

While the first and third condition apply equally to those being asked to take part in a study in their L1 or L2, it is the second point that raises concerns for studies with participants taking part in an L2. Mackey and Gass (2016) posit that PIS and consent forms should ideally be translated into the learners L1; however, this is not always possible either due to cost or practical reasons. For example, some of the participants from the FE college had relatively uncommon L1s from East Africa that would have been difficult to obtain an official translation into. Moreover, it was agreed between the researcher and the teacher participants that the learners' L2 level was sufficient to understand clear and simple information regarding the research process, which together with an oral explanation and opportunity to ask questions would be sufficiently comprehensible from an ethical standpoint. In this study, the expertise of the researcher and the

teacher participants was utilised in designing PIS and consent forms that would be comprehensible to the L2 learner participants.

The participants were given the forms at least one week in advance of the recording session which gave them the chance to consult with others and read at their own pace. In addition, the project was explained verbally with the opportunity provided for participants to ask questions of the researcher and/or their teacher. All learner and teacher participant signed consent forms were collected before any recording took place and have been kept in secure storage. A final ethical consideration is the security of the raw data and the anonymity of the participants in any dissemination of the study's findings. Before leaving the research site, the recordings were downloaded and stored on a password-secure laptop computer and separate encrypted hard drive. Furthermore, follow-up access to the raw data was restricted to the researcher and the supervision team. In order to protect the anonymity of the participants they were assigned pseudonyms which are used in all transcription and publication of these. Any instances of names on the recordings have been silenced prior to being played at conferences and the video image anonymised using the outline tool on Microsoft Movie Maker.

### **3.5.4 Procedures of data collection**

The data for this study were collected during April and May 2016. It was clear that video-recordings would be preferable over audio-only recordings due to the additional ability to view and analyse embodied actions, such as gaze, facial expressions, body positioning and gesture. Audio-recordings were also made of the lessons to provide a back-up to the video-recordings. One common argument against the use of video-recording is the intrusive nature of having cameras in the classroom. In order to minimize any disruption, I only used two video-cameras which were directed at the teacher. It was explained to the students that this was because the teacher was the key focus of the study which seemed to help them relax. I sat at the back of the class while the recordings were taking place, made notes and operated the cameras when

necessary. The lessons were recorded from start to finish, with the cameras turned off for any breaks.

One of CA's key criteria is that the data are naturally-occurring and the methods employed in this study aimed to obtain a sample of talk-in-interaction in the ESOL classrooms that was as naturalistic as possible, which Leydon and Barnes (2020) define as 'interactions that would have occurred regardless of the researcher's interest' (p.138). Nevertheless, it should be acknowledged that certain aspects that are mostly out of the researcher's control may affect the data sample acquired, e.g. the Hawthorne effect which stated that workers worked harder when being observed; however, Leydon and Barnes (2020) point out that this has mostly been claimed to be an overstatement in later research. While other factors may also affect the naturalness of the data, the researcher can only claim to have done their best to minimise these and gathered data that is as close to a reflection of natural talk-in-interaction as possible under the circumstances.

### **3.5.5 Data transcription and analysis**

In the first few months following the recording of the lessons, the researcher employed the CA method of 'unmotivated looking' (Psathas, 1995) to view the data and make notes on any interesting phenomena. Once a particular phenomenon had been identified, the researcher began to build a collection and start on rough transcription of selected fragments.

In the CA method, transcription of the data is a key component of the research process, and one that is normally expected to be carried out by the researcher themselves. Psathas and Anderson (1990) posited that performing one's own transcription is preferable as it helps to develop a certain intimacy with the data. Due to the fact that Jeffersonian transcription (see Appendix A), the accepted transcription format for CA (Hepburn & Bolden, 2017), is extremely time-consuming, it would not have been feasible to transcribe the entire corpus of recordings within

the allocated timeframe of the study. As a result, a two-tier level of transcription was employed with rough transcription first performed on interesting fragments and detailed transcription only completed on excerpts that were being analysed by the researcher and her supervision team for inclusion in the thesis, submitted to a data session<sup>7</sup> or used in a conference presentation or publication.

It is important to note that transcription is a visual representation of the data and should not be considered a replacement. Moreover, Heritage and Atkinson (1984) highlighted how impossible it would be for a transcription to include all the nuanced detail present in a data clip. Therefore, transcription in CA is a merely tool to aid the analysis, which should always be used in ‘close conjunction’ (Heritage & Atkinson, 1984, p.12) with the data, i.e. the actual recordings. Over the next months and years, the researcher watched the data recordings many times and made notes on recurring phenomena and ones that were notable in some way, perhaps by being unexpected (e.g. the teacher’s ‘no’ evaluation in the IRE sequence). Following this process, collections of clips of certain phenomena were made and detailed transcription undertaken for the purposes of data analysis with the supervision team and/or fellow researchers in a data session.

While recognising the value that multimodal analysis has added to CA research over recent decades (e.g. Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986; Mondada, 2019), this study did not attempt to provide a full investigation into multimodal elements of the interaction in the dataset. However, descriptions of some multimodal aspects of the interaction (e.g. gaze and/or gestures) were included in the analysis where these were deemed to be of importance for providing a full description of particular key phenomena (e.g. when teachers’ evaluation turns in IRE sequences). These took the form of bracketed descriptions in the transcription and/or photographic stills from

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<sup>7</sup> Data sessions are meetings between CA researchers, where selected clips are shown and discussed in a group setting. They are invaluable for training CA researchers in the process of data analysis (see Joyce et al., 2022)



the video recordings. Where video stills are provided in-text these were anonymised using the Microsoft Moviemaker outline feature when requested by participants on the consent forms.

Due to the time-limitations of the study and the amount of data that are able to be presented in a thesis, only a small amount of the analytic work undertaken between 2016 and 2022 is presented here. What has been selected for inclusion is intended to provide useful answers to the research questions by providing an overview of teacher responses in the ESOL classroom and more detailed findings on certain phenomena e.g. storytelling.

Section 3.5 has covered matters relating to the research design. Information was provided as to how the research settings and participants were selected. Next, the ethical considerations, including the inclusion of L2 learners as participants in research, were presented and discussed. Finally, a description was provided of the methods used in data collection, transcription and analysis.

## Chapter 4: ESOL teacher responses in form-and-accuracy contexts

### 4.1 Introduction

Improving students' accurate production of the target language is undoubtedly one of the fundamental roles of the L2/ESOL teacher in the language classroom. Students expect to be corrected and take note if positive evaluations are not forthcoming from the teacher (Margutti & Drew, 2014). The IRE sequence has long been recognized as a standard vehicle for this kind of instructional work by teachers, including L2 teachers, that characterizes the more formal interaction of much classroom language (McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979). What is also of relevance is how expanded IRE correction sequences are managed by the L2 teacher (Lee, 2007). By tracing these extended sequences over the ensuing turns-at-talk, it is possible to observe how L2 teachers shape the learners' responses in ways that facilitate the correct production of the target language, thus *doing teaching*. Therefore, what this chapter uncovers are the actions and practices attended to by the participants, including various processes of collaboration and contingency, that are employed to meet one of the key pedagogical goals of L2 teaching, that of accurate production of the target language. Moreover, it has been observed that L2/ESOL teachers may create synthesised or hybrid contexts (e.g. Seedhouse, 1996; Waring, 2004) where the context shifts or merges different pedagogical or non-pedagogical contexts. One such example is shown here where the ESOL teacher diverts from a series of IRE sequence to include an element of meaning-and-fluency interaction that simultaneously checks comprehension of a vocabulary item while asking about the students' cultural experiences (see section 4.5).

In this chapter, ESOL teachers' various assessing moves of the IRE sequence are presented for analysis. These include both positive (section 4.2) and negative evaluations (section 4.3) of the student's prior turn and some examples of extension of the IRE sequence. In analysing these responses in IRE sequences, the terms positive and negative evaluations are adopted in place of CA repair terms of other-initiation and other-repair. In reflecting the lively debate in the CA community (e.g. Macbeth, 2004; McHoul, 1990; Seedhouse, 2004), regarding the use of 'repair' in non-conversational contexts, e.g. the L2 classroom, it is acknowledged that while the

fundamental repair trajectory holds true, correction or instruction sequences are a sub-set that warrant use of terminology that reflects the instructional purpose of the IRE sequences, as adopted in comparable CA studies (e.g. Margutti & Drew, 2014; Wong & Waring, 2008).

Section 4.2 covers simple positive evaluations and ones that include a post-positive evaluation ‘learnable’ (Majlesi & Broth, 2012), e.g. the teacher’s reminder to use present continuous tense to talk about the future in extract 4.3. The next section covers the ESOL teachers’ actions of negatively evaluating, as observed in form-and-accuracy contexts in this study’s dataset. While not attempting to provide a full inventory of ESOL teacher correction practices, several key practices (e.g. use of bald rejection tokens and DIUs) are explored and unpacked. Despite bald rejection tokens, i.e. a negative evaluation with no additional prompting, being flagged as rare in the literature (e.g. Seedhouse, 1997b), they featured regularly in the dataset, thus warranting closer investigation. In the following sub-section, the analysis turns to teachers’ third turn negative evaluations accompanied by prompts that appear to be designed to guide the student to produce a correct answer, or minimally one considered acceptable by the teacher. These include epistemic prompts or ‘reference(s) to a past learning event’ (Can Daşkın, & Hatipoğlu, 2019), invoking grammar or phonological rules, and producing designedly incomplete utterances (DIUs) (Koshik, 2002). While teachers may use these interchangeably, there appears to be a stacking of actions at work here, with the repeated application of contingently scaffolded prompts in order to facilitate the production of a ‘correct’ response.

Finally, two extended excerpts are presented in section 4.4. The first serves to demonstrate how ESOL teachers may effect change in language use by guiding the student from an ‘incorrect’ response to one that is deemed acceptable. Additionally, it is presented to demonstrate the complex nature of these prompt sequences, the skilful scaffolding strategies performed by the teacher (as will be demonstrated as a form of contingent responsiveness) and how the various phenomena under analysis are sequentially ordered in extended talk-in-interaction in the ESOL classroom. The second provides an example of how an ESOL teacher may incorporate meaning-and-fluency focused interaction as a side sequence in a form-and-accuracy pedagogical context,

thus providing a synthesised context (Seedhouse, 1996). Finally, a summary is provided at the end of the chapter.

The research question that will be addressed in this chapter:

Chapter 4: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers use to shape the accurate production of the target language in form-and-accuracy pedagogical contexts?

Please note that a glossary and rationale for use of key terminology used in this chapter is provided in appendix E.

## **4.2 ESOL teacher positive evaluations in IRE sequences**

The chapter begins by analysing ESOL teacher positive evaluations and/or acceptance tokens employed during form-and-accuracy type teaching where, as previously established, the IRE sequence characterises this type of interaction. As will be shown in this section, simple positive evaluations complete a typical IRE sequence before commonly initiating the next IRE sequence in the same or following turn. What was also noted in the dataset and demonstrated with extracts here, were instances of post-evaluation ‘learnables’ that served to extend the IRE sequence or initiate a new off-topic IRE or non-IRE sequence.

This first example is a straightforward positive evaluation sequence. Following some unrelated discussion, the teacher returns the students’ focus to checking answers to a grammar exercise, where they are practicing the formation of present simple and present continuous verb tenses. In this example, the student is conjugating the verb ‘eat’ into either the present simple (‘she doesn’t eat meat’) or the present continuous aspect (‘she is eating meat’).

#4.1 (Y1M:C3L2C1:15’40\_doesn’t eat meat)

- 1 Teacher YM: <le:t’s> continue (.) ah mm:
- 2 Khalid: =°number five°

3           Teacher YM:  yes please ( )  
4           Khalid:           she doesn't↑ (.) <eat meat (.) at all>  
5 →       Teacher YM:  very good Khalid (.) that's it,  
6                           Pat?

Following a voiced hesitation from the teacher in line 1, Khalid can be seen to self-nominate in line 2 by stating the question number to be answered. This is positively evaluated by the teacher with a 'go-ahead' (Schegloff, 1982) in line 3, which is both verbal 'yes please' and non-verbal by directing his gaze to the student. It is noted that non-verbal evaluative tokens (e.g. nodding or shaking the head) are considered equal to verbal evaluative tokens (e.g. Drew, 1981). Despite noticeably slow delivery, Khalid produces a response that the teacher accepts with a typical positive evaluation 'very good Khalid (.) that's it,', which fits Margutti and Drew's (2014) category of an 'explicit positive assessment' (p.439). By opting for an acceptance token of 'very good' together with the student's name and the concluding phrase 'that's it' the teacher effectively closes the sequence, then nominating a different student (Pat) to attempt to answer the next question in the following turn.

Wong and Waring (2008) referred to these minimal acceptance tokens as effectively shutting down any interaction in the classroom. As shown in this extract, following a teacher positive evaluation in the third-turn of an IRE sequence, what normally follows is a teacher's initiation of a subsequent IRE sequence, hence positive evaluations are normally sequence-closing. However, it was observed that post-positive evaluation expansion sequences and alternate IRE initiations occurred in the dataset. Although Wong and Waring (2008) referred to possible expansion actions as recommended ways of avoiding the sequence shut down of the third turn acceptance, it is not a phenomenon that has been extensively detailed in CA literature on L2 teaching contexts. Nassaji and Wells (2000) documented that teachers may 'extend the sequence with *dependent exchanges* until the sequence is completed with an answer accepted by the teacher' (p.406, italics in original text), thus referring to negative evaluations. Meanwhile, Gourlay (2005) described 'embedded extensions' as offering a post-evaluation slot for all manner of actions.

The next excerpt is taken from the same lesson. Several acceptance tokens are followed by an example of a ‘learnable’ from the teacher (line 12). The grammatical choice is between present simple and present continuous; with these as the options (correct option underlined) : 1) ‘Do you mean ...’ or ‘*Are you meaning...*’, 2) ‘...I need to get organized’ or ‘...*I am needing* to get organised’ 3) ‘*I move* to a flat tomorrow’ or ‘I am moving to a flat tomorrow’.

#4.2 (Y1M:C1L2C1:0'00\_so present continuous)

1 Teacher YM: uhm: (.) now let's continue with (.) er:m Pat  
 2 Pat: uhm: (0.3) <do you mean the one for new  
 3 students>  
 4 → Teacher YM: ((nods))  
 5 Pat: <I can't because I need to get organised  
 6 tonight>  
 7 → Teacher YM: I need (.) good  
 8 Pat: and I'm moving- I'm-I'm moving to a (0.2)  
 9 rented flat tomorrow  
 10 → Teacher YM: very good,  
 11 (.)  
 12 → so present continuous for the (.) near future  
 13 (1.2)  
 14 I'm moving  
 15 (1.6)  
 16 Michael?

Teacher YM nominates Pat to answer the next question. He hesitantly launches his response in line 2. The teacher responds to Pat's turn with a nod, or ‘go-ahead’ token, and the student continues onto his next response. At the TRP (end of lines 5-6), the teacher positively evaluates the response so far with the production of a partial repetition (Margutti & Drew, 2014) ‘I need’ and the explicit acceptance token of ‘good’, which prompts the student to continue onto the next part of their response. It is therefore noted that teachers may not wait until a learner's turn is complete before offering evaluation on the target language that has been produced up until this point, thus illustrating the permeability of learners' turns (Gourlay, 2005). If the turn has several

response points, these in-turn evaluations may prove effective as they can be tagged appropriately to the most recent learner utterance.

In line 10, the teacher produces a further upgraded acceptance token of 'very good', before producing an extension in the form of an epistemic reminder of how to select the appropriate verb tense, 'so present continuous for the near future', while gazing at the class. Following a gap, the teacher then repeats part of the student's earlier correct response, before nominating a student to answer the next question.

Whilst the previous excerpts detail positive evaluation sequences in grammar focused contexts, post-evaluation extensions may also occur in activities where the focus is vocabulary, as in this extract from an activity pre-teaching vocabulary for a reading task. In this exercise, the students have been asked to match a lexical item with its corresponding body part, which is shown in picture form and labelled alphabetically. In this excerpt, teacher SR is checking the students' answers to question number seven where they had to match the word ('fingerprint') to a picture of the body part linked to that word (in this case, picture C of a finger).

#### #4.3 (S1R:C1L1C1:20'20\_fingerprint)

```
1      Teacher SR:  number seve:n [  fingerprint
2      SS:                [fingerprint cee cee: fingerprint
3                fingerprint
4      Teacher SR:  cee. [  yuh fingerprint.
5      Sx:                [yes                yes
6 →   Teacher SR:  `kay (.) when do you need to give your fingerprint?
```

**Figure 1**

*Teacher SR positively evaluating 'fingerprint'*



The teacher initiates the first turn of an IRE sequence by stating 'number seven' but in not selecting a student to answer, neither verbally nor by eye gaze, she leaves the response open to the whole class. In the large classes in my dataset, this type of open initiation appeared to engender either choral or individual responses, with many of the students replying spontaneously and without the traditional method of seeking permission from the teacher by hand raising (e.g. Sahlström, 2002). This may be a reflection of different communicative patterns evident in adult classrooms rather than those typical in school settings. On lines 2-3, the audible students' multiple individual responses are recorded. In line 4, the teacher produces an acceptance token in the form of a repetition of the correct response (Margutti & Drew, 2014). In this particular sequence, it is worth noting that when a mix of correct and incorrect responses is given, the teacher appears to select which answers to evaluate, whether positive or negative. Essentially,



this can be seen as part of the skilful in-the-moment processing that L2 teachers are constantly engaged with in the classroom (Long, 2011).

When the known-answer question sequence appears to have reached a potential closing point with 'cee yuh fingerprint' in line 4, the teacher initiates a new sequence with a question: 'when do you need to give your fingerprint'. In this initiation turn, the teacher asks the students to demonstrate not only their knowledge of the meaning of the lexical item but also their cultural knowledge as relevant to living in the UK. Later in this chapter (section 4.1.1) there is an in-depth analysis of this fluency sequence and how teachers and students talk contexts in and out of being. These types of cultural tellings will be examined in closer detail in Chapter 5 as part of the analysis of meaning-and-fluency contexts in ESOL teaching. Following what turns into a side fluency sequence, the teacher returns to the checking the exercise on matching vocabulary with body parts.

These 3 extracts presented here demonstrate how the teachers' design their positive evaluation turns and any post-evaluation 'learnables' or expansions. There are further examples in the following extracts that will also be included in the overall analysis and discussion of this chapter.

### **4.3 ESOL teacher negative evaluations in IRE sequences**

#### **4.3.1 Bald rejection tokens**

In this sub-section, third-turn bald, or simple, rejection tokens produced by ESOL teachers are analysed before moving onto negative evaluations accompanied by various prompts. In the dataset for this study, bald rejection tokens, including unmitigated verbal 'no' tokens and non-verbal rejection gestures, were found to be quite frequent, which contrasted with Seedhouse's (1997) finding of only one example in his entire dataset. While usually resulting in the production of a correct/corrected response from the student that responded to the initial question, they are

also sometimes responded to by a different student, which raises the notion of an established collective epistemic status, i.e. that another students' response is considered equally acceptable due to students being viewed as one homogenous group with a shared epistemic status (Heller, 2017). These aspects of self, other and peer repair (or 'delegated repair' ((Kasper, 1985)) in IRE sequences are unpacked in depth in Chapter 5 the Discussion chapter (Chapter 7).

In this first example of a bald rejection token, the teacher elicits answers to an exercise that the students have already completed individually. What becomes apparent is that the choice for a correct response in this exercise, as in those presented in section 3.2, is limited to two options, specifically present continuous or will tense formation. This perhaps makes bald rejection tokens more likely due to the fact that if an answer is flagged as unacceptable the student should easily be able to work out the correct, alternative, response, while also supporting the preference for self-repair by the learner as cited in the literature (e.g. McHoul, 1990). In the example here, the student uses 'will' to form the response he provides in line 5 '*will you wait for someone*' when the correct answer/target language is '*are you waiting for someone?*'

#4.5 (Y1M\_C2L1C2:28'00\_we're waiting for someone)

1           Teacher YM: so the first verb is the question and uh: Pat  
2           Pat:            what are you doing here  
3           Teacher YM: goo:d (.) what are you doing here perfect  
4                            Michael  
5           Michael:       will you wait for someone  
6 →       Teacher YM: no  
7           Michael:       we're waiting for someone  
8           Teacher YM: we are waiting for someone  
9                            (.)  
10                          and you go next could you Seo-yun

Following a typical positive evaluation IRE sequence in lines 1-3, the teacher nominates Michael to answer the next question. The student produces a response 'will you wait for someone', which is rejected by the teacher with the bald rejection token 'no' in line 6. Despite assertions

in the literature (e.g. Seedhouse, 1997b) that ‘no’ is generally avoided in L2 teaching, it appears quite frequently in this dataset, with one teacher in particular (YM) regularly employing this rejection token. It could be posited that this bald rejection token displays the teacher’s assumption that the student should already know the correct answer, hence there being no need for prompts to guide the student to the correct answer. This can only be evidenced in the talk itself and in this excerpt, the fact that the student produces a correct response in his following turn demonstrates that the student successfully ‘responded’ to the prompt (Koole & Elbers, 2014), achieved with the minimal amount of interruption, as will be discussed in the following analysis. The teacher accepts this response with a near verbatim (only replacing ‘re with are) repetition that closes the sequence; then nominating a student to answer the subsequent question.

This next extract immediately follows from the positive evaluation example shown in #4.2, where students are producing answers to an exercise on present continuous or present simple use to talk about existing scenarios. Following a bald rejection token from the teacher, Michael self-corrects from his initial incorrect response ‘*where do you live at the moment*’ to ‘*where are you living at the moment*’, before an explanation is added by the teacher that includes the invoking of a grammar rule that seems designed to train the students on how to know which tense to choose.

#4.6 (Y1M:C2L1C2:17'30\_where do you live at the moment)

1           Teacher YM:   Michael  
2           Michael:       °hmm° (2.0) where (0.4) I- (1.2) >where do you live<  
3                           (0.5) [at the moment           I st-  
4 →       Teacher YM:           [ ((looks up at Michael)) no↓  
5           Michael:       no↑ (2.0) oh↑ (0.9) where do- where are you living  
6                           [ °at the moment°  
7           Teacher YM:   [yes  
8           Michael:       okay (.) where are you living at the moment  
9           Teacher YM:   do you remember yesterday Michael we said if it’s  
10                          all time (0.4) present simple (0.3) around now  
11                          (0.4) continuous

12 Michael: okay

13 Teacher YM: and this is when?

14 Michael: (2.0) I stay (.) in a bed and breakfast

15 → Teacher YM: no live >the one before<

16 Michael: yeah I I kn-

17 Teacher YM: =is- is it now or is it general

18 Seo-yun: °now°

19 Michael: general

20 → Teacher YM: no it isn't

21 (.)

22 Teacher YM: it says at the moment (.) what does at the moment

23 mean

24 (2.0)

25 Michael: now

26 Teacher YM: now yes

27 (4.6)

28 Teacher YM: uh: good (.) you do the next one Seo-yun

In feedback on a grammar exercise practising the use of present simple and continuous forms, Michael is nominated to answer the next question. He responds hesitantly with notable pauses in line 2 already indicating a likely trouble source. Before Michael has finished his turn, teacher YM looks up at the student and overlaps the beginning of the student's next TCU with a rejection token 'no' (line 4). As previously stated, this apparent permeability of student turns has the benefit of targeting a repair initiation to the preceding TCU. Michael abandons the next TCU and repeats the teacher's 'no' but with a rising intonation. He then produces a change of state token 'oh' (Heritage, 1984b) followed by a self-repair of his previous attempt. In line 8, the teacher accepts this response but instead of closing the sequence and allowing the student to complete the second TCU, he produces a post evaluation elaboration that invokes the grammar 'rule' 'do you remember yesterday Michael we said if it's all time (0.4) present simple (0.3) around now (0.4) continuous'. Michael acknowledges with 'okay', fails to respond to the teacher's further question in line 13 and attempts to complete his second TCU from line 3. In the student's reluctance and response here, a misalignment between the student's

and the teacher's 'projects' seems to cause some confusion. In line 15 the teacher redirects the student back to the previous response. While the student protests in line 16 with a prior knowledge claim ('yeah I kn-'), the teacher pushes for a response to his grammar rule question which the student supplies in line 19. This response is negatively evaluated by the teacher, who further reminds and queries regarding the rule for present continuous usage. The student's eventual response in line 25 is accepted by the teacher who then brings the sequence to a close and nominates the next speaker. What became apparent in this example is how extending a positively evaluated IRE sequence needs careful management, especially as the student may be understandably focused on producing a correct next response to the original grammar exercise.

In this next excerpt, the same teacher as in the previous clip is checking answers to a grammar exercise that the students completed for homework. Using either the past continuous (*was/were \_ing*) or past simple (*\_ed*) verb tense, their task was to appropriately complete the sentences. The incorrect response '*I was doing it again*' is corrected to '*I did it again*'. What is noticeable here is that a different student produces the correct repair than the one who had provided the original response to the question.

#4.7 (Y2M:C1L1C0:16'01\_*did it again*)

1           Teacher YM:   uhh Michael↑  
 2           Michael:       hmm: (.) I got up early,  
 3           Teacher YM:   =good  
 4           Michael:       and I was do:ing <it again>  
 5 →       Teacher YM:   >no< ((*gaze to Michael*))  
 6                       (3.0)  
 7           Pat:           did it again  
 8           Teacher YM:   did it again.  
 9                       (.)  
 10          Teacher YM:   if you think about it ((*stands up*)) let's have a look  
 11                       (.)we'll do it on paper again.

The teacher's IRE initiation in line 1 elicits a response from the named student. Following a voiced hesitation, Michael produces a fluent response to the first part of the question, which is positively evaluated by the teacher at the first available TRP. Again, it is noticeable that 'locally managed' (Sacks et al. 1974) evaluation tokens help to support the smooth running of this feedback activity. The second part of the student's response is delivered at a similar pace and is met with an equally quick evaluative turn from the teacher. However, the teacher's response in line 5 is a bald rejection token 'no', after which he looks up at the student. Following a three second gap, in which the selected student has not produced a second attempt and this is despite there being only one other possible answer, a different student produces the correct response in line 6. This is an example of what Kasper (1985) deigned a 'delegated repair'. The teacher accepts this student's response with a verbatim repetition 'did it again' and appears to close the sequence down. However, instead of moving onto the next question, the teacher launches into a lengthy post-evaluation grammar explanation which is not shown in the excerpt. In assessing the epistemic status of the students, the teacher appears to have deemed it necessary to re-establish the desired 'territory of knowledge' (Heritage, 2012b), thus highlighting the complex decision making that L2/ESOL teachers have to make when one student's (Michael in this case) epistemic status is still 'unresolved'. It is the case that in smaller classes, teachers can attend more carefully to individual student's epistemic status. while in larger classes, such as those in the dataset recorded at an FE college, the teacher is more likely to attend primarily to the collective status.

The following extract is taken from one of these larger classes. As the teacher is arranging tutorials with the students, she takes the opportunity to test the students' ability to say the date using ordinal numbers (e.g *twentieth*), which is something they would be expected to able to do in a speaking test at their language level. What is also displayed in this extract is how a teacher may produce an explicit non-verbal rejection to a student's answer.

#4.8 (S2J:C1L3C:0'00\_twenty-seven of the sixth)

1           Teacher SJ:    how do you say °this°

2 Masoud: (0.8) twenty-seven,  
 3 Teacher SJ: ((nods))  
 4 Masoud: twenty-seven, (.) zero six  
 5 → Teacher SJ: ((shaking head and wagging finger))  
 6 Masoud: no no (.) oh six-  
 7 → Teacher SJ: ((upgraded repeat of previous gesture))  
 8 ((Hassan raises hand))  
 9 Hassan?  
 10 Hassan: the twenty -seventh(.)of the sixth (.) two thousand  
 11 and sixteen  
 12 Pedro: FANTASTic  
 13 Teacher SJ: yeahhh that was brilliant (.) yeah  
 14 Pedro: well done

**Figure 2**

*Teacher SJ's non-verbal negative evaluation*

2.1



2.2



In line 1, the teacher points to the date on the whiteboard and asks the student booking the tutorial slot 'how do you say this'. After an initial hesitation the student replies 'twenty-seven'. At this point, the teacher nods a go-ahead (Schegloff, 1982) to the student, displaying understanding while providing permission to the current speaker to continue. The student repeats his first attempt and continues by saying 'zero six' which is immediately rejected by the teacher shaking her head and wagging her finger. Majlesi (2014) has acknowledged the usefulness of embodied explanations in grammar lessons, which could also be applied here to a negative evaluation. The student understands this bald rejection token as a request to self-repair which he attempts in line 6: 'no no (.) oh six'. This further attempt is rejected by the teacher who upgrades her previous gesture to produce a more robust version by shaking her head and finger more vigorously. At this point and in overlap, a different student raises his hand to show that he wishes to respond (Sahlstrom, 2002). The teacher accepts the second student's self-nomination, who then produces a slow, and over-emphasised, but correct version of the date in ordinal numbers (lines 10-11), which is enthusiastically evaluated by another student with 'fantastic' (line 12). While it is unusual for a student to take the teacher's role as assessor, it is perhaps less so with adult students due to the shallower gradient in epistemic rights (Stivers et al., 2011) between the teacher and learners. It is also a collaborative response that can be seen as a supportive action between the students. In line 13, the teacher concurs with the student's assessment and upgrades slightly what was already an extreme case formulation (Pomerantz, 1986) to 'yeahhh that was brilliant (.) yeah.'. The student that had produced the evaluation turn, then adds 'well done' (line 14) that again fulfills an evaluative and supportive role on close of the sequence. Pekarek Doehler (2010) has highlighted this type of move as 'learning-in-action'; an example of the social action involved in teaching due to the recipients also being included in the interaction and negotiation towards a resolution.

In summarising the use of the bald rejection tokens in the extracts provided thus far, several observations can be made. The explicit negative evaluations are local, non-verbal, unmitigated, and provide an opportunity for the student to self-repair. When the repair is unsuccessful (or not attempted as in extract 4.7), a slot opens up for a peer-repair or delegated repair which is



sanctioned by the teacher in this extract by nominating the student who has raised his hand. The peer-repair is accepted and is sequence-closing.

An alternative rejection token that appears in the dataset are what I refer to as 'incredulous repetitions'. As opposed to the common acceptance token of repeating the student's response with a similar prosody to the original turn (Margutti & Drew, 2014), the teacher repeats the student's utterance with an exaggerated, rising intonation, as also observed by Drew (1981) in adult-child talk. In the following excerpt, teacher SR is checking that the students understand key vocabulary items that is preparation for a reading task that will be completed later in the lesson. She asks which body part is associated with the verbs being tested, in this case the verb '*to reach*'.

#4.9 (S1R:C1L2C5:10'35\_my leg)

1           Teacher SR: I need to rea::::::ch (.) I'm not going  
2   to get it but rea::ch is this  
3           Sx:                           ( )  
4           Teacher SR: so what am I using  
5           Muzuri:                   all  
6           Sx:                           leg  
7   →   Teacher SR: my leg!  
8           SS:                           arm arm  
9           Teacher SR: arm

**Figure 3**

*Teacher SR enacts 'to reach'*



**Figure 4**

*Teacher SR negative evaluation plus gesture*



Prior to the excerpt provided, the teacher had tried to elicit the body part for reach but without success. As can be seen in the excerpt and video still (see Figure 4), she opts to demonstrate the meaning with an embodied enactment 'rea::ch is this', which Tai and Khabbazzbashi (2019) have noted as a common practice in low level ESOL classrooms such as this one. When the answer is not forthcoming in line 3, she produces a further prompt, 'so what am I using', which serves to locate for the students the type of vocabulary item she is looking for (i.e. the target item). One student offers 'all' which will eventually be partly accepted, while another student calls out 'leg'. This is responded to by the teacher with an incredulous repetition 'my leg', that simulataneously seems to tease the student who produced the wrong answer and challenge the students into producing a direct response. Looney and Kim (2019) have argued that third turn teases 'manage a disaligning turn in an affiliative manner' (p.57), which may be the case with these incredulous repetitions as a jokey jovial atmosphere is maintained between the teacher and the students. In line 8, several students respond 'arm arm', which are postively evaluated by the teacher's verbatim repetition in line 9.

While this differs from previous bald rejection tokens, it is still unmitigated and provides no further prompting to guide the students to the correct answer. The teasing also highlights the affiliative manner that many of these bald rejections seem to take which seems to reflect a certain rapport and trust between the teachers and students in the dataset which will be explored further in the following extracts.

This excerpt is taken from a similar point in the lesson as the previous extract. The teacher is introducing a task to the learners (lines 1-2). She is eliciting a definition of the word 'verb' for which the correct response would be something along the lines of '*a doing word*' or '*an action*'.

#4.10 (S1R:C1L2C5:21'30\_not a noun)

- 1 Teacher SR: oka:y. (0.4) over the: (0.7) page (1.0) ((*gestures at*
- 2 *text*)) you have so:me (0.7) verbs
- 3 (.)
- 4 Teacher SR: okay. remember what are verbs?

5 Sx: °noun°  
6 Teacher SR: what is a verb  
7 SS: noun / noun  
8 → Teacher SR: ((wagging finger)) >it's not a noun<  
9 what is a verb  
10 (.)  
11 Sx: °go°  
12 Teacher SR: go::  
13 SS: go:↑ / eat  
14 Teacher SR: ea:t  
15 SS: ea:t / sleep  
16 Teacher SR: slee:p  
17 Muzuri: is an action ((palms out))  
18 Teacher SR: it's an action (.) exactly it's an action

Following the introduction to the task, the teacher prompts in line 4, 'remember what are verbs', giving an indication that she expects the students to know the answer. When one student quietly answers 'noun' in line 5, the teacher repeats her question, thus rejecting that student's response. More students offer 'noun' in response which could be the result of a misunderstanding regarding the what was being elicited, as nouns and verbs are semantically linked as parts of speech. The teacher begins to wag her finger and states 'it's not a noun' in an incredulous tone, followed by a third repetition of the initial question. This negative evaluation turn combines a gesture, a tease and prompt, which seems to indicate that the teacher is doing some interactional 'work' here to elicit an acceptable response.

The student's quiet response 'go' in line 11 is responded to by the teacher as possibly acceptable, which is emphasised by lengthening the vowel sound (line 12). This pattern continues over several turns, until a different student (Muzuri) produces this definition in line 17 'is an action', with the student holding his palms out until the teacher fully accepts his response, 'it's an action (.) exactly it's an action'. Clift (2020) demonstrated how the palm up gesture is frequently used to halt progressivity of talk until an action has been agreed upon and appears to be effective here.

This next excerpt shows how when a rejection token fails to elicit a correct response it may be challenged by a student. The grammar exercise is the same one as in extract 4.6, where the students are being asked to choose between present simple and continuous (or progressive). The student produces an incorrect response ‘*are you meaning...*’ instead of the correct alternative ‘*do you mean...*’.

#4.11 (Y1M\_C2L1C2:14’05\_no why not)

- 1       Teacher YM: yeah good
- 2       Martina:       are you meaning the one for ne-new students
- 3 →     Teacher YM: no:
- 4       Martina:       no↑ why not
- 5       Teacher YM: yeah let’s let’s go through this

In line 2, Martina opts for present continuous ‘are you meaning the one for ne-new students’, which is negatively evaluated with the bald rejection token ‘no’ in line 3. Instead of self-correcting to the only available alternative (the present simple) the student resists the teacher's negative evaluation by asking for an explanation which the teacher goes on to supply (not shown in the transcript). It is perhaps the case that the teacher’s predicted epistemic status for this student, as evidenced by the use of a bald rejection token, was challenged by the student’s response, thus displaying an unexpected epistemic stance which required the teacher to contingently respond to. In this case, from a bald rejection token that was designed to elicit a ‘known’ answer (also the only other option to answer the question) to a lengthy explanation regarding the fact that ‘mean’ is a stative verb (i.e. cannot be used in continuous aspect) so the present simple is the correct option here.

In this final and longer example of a explicit negative evaluation sequence, the teacher moves directly into a post-rejection explanation without first giving the student the chance to self-repair (as was the case in the previous examples). Following the explanation, the teacher uses various other-repair initiators that include some sort of prompt e.g. a reminder of which tense to use ‘past simple’. This extended extract will also be used to gloss the negative evaluations with prompts (i.e. non-bald) that will be investigated in the following section of this chapter.

In this exercise, the students are being asked to choose between either the past simple or past progressive verb forms to complete the gaps in sentences. As becomes apparent at the end of the sequence, the target language in relation to the student's attempt (on lines 4-5) is '*he sat down on the chair while I was painting*'.

#4.12 (Y2M:C1L2C0:3'52\_you're making the sitting long)

1 Teacher YM: uhh Michael?  
2 Michael: umm (3.5) number one?  
3 Teacher YM: mm  
4 Michael: err (0.6) he he was sitting down on the chair  
5 (0.8) while I paint  
6 → Teacher YM: .hah(h)no.hah[(h)nahah.hmmha  
7 [(mimes banging head on table then stands up))  
8 Seo-yun: [.hh.hh  
9 Teacher YM: Michael when you've got the two v(h)erbs. you've  
10 got the two verbs you have to say which one is  
11 long and which one is short. now if you say  
12 that. he was sitting down it means <he was  
13 sitting down>  
14 Michael: mm  
15 Seo-yun: .he[he [hey  
16 Teacher YM: [and in the time when he was [sitting down  
17 [like this somebody came and painted the chair  
18 [(T miming sitting down as chair being painted))  
19 Teacher YM: you see what I mean °Michael°?  
20 Michael: yeah  
21 Teacher YM: cos the se.the sitting you're making the sitting  
22 long (0.3) and the painting short. but is. is  
23 that the real situation Michael?  
24 Michael: fmaybef .hh  
25 SS: [hey hey  
26 Teacher YM: [fmaybef. maybe if it's quick silver again (.)  
27 quick silver.

28 (0.3)

29 Teacher YM: so what could it be?

30 (0.5)

31 → Teacher YM: what should it be?=  
 32 Michael: =he was <sat down>  
 33 → Teacher YM: no. he. >past simple<  
 34 Micheal: he sat  
 35 Teacher YM: good.  
 36 Michael: he sat. <down on a chair (0.3) while I was painter>  
 37 → Teacher YM: I was pai::nt=  
 38 Michael: =>I was painting<  
 39 Teacher YM: good (1.0) well done  
 40 (1.3)  
 41 → Teacher YM: is that ok Michael? always ask that question.  
 42 which one is long in time and which one is short  
 43 (1.2)  
 44 Teacher YM: umm Pat?

**Figure 5**

*Teacher YM laughing at student's repsonse, enacting banging head on table*

5.1



5.2



5.3



5.4



In checking answers to a homework exercise, the teacher initiates an IRE sequence (line 1), prompting Michael for a response. The student inserts a clarification request (Kääntä & Kasper, 2018) here, that is preceded by ‘umm’ and a noticeable pause of 3.5 seconds which indicate uncertainty in the student’s response. The teacher produces a minimal affirmative response (e.g. Gardner, 1997) ‘mmhm’ in line 3, thus resolving the inserted clarification sequence. As the student continues to delay his response, with ‘err’ and a pause, this again predicts upcoming trouble. In lines 4-5, he produces an attempted or ‘try’ response ‘he he was sitting down on the chair (0.8) while I paint’. The teacher responds by laughing loudly while imitating banging his head on the desk (see Figure 5) and then produces a bald rejection token ‘no’ in line 6. At one point a different student laughs tentatively but otherwise the students remain silent, seemingly unclear about the communicative intent of the teacher’s laughter. Holt (2012) demonstrated how laughter may be subject to institutional contingencies. In contrast to ‘laughing with’ someone, ‘laughing at’ someone is commonly viewed as a disaffiliative move (e.g. Glenn, 2003), particularly when the one laughing has a higher epistemic status as a teacher. On the other hand, the playfulness of the move perhaps invokes a certain intimacy or closeness in the relationship between this teacher and the student (Brkinjač, 2009; Holt, 2016).

In the previous excerpts, the teacher allows a slot for self-repair following the bald rejection token; however, in this example the teacher stands up and enters into an explanation of the



grammar point. Following his explanation, the teacher asks the student to verify understanding with 'is that the real situation Michael?' in line 10. In contrast to the preferred display of understanding (Koole, 2010), the student's response is a shrug, smile and 'maybe?' which elicits laughter from the other students and a reference to a previous shared joke from the teacher 'quick silver', thus reestablishing a jovial atmosphere.

In the latter part of this extract the teacher returns to prompting the student for the correct answer to the exercise 'so what could it be' (line 29). When the response is not immediately forthcoming, the teacher reformulates his prompt replacing 'could' with 'should', which seems intended to remind that there is a correct target response rather than different options available. The student's latched response incorrectly combines the past tenses 'he was sat down'. The teacher produces a 'no' rejection token but adds to this a prompt of 'he. past simple', thus naming the correct tense to use. This achieves a successful self-repair by the student in line 34, which is receipted by the teacher with 'good'. In line 36 the student attempts the full response, which the teacher produces a repair initiation to in the form of a 'Designedly Incomplete Utterance' [DIU] (Koshik, 2002) that serves to directly pinpoint the trouble ('I was pai::nt='). The ensuing teacher positive evaluation successfully brings the sequence to a close; however, the teacher adds a post-evaluation expansion that reminds the student of the process to follow when choosing between these two tenses. While this reminder is directed to one student, one can assume that it is also designed for the over-hearing audience (i.e. the other students).

Overall, this extended sequence demonstrates how a teacher may design their prompts in response to the perceived epistemic status of the student(s) but alter as required by the student's display of epistemic stance. The teacher has a range of prompts at their disposal which will be explored in greater detail in the following sections of this chapter.

### 4.3.2 Negative evaluations with prompts

When dealing with an ‘incorrect’ response, teachers contingently design their responses to guide students into producing a correct response and thus closing the sequence. As shown in extract #4.12, these prompts and hints from the teacher may include invoking a rule or past learning experience, and/or DIUs. These prompts range in support from more embedded and less scaffolded to the more explicit and supportive. At one end of this cline, providing only marginally more support than the bald rejection tokens which were analysed in the previous section, are epistemic prompts that signal to the learners that this language point has been covered in a previous lesson (see e.g. Can Daşkın, & Hatipoğlu, 2019) or that this is ‘expected’ knowledge at their acquisitional level of the target language (e.g. invoking a grammar rule). At the other end, DIUs (Koshik, 2002) pinpoint the location of the trouble source and proffer part of the target language for the student to take and complete. In investigating several examples of each of these phenomena, this subsection demonstrates how teachers contingently select prompts to facilitate the students’ self-correction and how these varying practices have sequential implications for the talk-in-interaction in the ESOL classroom.

In this first extract, the teacher elicits a correct response from the student by invoking a grammar rule that student has already been taught (and was also included in extract #4.12). The rule being explained or invoked here is the contrast between past simple and continuous verb aspects, with the simple action being shorter (e.g. *the doorbell rang*) and the continuous longer (*while I was cooking*). In this excerpt, the student’s incorrect response ‘*a train waited when we arriving at the station*’ is corrected to ‘*the train was waiting when we arrived at the station*’. It should be noted that unlike in some of the other lessons, this material has not been pre-prepared by the students; they are producing the answers spontaneously at the time of speaking.

#4.13 (Y2M:C1L1C1:0’00\_waiting is long)

- 1 Teacher YM: <let’s ha:ve a loo:k.> Seo-yun you begin (0.3)
- 2 °numbe::r°
- 3 Seo-yun: °one?°

4 Teacher YM: number ↑one  
5 Seo-yun: a train waited (.) <whe:n (0.2) we:: (1.2)  
6 arri:v↑ing> (0.5) °at the station° (.) °( )°  
7 → Teacher YM: you- so you've got two ver:bs °Seo-yun° <wait  
8 → and arrive> (.) which one is long and which one  
9 is short?  
10 Seo-yun: waiting is lo:ng?  
11 Teacher YM: yeah  
12 (1.0)  
13 Seo-yun: the train was waiting (.) when we arrived at  
14 the station.  
15 Teacher YM: good. (0.6) that's it.

The student initiates an insertion sequence to check which number is to be answered °one?°, with the teacher confirming 'number one' in line 4. Once this had been established, the student produces an attempted response that is both hesitant and mitigated, possibly due to being produced on the spot. By not producing a positive evaluation in line 7, the teacher's non-acceptance is already evident. Moreover, the teacher launches a prompting sequence by invoking a grammar rule in terms of long and short actions that can help language students distinguish between past simple and progressive verb forms (lines 8/9). He concludes this by initiating a new IRE sequence to test if she has understood the explanation 'which one is long and which one is short?'. Seo-yun's response of 'waiting is long' is hedged which suggests that this is a 'try' response, thus becoming contingent on a confirmation from the teacher (Schegloff, 2007). On receiving this confirmation and following a gap of one second, Seo-yun produces a response in line 13 using the correct verb aspects that the teacher positively evaluates and the sequence is brought to a close.

Overall, this extract demonstrates how the invoking of a grammar rule and a reminder on how to apply it (by working out the contrasting length of the talked about actions) can assist a student to self-correct. Although support has been provided, the student has still had to work out the correct verb form to apply to each action, which in theory should help the student manage a

similar construction in future. It therefore appears to be a useful pedagogical practice. In terms of sequential organisation, the invoking of a rule explanation occurred in the third turn of the IRE and launched a side or insertion IRE sequence that ran over lines 8-11. In lines 13-14, the student repeated the second turn of the original IRE, which was positively accepted in line 15; thus demonstrating that despite being explicit and initiating a side sequence, this form of repair practice is a swift and relatively non-disruptive practice in guiding the student to accurate production of the target language.

In this excerpt, the teacher is checking answers to a homework exercise on the use of the present simple and present progressive verb aspects that the students had completed individually. The teacher works to correct ‘*do you try to eat healthy at the moment*’ to ‘*are you trying to eat healthy at the moment*’ by reminding the student of the grammar rule that can help in this situation to work out whether the simple or progressive aspect of the verb should be used.

#4.14 (Y1M:C1L2C2:0'00\_at the moment means now)

1 Teacher YM: the last one: (0.3) err: Micheal↑  
 2 (.) °do you have that one↑°  
 3 Michael: do you ↑try to eat ↑healthy >at the moment↑<  
 4 → Teacher YM: yea:↑h, (0.2) when it's ↑at the moment↓ (.)  
 5 remember Micheal at the moment means no:w.  
 6 Michael: °hm hmm° (0.4) you-you are trying  
 7 → Teacher YM: ((gestures 'swap'))  
 8 Seo-yun: °try°  
 9 Michael: =↑are you tryin to eat  
 10 Teacher YM: very good.  
 11 (0.9)  
 12 Teacher YM: <are you (.) trying> / (typing)

**Figure 6**

*Teacher YM prompting student to 'swap' subject and verb*



In line 1, the teacher nominates Michael to answer the last question of the exercise, adding a confirmation request 'do you have that one', which seems to provide the student with a possible 'opt out' or at least a little extra time to think about his response. In line 3, the student provides a response that is negatively evaluated by the teacher, with the elongated and rising vowel sound in 'yea: ↑h' indicating trouble (Hellermann, 2003). Further, the teacher produces an explanation of why the answer is incorrect in the form of an epistemic prompt that appears designed to remind the student of a previously taught relevant grammar rule; specifically, that the time expression 'at the moment' would result in the present continuous being applicable. Following this, the student uses the correct verb tense but produces a statement rather than a question 'you-you are trying', i.e. with incorrect word order.

In response, the teacher performs a switching/swapping gesture with his right hand that seems designed to orient the student quickly and wordlessly to the incorrect word order in his response (see video still above). Matsumoto & Dobs (2017) reported on how ESL teachers commonly use gestures as shorthand for communicating particular grammar points related to verb tense and aspect which seems to be similar to this teacher's use of gesture to indicate a word swap. While another student quietly repeats the verb in question, perhaps as an attempted peer prompt, the nominated student latches their correct response in line 9, to which the teacher produces an acceptance token 'very good.'. This positive evaluation is confirmed by typing the response into his laptop and displaying it on the screen for the other students to see, thus closing down the sequence. Similar to the previous extract, the use of a prompt that invokes a grammar rule has had the desired effect of guiding the student to produce the target language, albeit with an extra step required in this instance to change a statement into a question.

In this next excerpt from a class at the FE college, a non-verbal epistemic prompt to previous learning is being utilised in the correcting of a pronunciation issue. Due to L1 interference, some of the students struggle to pronounce the 'th' sound at the end of 'mouth' with the result that it can be heard as 'mouse'. Earlier in the lesson, the teacher had drawn a picture of a mouse on the board to remind them of the different pronunciation required to say mouth and avoid accidentally

saying mouse. She later also offered an alternative pronunciation using ‘f’ as in ‘mouff’ for those unable to produce the ‘th’ sound in English. In terms of the task being evaluated, the students are being asked to say which body part is related to a particular verb/action. In this example the eliciting verb is ‘belch’ and the correct body part is mouth.

#4.15 (S2R:C1L2C5:0’00\_what is belch)

1           Teacher YM: ok:, so: (0.2) the fi:rst wo:rd† (0.3) i:s (0.2)  
2                           belch  
3           SS                   mouse / mouse  
4   → Teacher YM: ((points at board))  
5           SS                   mouth / no no mouth / sorry mouth  
6   → Teacher YM: <th> mouth your mouth: [yeah your mouth (.) T H  
7           SS   [ ((laughter)) / mouth  
8   → Teacher YM: your mouth or your mouff  
9                           I don’t think a mouse does this, (.) okay†

**Figure 7**

*Teacher SR pointing at picture of mouse on whiteboard*



The teacher performs an open elicitation in lines 1 and 2. thus, any or all students may respond and results in a choral ‘calling out’ (line 3), with several students proffering responses. The teacher’s non-verbal response of pointing to the picture on the whiteboard in line 4 (see Figure 7) is seemingly designed to be a vehicle of two actions, namely a negative evaluation through silence (by not being positively assessed), as well as a reminding prompt for correct pronunciation of ‘mouth’ (not ‘mouse’ as shown on the whiteboard). The students reply with apologies and/or acknowledgements and produce the correct pronunciation in line 5.

However, teacher YM does not close the sequence down at this point with a positive evaluation which could have been the expected course of action. As demonstrated in section 4.2, the teacher may add a post-evaluation ‘learnable’ by proffering another pronunciation option of ‘f’ rather than ‘th’, then bringing the sequence to a close. What is noted from this extract is how a non-verbal prompt to a previous learning event can be effective in correcting a current sequence with minimal disruption to the progressivity of the talk, hence maintaining a preference for the ‘camouflaging’ of repair in classroom discourse (Seedhouse, 1997a).

In this, the final sequence in this subsection, the teacher responds to the student’s incorrect response to a grammar exercise by invoking a rule. He reminds the student to select between putting the verb into the present simple or present continuous by identifying whether the action has a *general* meaning (and indicates present simple usage) or *specific* (indicative of the present continuous aspect). This results in the student correcting his initial response of ‘*I meet some friends in the afternoon*’ to ‘*I am meeting some friends in the afternoon*’. In addition, an example of an epistemic prompt to a previous learning event (‘*do you remember yesterday we saw about plans*’) and a DIU (‘*that they’re uh*’) are evident in the extract. In terms of L2 actions and practices, it therefore appears that the teacher is selecting from a ‘toolbox’ of available prompts.

#4.16 (Y1M:C2L1C2:19’15\_do you remember yesterday Pat)

1           Martina:       if you: (.) want we could meet (.) and look around  
2                            the city  
3           Teacher YM:  err if you want (.) very good (.) Pat↑



4 Pat: <I meet some friends> in the afternoon (.)↑what  
5 about Sunday morning  
6 → Teacher YM: let's have a loo:k (0.3) uhh: it says look around  
7 the city↑ (1.2) when this person says I meet some  
8 friends (0.2) uh on Sunday afternoon >or in the  
9 afternoon< Pat (.) is it a general thing↑ (0.4)  
10 every afternoon:n (0.2) or is it just (1.0)  
11 specifically:↑  
12 Pat: specific  
13 Teacher: yeah. it is  
14 Pat: is meeting  
15 → Teacher YM: speaking about a pla:n (0.3) do you remember  
16 yesterday we saw about pla:ns  
17 (0.9)  
18 that they're uh:  
19 (0.6)  
20 Pat: meeting some friends  
21 Teacher YM: meeting some friends (.) good

Following the teacher's positive evaluation in line 3 of Martina's response, the teacher nominates Pat for the next answer. The teacher's apparently neutral response of 'let's have a look' in line 6 will most likely be interpreted as a negative evaluation due to a clear positive evaluation having not been produced. Following an exploration of the context in question, the teacher invokes a rule to aid the student with locating the correct tense by asking him to identify if 'it is a general thing every afternoon or is it just specifically' (lines 9-11). The student's response in line 12 'specific' is positively evaluated by the teacher and the invoking of the rule side sequence is thereafter complete.

In line 13, the student attempts a partial answer to the initial question by correcting the first verb (that had been identified as the trouble source) into present progressive form; however, applying an incorrect auxiliary verb at this point. Rather than directly responding to this attempt, the teacher produces further prompts in lines 15 and 16 by invoking the rule 'speaking about a

plan' to signal present progressive for future use with an epistemic prompt 'do you remember yesterday' to refer to a prior learning event. In line 15, the teacher returns to invoking the rule regarding plans and produces what appears to be taken by the student as a DIU, hence an invitation to complete. The student's response of 'meeting some friends' is positively accepted by the teacher's verbatim repetition and acceptance token 'good' (line 21). This extract demonstrates how various prompts may be employed in the ESOL teacher activity of guiding a student to a correct response.

### 4.3.3 Negative evaluations with DIUs

Designedly Incomplete Utterances [DIUs] (Koshik, 2002) are a set of institutional (and particularly pedagogical) practices where a syntactically incomplete word or phrase (TCU) is produced by the teacher, making relevant a completion by the student in the next turn. In contrast to the previous category of epistemic prompts or invoking of a grammar rule, as DIUs pinpoint the trouble source they therefore offer a higher degree of scaffolding or support from the teacher in terms of encouraging self-correction by the student. Essentially, part of the answer is provided and the student is then given the opportunity to complete the turn, which Koshik (2002) posited as a highly unusual turn-taking practice with one TCU being proffered for completion by another.

This extract is taken from the lesson where teacher YM is eliciting responses using the past simple or past continuous aspect. The student's first response of '*when he was held...*' is corrected to '*when he was holding...*' with the help of a DIU that pinpoints the trouble source.

#4.17 (Y2M:C1L2C0:9'45\_good but the first one)

- 1 Teacher YM: but very good. let's continue Michael
- 2 Michael: (1.3) when he was held the beautiful glass (.)
- 3 he suddenly broke it- it

4 → Teacher YM: good. but the first one uh Michael↑ (.) he wa:s↑  
5 Michael: (.) ah: holding  
6 Teacher YM: ↑good.  
7 (3.0) ((typing on laptop))  
8 Teacher YM: and uh Pat↑

The teacher initiates a new sequence by nominating Michael to answer the next question. Following a pause, Michael launches a response which is initially positively evaluated by teacher YM with 'good' in line 4. However, the teacher then draws the student's attention to the first part of his answer, indicating a probable incongruity with this part. Teacher YM further prompts the student by producing a DIU composed solely of the subject and auxiliary verb. This gives the student a clear indication of where the error occurred and how to correct it, by reference to the fact that there are only two options either the continuous or simple verb aspects. He also lengthens the last syllable and produces rising intonation that signals continuation (Koshik, 2002). The student replies with a change of state token (Heritage, 1984b) 'ah' and produces the second part of the verb form 'holding' to complete the correct response to the question, as accepted by the teacher in line 6. The teacher then further accepts the response by writing it on the board (by typing on his laptop) and follows this with a nomination for next speaker.

The following extract is from one of the grammar lessons on past simple and past progressive. One of the students has produced an answer by putting both verbs into the past progressive aspect. While tentatively accepting this as a possible correct response the teacher asks one of the students to reproduce the sentence using the past simple and past progressive, e.g. '*when the campers woke, they saw the sun was shining*'.

#4.18 (Y2M:C1L2C0: \_ah yeah it could be)

1 Teacher YM: yeah so if you did the simple and continuous how  
2 would you do that Moritz?  
3 Michael: when the campers woke  
4 ((looks up at T))

5 Teacher YM: good  
6 Michael: the sun the sun (2.0) the sun (.) saw?  
7 Teacher YM: → so they saw they [saw  
8 Michael: [ahh they saw the sun was shining  
9 Teacher YM: very good. that's also possible

Michael produces the first half of the response, before looking up at the teacher for verification and a go-ahead, which he receives in line 5 ('good'). Following this, the student's attempt at the second half of response stalls, with three repetitions of the first 2 words indicating trouble or a request for assistance. As Koshik (2002) posited there is an important distinction to be made here between a word search (a form of SIOR which will be detailed further in Chapter 5) and a DIU. In this example, the student initiates the repair by indicating the need for help; however, the teacher does not provide the full answer as would fulfil a SIOR. The teacher provides a partial TCU that makes relevant a student completion, i.e. a DIU. In overlap, the student produces a news receipt token and then the full and correct version 'ahh they saw the sun was shining', which is positively evaluated by the teacher in line 9.

In this next extract, teacher YM uses a more complex form of DIU, by incorporating the conjugation of the present simple verb form to elicit the third person singular ending *\_s*. In the exercise the student is first selecting between the present continuous and present simple, which will then lead to the production of '*it says*'.

#4.19 (Y1M:C2L1C2:35'00\_it say)

1 Seo-yun: pass- present continuous  
2 Teacher YM: no always  
3 Seo-yun: ah present simple  
4 Teacher YM: yeah  
5 Seo-yun: err (.) it sa:y say  
6 Teacher YM: → it say::  
7 (0.5)  
8 Teacher YM: → I say. you say. it

9 Seo-yun:               says  
10 Teacher YM:       says good

In line 1, the student responds to an earlier elicitation of which verb tense to use which is negatively evaluated by the teacher in the following turn. The additional prompt of ‘always’ has been shown to be a signifier of present simple use which the student acknowledges with a change of state token and ‘present simple’ in line 3. Following the teacher’s confirmation, the student attempts a response, albeit hesitantly ‘err (.) it sa:y say’. The teacher’s response is a simple DIU that initiates repair and locates the trouble. When this is not responded to, the teacher contingently upgrades this DIU to include the conjugation of the verb ‘I say. you say. It’ which results in the student producing the correct response ‘says’ in line 9. It is therefore evident how DIUs serve a pedagogical intent to assist the student in self-correction and can be contingently adapted as required. As is becoming evident here and is more clearly demonstrated in the following extended excerpt, DIUs may be the last resort for a teacher before giving in and providing the correct response themselves, which would defeat the object of facilitating accurate production of the target language by the students.

#### **4.4 Extended sequences**

##### **4.4.1 Extended correction sequence**

As has been established in the previous sub-sections, ESOL teachers regularly employ various correction prompting practices that serve the pedagogical goal of producing an accurate response in the target language. It has also been observed that these prompts often occur either in tandem or as part of a cline of possible responses. By analysing extended sequences of talk-in-interaction in the classroom, it is possible to analyse how these are contingently selected and sequentially ordered.

Following some preliminary chat at the start of the lesson, the teacher launches into a homework checking activity. The first question has been completed and the teacher nominates a different student to answer the second question. The student produces a correct grammatical response which the teacher then extends into a side-sequence, eliciting the meaning of the word ‘*collide*’ and its word form as a noun ‘*collision*’. What becomes evident in this sequence is the contingent ‘stacking of actions’, in this case the correction prompts covered in this chapter, in order to elicit production of the target language.

#4.20 (Y2M:C1L2C0:5'50\_collime)

1 Teacher YM: uhh: Pat↑  
2 Pat: (2.0) as he was run.ni:ng (0.5) for a bus he (0.7)  
3 <col'lidge> (1.0) with uhh °lamppost°  
4 Teacher YM: good. (.) now this verb, did we have this earlier in  
5 the week. uh everybody↑ to coll:::ide ((writing on laptop))  
6 → >↑do you remem↑ber< ((looks up))  
7 (1.0)  
8 >↑do you remember °this verb°<  
9 Pat: =((gazes at T and gestures colliding))  
10 Teacher YM: >very good<, what's the nou:n  
11 (2.0)  
12 → Teacher YM: stress is on the second part Pat (.) so [it's  
13 Pat: [collide  
14 Teacher YM: =collided yeah↑ (.) what's the nou:n  
15 (0.5)  
16 → uh col:::  
17 (2.0)  
18 Seo-yun: fcollime↑f heh heh heh [heh.  
19 Teacher YM: [fcolli:me colli:me↑  
20 Seo-yun: °yes°  
21 Teacher YM: fsounds good (.) collime↑ (1.5) ((thumbs up to someone  
22 → outside classroom)) collime. uhhh::: no:↑  
23 (.)

24 Teacher YM: what could it be, how do you finish nouns in English  
 25 (.)  
 26 what are typical ways of finishing nouns  
 27 (7.0)  
 28 Pat: °collide°  
 29 Michael: =<co.lli:der>  
 30 Teacher YM: colli:der that would be a person who coll[ides  
 31 Seo-yun: [collignment  
 32 → Teacher YM: collignment or colli::::  
 33 Pat: =colliment↑  
 34 → Teacher YM: °televi::°  
 35 Seo-yun: sion  
 36 Pat: (°coll[ide°)  
 37 Teacher YM: [sion. yeah collision ((writing on laptop))  
 38 Pat: °collision collision ah:°

The teacher nominates a student to answer the subsequent question. While the institutional setting of the classroom bestows authority on the teacher to ask the questions and evaluate answers, it is the textbook that is the 'author' (Goffman, 1981) of these particular exercises. Pat produces his response in lines 2 and 3 which appears to have been positively evaluated by the teacher in line 4 with 'good'. However, as was explored earlier in this chapter (section 4.2), evaluations may be followed by extended turns that contain some sort of 'learnable'. This is the case in line 4, where this acceptance token is quickly followed by a rush-through of 'now this verb', which launches an expansion sequence on the verb 'collime' and ends in the elicitation of its nominal form 'collision' in line 33. The teacher asks 'did we have this earlier in the week', thus simultaneously ascertaining if it has been previously covered but also prompting the students to recall the prior learning. In line 6, the teacher produces a further epistemic prompt with 'do you remember' and looks up at the students to further mobilise a response (Stivers & Rossano, 2010). When no response is forthcoming in line 7, the teacher repeats the epistemic prompt adding 'this verb' and his gaze lifts again towards the students.

In line 9, Pat gestures with his hands to demonstrate his knowledge of the meaning of collide which is assessed positively by the teacher with 'very good' in line 10.

Following this sequence closure, teacher YM immediately launches a new IRE sequence in line 10 by asking 'what's the noun'. This type of metalinguistic elicitation is a form of questioning that is designed for language learners, who would know what a 'noun' is. With no response from the students, the teacher produces a further metalinguistic prompt in line 12, 'stress is on the second part' and nominates the student that answered the previous two turns. The teacher then continues his elicitation with a DIU 'so it's' which Pat seems to preempt with his overlap response in line 13 ('collide'). However, this response is only partly accepted by the teacher, who then repeats his previous question 'what's the noun' and follows this up with a DIU 'uh col' in line 16, with typical elongation of the vowel sound that elicits an attempted response from Seo-yun after a 2 second gap. Koshik (2002) observed that this type of shift from a question to a DIU is a typical example of how L2 teachers design their prompts. What becomes apparent in this sequence is how the teacher is selecting from a 'toolbox' of prompts that contingently reflects the extent of the scaffolding deemed apposite at that point in the interaction. For example, here the teacher switches between metalanguage questions and DIUs, with the latter providing greater scaffolding and support.

After a two second extended TRP in line 17, Seo-yun tentatively responds in line 18 with 'collime' in smiley voice that turns into laughter. In response the teacher repeats her answer twice in a similarly smiley voice, which the student appears to treat as asking for confirmation and she responds 'yes', albeit quietly, in line 20. The teacher continues to 'test' or weigh up the response by teasing the student with 'sounds good' before eventually negatively evaluating the response with 'uhh no'. Ultimately this can be viewed as a rejection of the student's response, but its design allows the student to retract her answer if she so wishes (following line 19) and has a playful/joking tone, which is perhaps a more common feature of adult classroom discourse. This type of teasing that can accompany a rejection token was examined in more detail in the earlier section on 'bald rejection tokens' (see 4.2). Here, it reinforces the suggestion that ESOL



teachers may use teasing in the correction sequences, in order to simultaneously challenge (i.e. you should know this) and affiliate (i.e. don't take this too seriously) with the adult learners.

This rejection token is followed by an epistemic prompt and an elicitation of the formation rules for noun suffixes. In line 26, the teacher reformulates this invoking of a rule as 'what are typical ways of finishing nouns', which seems designed to be easier to understand, thus further scaffolded. Following a 7 second gap, during which the teacher maintains gaze towards the students, a different student attempts a response in line 29. This response receives an explanation from the teacher in line 30 as to why it is incorrect, i.e. the wrong suffix. What is notable here is that while one attempt is negatively evaluated with no prompt supplied by the teacher (i.e. a bald rejection token), the next attempt prompts an explanation from the teacher, which seems to demonstrate a responsiveness from the teacher in reacting to the perceived epistemic state.

Seo-yun has a second attempt with 'collignment' in line 31. Initially, this appears to have been accepted by the teacher's repetition in line 32 but he follows this with a longer DIU. In line 33, Pat produces a further incorrect response which gives rise to an alternative DIU from the teacher. With this DIU, 'televi', the teacher is scaffolding further by eliciting an 'easy' suffix that the students should know and Seo-yun produces the correct suffix 'sion' in line 35. The teacher positively evaluates her response by repeating it and adds the full version 'yeah collision'. Ultimately, the teacher has failed to elicit a student-repair and has supplied the correct response himself. The teacher's responses can be viewed as a form of scaffolding (Koole & Elbers, 2014), with the teacher increasing or decreasing support depending on the type of prompt chosen.

#### 4.4.2 Extended example of a synthesised context

This extract is presented as an example of how ESOL teachers often shift between from the pedagogical context of form-and-accuracy to include a meaning-and-fluency side-sequence on the topic of cooking, that is a follow up to a previous conversation from earlier in the lesson. What is therefore demonstrated here is how the ESOL teacher skilfully manages the interaction to talk varying pedagogical contexts in and out of being.

#4.21 (Y2M:C1L1C0:3'52\_do you know how to cook extended)

1 Teacher YM: here we go. er we've got number three  
2 ((gaze to Seo-yun)) Seo-yun?  
3 Seo-yun: his hair caught fire when he was cooking chips  
4 Teacher YM: yes  
5 (.) ((gaze to Pat))  
6 → Teacher YM: have you ever had an accident like that in the  
7 Kitchen. like that?  
8 Pat: ((mouths no))  
9 Teacher YM: with cooking  
10 SS: ((all shake their heads))  
11 Pat: short hair ((points to his hair))  
12 Teacher YM: you have short hair ((laughs)) yeah. [have you?  
13 [(gaze at Seo-  
14 yun))  
15 Seo-yun: no  
16 → Teacher YM: do you cook Seo-yun?  
17 Seo-yun: yes sure [I  
18 Teacher YM: [can all Korean girls cook?  
19 Seo-yun: mmm no. these days. they prefer you buy something  
20 Teacher YM: ah really, readymade readymade=  
21 Seo-yun: =yes readymade or or  
22 Michael: ( )  
23 Seo-yun: ((holds head while 'doing' a word search))  
24 (9.0) ((Seo-yun searching on phone))

25 Seo-yun: delivery

26 Teacher YM: delivery ah yes

27 Seo-yun: is is English word?

28 Teacher YM: yes absolutely yeah ((starts typing on laptop))

29 home delivery

30 Seo-yun: yes

31 Teacher YM: yeah ((still typing)) (5.0) and er so but you do.

32 you know how to cook?

33 Seo-yun: sure

34 Teacher YM: good

35 Seo-yun: cos I like cooking. and when I was when I was a child

36 Teacher YM: ((nods)) a child

37 → Seo-yun: my mother. taught[ teaching taught

38 Teacher YM: [hmm taught

39 Seo-yun: taught me how to make food

40 Teacher YM: great. that's important. does it take a long time

41 to make Korean food?

42 Seo-yun: yes. hmm all of the food is make maybe over the 30

43 minutes

44 Teacher YM: over 30 minutes yes. you could say=

45 Seo-yun: =first of all cook?

46 Teacher YM: you could say ((typing)) you could say Korean food

47 is labour intensive

48 Seo-yun: labour intensive?

49 Teacher YM: yeah labour is work. intensive means hard lot of work

50 Seo-yun: ahh labour intensive

51 Teacher YM: yeh

52 (3.0)

53 Teacher YM: but very good. let's continue Michael

In the extract provided, line 1 shows the start of an IRE sequence. Teacher YM nominates the student Seo-yun to provide a response to question number 3 from a grammar exercise where students had to select from the past simple and past progressive verb tenses. Seo-yun produces a correct SPP which is accepted by the teacher with a minimal positive evaluative token 'yes',

thus closing the sequence. Rather than simply continuing with another known-answer question, the teacher asks a different student if he has ever had a similar accident in the kitchen. At this point, the teacher's question can be seen to include an element of vocabulary checking of the previous response while also eliciting a personalised contribution from one of the students. Over several turns of collaborative production between the teacher and the student, it is established that he hasn't had a similar accident but displays understanding of the initial prompt by joking that he has short hair (line 11). Following an acknowledgement of the joke, Teacher YM asks Seo-yun 'do you know how to cook' which serves to further the meaning-and-fluency context while maintaining the same overall topic as the previous IRE sequence. The teacher contingent responsiveness is demonstrated in lines 18 and 20, as he either asks a reformulated question or supplies useful vocabulary (e.g. 'readymade') for the student to adopt into her turn. Further analysis of the teachers' responses in similar meaning-and-fluency contexts will be presented in Chapter 5, e.g. extract 5.5 unpacks the student's word search around line 23. What is noted here is how the teacher and students appear to comfortably shift from form-and-accuracy interaction to that focused on meaning-and-fluency, albeit where the teacher retains control of the topic.

The following analysis from line 31 to 51, uses the terminology of repair as applied to meaning-and-fluency contexts in Chapter 5 (see Appendix E for definitions of terms). Once the teacher has finished writing up some vocabulary on his laptop (which is serving as the classroom's whiteboard), he produces a FPP in the form of a personal question 'do you know how to cook?' that follows on from their recent talk about food delivery in South Korea, the student's home country. The student produces a minimal affirmative response ('sure') which the teacher positively assesses ('good'). In the following turn (line 35), the student expands the sequence by providing a fuller response that includes an explanation 'cos I like cooking'. She follows on with a recollection of 'and when I was when I was a child' which is accepted by the teacher nodding and repeating the student's turn-final lexical item 'a child', thus a confirming partial repetition (Schegloff, 1996a). The student continues with a further turn that is hesitant and demonstrates some uncertainty over the correct verb form to use. The teacher's overlapped continuer 'hmm' appears designed to confirm the choice of the past simple which the student

eventually selects, via self-repair, and is confirmed by the teacher's repetition of 'taught'. Therefore, without any explicit metalanguage, disrupting interruptions or discussion, the student is able to accurately complete her turn in line 39. This confirming of the appropriate language, through a partial repetition serves to shape the L2 without negatively affecting the progressivity of the talk. Seedhouse (1997a) posited that the camouflaging of repair is a common phenomenon in the L2 classroom, that serves to maintain the progressivity of talk in meaning-and-fluency contexts. Meanwhile Tavakoli and Zarrinabadi (2018) noted that explicit correction can increase the learners' willingness to communicate due to increased confidence, which reflects one of the pedagogical goals of the L2 classroom.

Following this, the teacher produces an assessment of the student's talk as 'great', adding a further affiliating assessment (Goodwin, 1986) 'that's important' as perhaps would be typical in everyday conversation. Thus, the synthesised or hybrid (Seedhouse, 1996) nature of this type of fluency interaction in the L2 classroom of conversation and pedagogy is highlighted, with the teacher's assessments open to being interpreted as a positive comment on the fact that she can cook and/or an assessment that her talk was appropriate and understood. Once the side-fluency sequence draws to a close, the teacher nominates a different student with a FPP of an IRE sequence to continue the activity of checking the answers to the grammar exercise. Therefore, it is noted how teachers and students appear to effortlessly switch from one context to another, while noting that a certain amount of synthesising is happening here with students appearing to expect explicit correction and approval from the teacher regarding accuracy in the target language. These observed phenomena will be unpacked further in the following chapter.

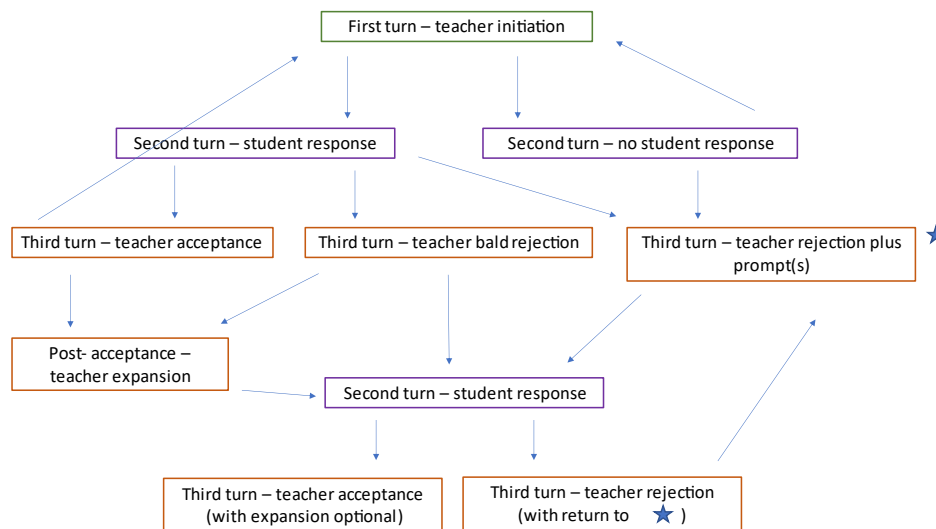
#### **4.5 Summary**

Chapter 4 has focused on the formal, form-and-accuracy context of L2 teaching. More specifically, it investigated ESOL teacher third turn evaluations in IRE sequences and post-evaluation extended sequences. Building on Lee's (2007) claim that the third turn of the IRE is

where ‘the practical enactment of classroom teachers’ pedagogical work’ (p.1204) can be observed, this study set out to unpack this by including the post-third turn expansion sequences in the analysis. The result is an over-arching understanding of the activity of instructional language correction practices in form-and-accuracy contexts in the adult ESOL classroom, as shown in Figure 8.

**Figure 8**

*Variations on the typical IRE sequence observed in instructional sequences in adult ESOL classrooms*



The visual representation of sequences featured in the above diagram illustrate the steps involved in ‘doing evaluation and correction’, from the IRE initiation to eliciting a correct response from the student and thus closing the correction sequence. In the analysis, it was noted that while a teacher’s positive evaluation in the third turn is normally closing-relevant, as posited by Schegloff (2007), it may be expanded on in the following turn with some type of ‘learnable’ (Majlesi & Broth, 2012) or meaning-and-fluency ‘side-sequence’ (Jefferson, 1972). Meanwhile,

when a student's response is negatively evaluated by the teacher, these can take various forms and may simply be the lack of an acceptance token as oriented to by K- participants (Wilkinson, 2013). Following a negative evaluation, it has been noted in this chapter that the teacher normally attempts to facilitate the student's self-correction, by assessing the students' epistemic status and producing appropriately scaffolded prompts. In terms of a repair trajectory, this shows a preference from an other-initiation to self repair by the student.

What is also of interest is how these prompts appear to form a loose cline of support from bald rejection tokens through to DIUs that pinpoint the trouble and provide part of the response for the learner to complete. Although various actions and practices are employed by the teacher, it was not possible to claim that these were employed along a cline, in a step-by-step approach. Rather what is apposite is that, while initiated by the teacher who ultimately sanctions the correct response, the correction sequence is negotiated and worked on collaboratively by the students and the teacher, as such 'working-on-talk' in this case 'doing correction' can be observed as a collaborative activity. Furthermore, these extended sequences are useful in illustrating how the participants appear to work together via the practice of contingent responsiveness to establish an epistemic ecology (Goodwin, 2013) in a facilitated group learning context.

In the next chapter, Chapter 5, the ESOL teacher's collaborative shaping of learner talk in meaning-and-fluency contexts is examined. This marks a shift from the analysis of form-and-accuracy contexts in this chapter to meaning-and-fluency. In these fluency trajectories, the terminology used in the analysis changes to reflect the fact that these are no longer the known-answer questions of an IRE sequence, with 'positive evaluations' replaced by 'continuers' and 'negative evaluations' by 'repair initiations', as will be unpacked in the following two chapters.

## **Chapter 5: ESOL teacher responses in meaning-and-fluency contexts**

### **5.1 Introduction**

As discussed in the Literature Review (see Chapter 2), extensive research in CA and classroom discourse has described IRE sequences as the predominant sequential structure in L2 classrooms, in which teachers' questioning strongly limits the contents, turn-design and length of students' responses (cf. Gardner 2013). With language learning being recognized as keenly interactional by nature (Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Walsh, 2006), Illés and Akcan (2017) have argued for greater inclusion of 'natural/real' talk in the language classroom. Moreover, Firth and Wagner (2007) claimed that liminality should be placed at the core of studies into L2 learning as it presents more opportunity for 'real' language practice. While there is general consensus for more focus on pedagogical activities that will increase student participation and opportunities for meaningful dialogue between students and teachers (Seedhouse, 2004), there has to-date only been limited research conducted into the interactional practices of meaning-and-fluency type teaching and associated tasks/activities (e.g. Reddington, 2018; Waring, 2014). Therefore, a major component of this thesis is to redress that imbalance by focusing on meaning-and-fluency contexts in the ESOL classroom.

During meaning-and-fluency teaching the pedagogical goal shifts from accuracy to fluency, with a range of activities being set up that seek to maximise opportunities for spontaneous and extended learner contributions in the target language. Ideally, these will be related to their own personal experiences and opinions in order for more 'authentic' communication to take place (Roberts, & Cooke, 2009). To this end, teachers will regularly let errors pass (Firth, 1996) in favour of the progressivity of talk and allow a freer allocation of turns compared to the highly structured IRE sequences. However, as Seedhouse (2004) maintains, the institutional setting of the classroom will ultimately preclude this actually being realized as 'natural conversation'.



In an ESL classroom activity described as ‘conversational practice’, Reddington (2018) describes how students responded to her query of what traditional music they would recommend to her as a visitor to their country. She notes that this type of activity fits Seedhouse’s (2004) definition of a meaning-and-fluency teaching context, where despite setting the topic herself, the students have greater epistemic access (Heritage, 2012a) to what is being communicated. She thereafter positions herself as an ‘active recipient’ (Psathas, 1995), whose role is to be informed by what is communicated. She noted that the teacher’s role changes to that of an active recipient due to the shift in epistemic status, with the learners becoming K+. It is argued that this shift in epistemic status results in an alternative sequential organisation (than is traditionally expected in classroom discourse). Meanwhile, Waring (2014) posited that spontaneous episodes of ‘conversational talk’ during the lesson, such as asking students about what they did at the weekend, could help to better integrate students’ life-worlds into the classroom. Building on this line of research, this chapter focuses on how teachers design their turns to facilitate and shape learner fluency practices in the target language.

Following on from the previous chapter, where teacher responses during and post IRE sequences in form-and-accuracy contexts were analysed, this chapter examines various examples of meaning-and-fluency interaction, where learners are encouraged to produce extended sequences based on their own lives/experiences. While many of the extracts were taken from ‘conversational’ classes, where the focus was explicitly on fluency practice, some of the excerpts occurred as ‘side-sequences’ in form-and-accuracy classes (as shown in extract 4.21). As Waring (2009; 2014) observed, it is not unusual for L2 teachers to permit or encourage a temporary shift from the pursuit of IRE sequences to more conversational talk and then back again. As opposed to form-and-accuracy contexts, there is no correct or incorrect answer to be evaluated by teacher (i.e. these are not typical pedagogic known-answer questions (Schegloff, 2007)). However, the teachers retain a certain facilitator, expert or gatekeeper role in terms of what is deemed acceptable production in the L2; resulting in the teacher’s K+ status being maintained in terms of language (the L2) but relinquished to the student in terms of the content.

This chapter examines a wide range of classroom talk in meaning-and-fluency contexts from the perspective of teacher responses, i.e. how ESOL teachers contingently design their turns to shape talk-in-interaction in the target language. In the literature review chapter, an overview of CA work on repair practices and the application to research in the L2 classroom was presented. Similar to other-correction being highlighted as unmarked in child-adult talk, this is also the case in the L2 classroom (Norrick, 1991). While greater incidences of correction (as a subset of repair) occur in form-and-accuracy contexts (Seedhouse, 2004), repair practices are also found in meaning-and-fluency contexts with some being more akin to everyday conversation (e.g. word searches). In analysing classroom interactional sequences, where the focus is on meaning-and-fluency and managing extended turns-at-talk, teacher practices that have been identified in this study include continuers, repair, candidate understandings and candidate formulations, which are analysed in this chapter. These orient to the overall pedagogical goal of improving the students' fluency while producing understandable talk. In comparing these to teacher responses in form-and-accuracy studies, this study hopes to shed further light on ESOL teachers' activities and practices in meaning-and-fluency contexts.

With the focus in meaning-and-fluency contexts being on the production of understandable responses to fluency prompts, the focus in this chapter is on how mutual understanding is established and how learner responses are shaped by the L2 teacher. Following on from this Introduction, in section 5.2 teachers' continuers are the focus. In section 5.3, the focus shifts to teacher responses to student-initiated repair, e.g. word searches. Meanwhile, in section 5.4, teacher initiated repair and formulations are unpacked. Section 5.5 focuses on other-corrections and an extended sequence is provided in section 5.6.

The research question addressed in this chapter:

Chapter 5: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ in shaping fluent production in the L2 in meaning-and-accuracy pedagogical contexts?

## 5.2 ESOL teachers' use of continuers

In contrast to positive evaluations in the third turn of an IRE sequence, in meaning-and-fluency talk-in-interaction continuers often serve as SPP 'go-aheads' to a FPP initiated by the student, e.g. explaining a cultural phenomenon from their country. In these cases, the contribution from the learner is acknowledged and approved by the teacher, thus signalling that the learner may continue which expands the sequence. On the other hand, continuers may also operate in a third-turn position, where the teacher has asked a question, albeit not a known-answer question, the student responds and teacher produces an acknowledgement or continuer.

Continuers such as 'okay' and 'yeah' are common throughout meaning-and-fluency teaching contexts in the dataset. According to Schegloff (1982), minimal responses such as "uh huh', 'mm hmm', 'yeah', head nods, and the like - at best claim attention and/or understanding, rather than showing it or evidencing it" (p.78). Meanwhile, Goodwin (1986) posited that continuers and assessment tokens both occur in same environment but are treated differently sequentially, with continuers often bridging turns whereas assessments usually close turns, often in overlap. Schegloff (1982) adds that continuers signal that a speaker can produce more, i.e. give a go-ahead, as no current intention to initiate repair. A different take on these is that they also serve as evaluation tokens in a pedagogical L2 setting, indicating to the student that you have been understood and may continue. Therefore a dual role exists of encouraging extended fluency whilst also performing an evaluation that the utterance is acceptable (or at least understood). This is in part due to the institutional nature of interaction in the L2 classroom, in that all talk has to be sanctioned by the teacher which perhaps blurs Goodwin's distinction between continuers and assessment tokens.

In the following extract, the teacher and the students are discussing how Qatar, the home country of two of the students, coped with high temperatures prior to air conditioning becoming common. Ahmed is arguing and/or explaining that due to global warming and pollution the earth is hotter

now and was therefore cooler in their grandfathers' time. In this fragment, various examples of continuers are observed.

#5.1 (Y2D: C1L2C?:11'00\_air conditioning)

1 Ahmed: yeah but if you want to compare like before<sup>↑</sup> (0.8) >fifty  
2 or sixty years< the (1.5) the earth was: (1.0) cleaner than  
3 now?  
4 → Teacher YD: of [course  
5 Ahmed: [worse<sup>↑</sup> [pollution  
6 → Teacher YD: [yeah yeah  
7 Saleh: and if- like in- the the desert (.) like countries those  
8 countries  
9 → Teacher YD: hm mm  
10 Saleh: if you look like in an open space  
11 → Teacher YD: hm mm  
12 Saleh: it's cooler (.) th-than in like in the city  
13 → Teacher YD: yeah of course (.) yeah  
14 (.)  
15 Clara: hmm  
16 Teacher YD: yeah in the [city  
17 Saleh: [for me my gradfather did not live in the  
18 capital city  
19 → Teacher YD: right,

In this fragment, the students are producing some extended turns-at-talk, thus permitting talk that is aligned to the pedagogical focus on meaning in meaning-and-fluency contexts (Seedhouse, 2019). The teacher appears to carefully monitor the learners' language in these exchanges, producing continuers in the form of go-aheads, thus claiming understanding rather than orienting to accuracy as was observed in Chapter 4. Overlapping talk that is a characteristic of everyday conversation is noted in this interaction. Ahmed responds to the teacher's continuer 'of course' in overlap, perhaps anticipating some sort of repair, by clarifying with a summing up

formulation of his previous turn 'worse pollution' which the teacher accepts with 'yeah' in line 6.

In line 7, Saleh takes over from Ahmed, with their shared understanding or epistemic status in relation to the topic, and comments that it is cooler in the desert ('open space') than in the cities. While the student's turn includes a false start ('if- like the desert') and some non-standard production of the L2, the teacher does not indicate any concerns regarding inaccuracies and instead displays understanding by the production of continuer tokens 'hm mm' and 'yeah course yeah', thus signalling agreement and encouraging the student to continue with their extended turn-at talk (Schegloff, 1982). Kurhila (2006) has noted that in non-pedagogical interaction between native [NS] and non-native speakers [NNS], NS participants orient to producing turns 'which display understanding rather than non-understanding' (p.220) which is akin to what we see here. In many instances in meaning-and-fluency contexts in the classroom this seems to be the case, which is evidence for the hybrid nature of this interaction, somewhere between the pedagogical and non-pedagogical and will be further unpacked in Chapter 6. Following a voiced agreement from a different student, the teacher produces a confirming repetition of part of Salah's response 'yeah in the city', as identified by Schegloff (1996a) as an agreement practice.

As previously alluded to, the L2 learners' speech is characterised by some hesitation, false starts (self-repair) and reformulations that Temple (2000) notes are more frequent than those of native speakers. However, the ability to negotiate oneself out of a potential linguistic 'cul-de-sac' through the practice of verbal self-reformulation or self-repair practice is recognised as a key element of more advanced L2 competence (Chiang & Mi, 2011), and was noted by Temple (2000) to be a common feature of both NS and NNS speech. Therefore, it can be assumed that despite possibly affecting progressivity of talk, the ability to perform self-repair and request assistance in the form of self-initiated, other-repair is a useful component of talk that should be encouraged in the L2 classroom. Further examples of repair and correction and their reflection on the pedagogical goals of the class are unpacked in the rest of this chapter.

In this following excerpt, Teacher YD has responded to a prompt in the handout that concerns being late. He comments to Clara that in Spain it's normal to be late. Clara aligns with this suggestion by recounting how she and her friends manage meeting up for a night out in her native country of Spain. The teacher's use of continuers as go-aheads is frequent in this excerpt, and culminate in a closing formulation.

#5.2 (Y2D: C1L2C?:11'00\_all come later)

1 Clara: yes I meet all night for example with me friends  
2 → Teacher YD: yeah  
3 Clara: at erm for example at tw[elve o'clock at the  
4 → Teacher YD: [yeah  
5 Clara: =night (.) because e:rm (.) all know we know that  
6 → Teacher YD: =hm mm  
7 Clara: all erm all come lat[er ] so: um we meet at  
8 → Teacher YD: [hm mm]  
9 Clara: twelve o'clock but really we: meet half past twelve  
10 → Teacher YD: okay  
11 Clara: ffor examplef  
12 → Teacher YD: yeah um  
13 Clara: is normal  
14 → Teacher YD: okay  
15 (.)  
16 Teacher YD: yeah the problem is when you [like meet someone  
17 Clara: [but  
18 Teacher YD: from another country  
19 Clara: we write for what's app  
20 → Teacher YD: okay  
21 Clara: I go now  
22 Teacher YD: right so you're still in contact  
23 Clara: =yeah  
24 Teacher YD: but you still kind of know that everyone will  
25 be late even without the message  
26 Clara yeah

From lines 2-14, Clara produces an extended turn, essentially a telling about how her friends and her have a shared understanding that meeting for a night out in Spain at twelve o'clock really means half past twelve. The teacher produces multiple continuers that encourage Clara to continue her telling. Sequentially, these follow the expected bridging of one turn to the next (Schegloff, 1982) in the learner's extended telling.

In line 16, the teacher is attempting to take the topic in a slightly different direction by the use of a topic shift marker 'the problem is' (Lee & Hellermann, 2014). However, Clara interrupts in line 17 with 'but', ignoring the teacher's initiation regarding people from a different country and furthers her previous telling with additional information regarding the use of 'what's app' to keep in contact. Rather than the teacher commanding the topic in classroom discourse as would certainly be expected in more formal teaching e.g. IRE sequences, it is Clara that retains control of the topic in this instance. Wong and Waring (2008) highlighted the control of topics, the recognition of topic shifts and the management thereafter as key interactional aspects for L2 learners to practice in the classroom which are hard to plan for. The example shown in the dataset demonstrates the value of teachers shaping talk in the L2 by encouraging learners to launch extended turns-at-talk and to engage in negotiation of talk and topic with the teacher.

In lines 22 and 24-25, the teacher produces a closing formulation, summarising the topic (Solem & Skovholt, 2019) and aligning with his original proposition that it is normal to be late in Spain, to which the student confirms her agreement. It is also worth noting here that the teacher's closing formulation has a further action in confirming that the original prompt (from the handout) has been appropriately responded to, a practice that is analysed in more depth in the following chapter on storytelling episodes.

### 5.3 ESOL teacher responses to student-initiated repair sequences (including word searches)

According to research by Kurhila (2006) into non-pedagogical interaction between NS and NNS, it has been noted as common for NNS to produce requests for assistance or for confirmation of lexis or grammar when communicating in the L2. These may take the form of word searches, which Lerner (1996) highlighted as designed for conditional entry by recipients, while Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) noted that word searches do not necessarily request assistance from the recipient(s). For example, if the speaker's gaze is directed away from the recipient, as is the case in extract #5.5 when the student keeps her gaze fixed on her phone while searching for the vocabulary item. However, it is noted that even when this student locates the word herself, the answer is still subject to confirmation by the teacher due to his L2 expert and institutional role. As noted in the previous section, ESOL teachers appear to design their turns in meaning-and-fluency contexts to minimise disruption to the progressivity of talk and to encourage learner contributions.

The following extract is from the extended example #5.15, which is analysed towards the end of this chapter in order to explore how the varying L2 teacher activities and practices work together in an extended sequence. At this point in the chapter, it is the ESOL teacher practices that occur in response to particular learner responses (e.g. a word-search or an error) that are being unpacked action by action. In this fragment, the teacher and the students are discussing the relative merits and demerits of being the elder, younger or middle sibling, when one student initiates a SIOR sequence.

#5.3 (Y2M: C1L2C?:11'00:my first brother)

16 → Michael: yeah (.) because why I'm the youngest hmm (.) my  
17 parents are not so: (.) strai<sup>↑</sup>n (.) not so:  
18 Teacher YD: sstrict ((writes on laptop))  
19 Michael: stric-strict yes (0.5) and (0.6) the example my- my  
20 first bro<sub>u</sub>:ther<sup>↑</sup> when he go ou:t (.) my father say



In line 17, Michael performs a ‘try-marked’ (Sacks & Schegloff, 1979) word search, a form of self-initiated other repair (SIOR), that elicits help from another participant. It has been noted that L2 (NNS) learners may make use of L1 (NS) speakers to provide responses to these word searches, thus bypassing the preferred self-repair mechanism by making it explicit that they are recruiting assistance (Brouwer, 2003). The teacher provides the requested lexical item ‘strict’ in line 18 and makes it officially part of the lesson content by typing it into the laptop that is being projected onto the wall as the class whiteboard. In line 19, Michael accepts and repeats the proffered response before continuing his telling. It is therefore noted that despite the interruption of the repair side-sequence, there is minimal effect on the progressivity of the talk (Seedhouse 1997a), allowing the student to go straight back to continuing their telling.

In this next extract, the class have been discussing the topic of bullfighting. Clara, who is Spanish, has been assigned, or taken on, a K+ expert role on this topic. Prior to the start of the extract, Clara has commented that she does not like to see the bull suffer. Here, there is another example of a student requesting assistance in the form of a word search; however, on this occasion it is one of the other students that provides the target language.

#### #5.4 (Y2D\_C1L4C?\_7'00\_bullfight)

1 Teacher YD: but I think all bullfights the bull will have pain  
2 (.)  
3 Clara: no because here  
4 Teacher YD: hm mm  
5 → Clara: when the >I don't know the[ name<  
6 Teacher YD: [the torrero?  
7 Clara: no (.) erm is like  
8 Ahmed: the sword  
9 Clara: espada the  
10 Teacher YD: the swo:rd sword  
11 Clara is here  
12 Teacher YD: yeah

13 Clara: the- the bull [(.) uh die (.) at the moment instant  
 14 Teacher YD: [hm mm instant okay  
 15 yeah  
 16 Clara: but what th-the torredo is bad [  
 17 Teacher YD: [hm mm  
 18 → Clara: er don't put well the the  
 19 Teacher YD: sword  
 20 Clara: sword so the<sup>↑</sup> bull  
 21 Teacher YD: suffers  
 22 Clara: yeah

In line 3, Clara disagrees with Teacher YD's opinion that all bulls experience pain in a bullfight. In his study of urban secondary school classrooms, Rampton (2006) noted in that non-IRE type classroom dialogue, student disagreements with the teacher often helped to move the discussion forward and enhanced the teaching overall. Following the teacher's continuer in line 4, she adds 'when the' followed by the verbal initiation of a word search 'I don't know the name' with an accompanying gesture. The teacher's suggestion is rejected in line 7 and then one of the other students produces the correct lexical item 'the sword'. In an attempt to clarify, Clara says the word in Spanish to which the teacher confirms 'the swo:rd sword'. Rather than repeating the 'new' word, Clara continues with her explanation as to the correct placement of the sword. It then appears that Clara forgets the new vocabulary item and is this time prompted by the teacher (line 19). Thus, contingent co-construction of the talk is evident here in order for the student to successfully complete her extended turn-at-talk.

Similar to extract #5.4, the teacher initiates a fluency sequence by asking a personal question based on the topic of the form-and-accuracy lesson. The question is directed at Seo-yun and regards the current cooking practices of females in South Korea. In this excerpt from the longer extract provided in #4.21, the focus is on the word-search or SISR that the student initiates, as well as the teacher's actions and practices employed to further the student's fluency.

#5.5 (Y2M:C1L1C0:3'52\_can all Korean girls cook)

1 Teacher YM: do you cook Seo-yun  
2 Seo-yun: yes sure I  
3 Teacher YM: =can all Korean girls cook  
4 Seo-yun: mmm no. these days. they prefer you buy something  
5 Teacher YM: ah really readymade readymade=  
6 → Seo-yun: =yes readymade or or  
7 Michael: ( )  
8 Seo-yun: ((holds head - initiates word search))  
9 (9.0) ((Seo-yun searching on phone for word))  
10 Seo-yun: delivery  
11 Teacher YM: delivery ah yes  
12 Seo-yun: is is the English word?  
13 Teacher YM: yes absolutely yeah ((starts typing on laptop))  
14 home delivery  
15 Seo-yun: yes  
16 Teacher YM: yeah ((typing))

Following the teacher's candidate formulation in line 5 of Seo-yun's response in line 4, Seo-yun accepts the teacher's suggestion 'yes readymade or or'. She then does a 'searching for a action by holding her head. By withdrawing from the conversation, holding her head and searching on her phone, she shows that she is engaged in a word search but does not actively recruit assistance, e.g. by directing gaze at any of the recipients (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986). The teacher and other students wait while Seo-yun searches on her phone, presumably engaged in getting a translation. In line 10, Seo-yun communicates the findings of her search 'delivery', which is followed by a confirmation sequence between the student and teacher over lines 11-16. The teacher's post-answer repeat (Schegloff, 1996a) 'delivery ah yes' thus registers the supplied information as both new and acceptable in a form that Heritage (1984b) referred to as an 'echo exclamation'. Seo-yun double checks the teacher's agreement in line 12 which is emphatically provided in the following turn with the added confirmation of typing the word onto the classroom board.

What appears to be the case here is that while the student's word search was resolved by the student herself with help from her phone (i.e. SISR), the teacher retains the role of sanctioning and verifying the new vocabulary item. Hence, the teacher is shown to be operating from competing K- and K+ roles: K- for content and K+ in terms of the target language, which overall result in the co-construction of talk, here extended turns-at-talk, between the student and the teacher. As such this is not dissimilar to non-pedagogical talk between a NS and NNS (e.g. Brouwer, 2003).

#### **5.4 ESOL teacher-initiated repair and formulation practices**

Other-initiated repair signals some sort of trouble in talk that the recipient has flagged as requiring an action (e.g. clarifying) for intersubjectivity to be maintained (Schegloff, 1992). However, other-initiated repair and/or correction are considered fundamental to the business of 'doing L2 teaching' and has been noted as furthering talk rather than hindering progressivity. For example, Monteigal (2021) posited that other-initiated repair by the teacher can be a prominent tool in eliciting speech from students in a class that was focused on improving participation in talk. Meanwhile, Kurhila's (2006) finding in NS-NNS talk (non-pedagogical) that NS tended to avoid OISR aligns more closely with everyday talk which she suggests is due to not wishing to impose on or 'test' the NNS. However, in meaning-and-fluency contexts the teachers' role differs markedly from that of a knowledge 'tester' or 'assessor' to that of a facilitator and perhaps a gatekeeper of appropriate language use in the L2 while checking understanding. It is therefore expected that a hybrid style of teacher-initiated repair will emerge in the analysis that sits somewhere between formal classroom teaching and everyday talk between NS and NNS.

In this section, teachers' repair or confirmation initiations that elicit a student repair or confirmation are investigated. These include open repair initiators, candidate understandings and formulations. In the following sub-section other-correction, where the teacher by-passes the option for student-repair, are investigated.

This first extract takes place in the liminal space just before the lesson starts. It is common at this time for students to be chatting to each other and/or L2 teachers chatting to the students, either for practical reasons, e.g. dealing with a latecomer or managing seating arrangements, or simply to make small talk to build rapport and create a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. One of the students, Seo-yun, had knocked over her travel cup but was able to catch it before any of the contents spilled. Following this incident, another student has been trying to make a comment about the student's quick action but has been struggling to make himself understood. In this extract there are multiple incidences of teacher repair initiations that may or may not be successful in leading to repair. What can be considered here is how the liminal context may result in a set of repair practices that are more akin to everyday, i.e. non-pedagogical, talk.

#5.6 (Y2M:C1L1C0:0'44 : good reflex)

1 Michael: you go every day to the school  
2 Seo-yun: [( ) ((smiles))  
3 → Teacher YM: [to the school?  
4 Seo-yun: ((smiles at M))  
5 Michael: yeah ((points at S))  
6 → Teacher YM: which school?  
7 Michael: no she ((points at S))  
8 [(T is pulling down projector screen))  
9 Seo-yun: [huh  
10 (.)  
11 Michael: she goes every day to the school  
12 → Teacher YM: she goes every day to the school?  
13 Seo-yun: huh  
14 Michael: yes  
15 Pat: ((laughs))  
16 Teacher YD: I know!  
17 Michael: no. (.) she went

Following Michael's repeated statement regarding fellow student Seo-yun of 'you go every day to the school', the teacher initiates repair by repeating part of Michael's turn with a rising intonation. Schegloff (2007, p.100) listed the 'partial repeat' as a common form of other-initiated repair, which launches an insertion sequence that is designedly non-minimal i.e. exposed, with the FPP making a response or repair relevant from the original speaker. Michael simply confirms his original turn with 'yeah', while adding a pointing gesture to Seo-yun. At this point, the teacher adds a further partial repeat, adding a clarifying interrogative 'which school', which seems designed to elicit a fuller response from the learner. However, only a conflation of the confusion is achieved, as Michael rejects this prompt and points again at Seo-yun. She utters an open class repair initiator (Drew, 1997) 'huh' and looks confused.

It is remarkable, and perhaps testimony to the teacher's good rapport with the group of students, that despite the apparent growing confusion caused by multiple repair insert sequences, a relaxed and convivial atmosphere is maintained. Schegloff (2007, p.106) notes that two successive repair sequences are not uncommon, yet more than three is highly unusual. One reason for this may be that the elasticity of an 'insertion' is stretched too far by multiple repair initiation and repair adjacency pairs that the reference back to the trouble source is lost (or snapped), which could go some way to explain the apparent confusion between the participants in this extract.

In line 11, Michael reformulates his claim from 'you' to 'she' by stating that 'she goes every day to the school'. This is repeated by the teacher word for word with the addition of a rising intonation that queries the utterance, thus a full repeat initiation. Seo-yun adds a further open repair initiation of 'huh' and Michael replies with a simple affirmative, thus confirming but not clarifying as requested. As the breakdown in communication escalates to increasingly comic levels, Pat laughs and the teacher simply exclaims 'I know'. Following this, Michael attempts a repair in line 17, 'no. she went', which serves to partially address the trouble in terms of the grammar but still leaves the rest of the meaning to be extracted as the sequence continues. In performing only OISRs, the teacher here seems to be aligning more closely with the role of a NS in non-pedagogical talk, thus creating a hybrid context. On the other hand, he may have avoid



03        Sesuna:            sometimes you can headache (            ) close  
04    → Teacher SR:    sometimes?  
05        Sesuna:            sometimes you can get ache  
06    → Teacher SR:    get a headache?  
07        Sesuna:            yeah yeah you close your eyes  
08        Teacher SR:    you close your eyes no close your eyes but blink is  
09                            open and close open and close

Line 1 is the third turn of an IRE sequence, where the teacher evaluates the students' responses ('yeah') before adding a further combined verbal and embodied definition. The student's initiating comment in line 3 is responded to by the teacher with a partial repeat that launches a repair sequence. The partial repeat helps to pinpoint where the repair is required, which is a preference of repair practices (Schegloff et al., 1977). As such it is similar to the DIUs (Koshik, 2002) as seen in Chapter 4 which are common in form-and-accuracy contexts in this dataset.

In line 5, the student performs a repair, which the teacher responds to with a candidate understanding 'get a headache' that includes a replacement of 'ache' with 'headache'. A candidate understanding makes an acceptance or rejection token from the original speaker relevant. In line 7, the student accepts the understanding-check but fails to provide a receipt or uptake of the proffered lexical item, e.g. by repetition (Ellis, 1994) or incorporation into their turn (Brouwer, 2003). Rather than perhaps pursuing a receipt of 'headache', the teacher returns to the lesson focus of pre-teaching vocabulary items, e.g. blink, for a story task that will take place later in the lesson, as has been shown to be typical management of moving in and out of the IRE sequence in L2 lessons (Waring, 2009).

A further example of a teacher candidate understanding is shown in this fragment that occurs during one of the 'conversation' classes in the dataset, i.e. a lesson with meaning-and-fluency as the focus. The teacher and two Qatari students are discussing whether they will have to work when they return to their home country.



#5.8 (Y2D\_C2L4C3\_8'00\_just relax)

1 Teacher YD: but when you go home will you have to work<sup>↑</sup>  
2 Ahmed: no  
3 Teacher YD: that's it just relax  
4 Ahmed rel[ax  
5 Clara: [holidays  
6 Ahmed: and have your salary  
7 Teacher YD: perfect  
8 Saleh: like me we didn't work (.) a day  
9 → Teacher YD: you haven't worked a day yet  
10 Saleh: yes  
11 Ahmed: speak about yourself  
12 Teacher YD: it's a hard life

The teacher's initial question on line 1 is addressed to two of the students who share similar life experiences, coming from Qatar and being on some kind of government scholarship. The student's minimal response on line 2 is responded to by the teacher with a formulation 'that's it just relax'. In lines 4-7, there is a relaxed tone to the conversation with students' comments overlapping with each other and the teacher providing an affiliative assessment 'perfect' in line 7. In line 9, the teacher performs a candidate understanding on Saleh's previous turn 'you haven't worked a day yet', which includes an 'insertion' (Kendrick, 2015) of the verb form 'haven't' in the place of 'did not'. This is arguably also a form of other-correction which will be explored further in the following sub-section. The understanding-check is minimally accepted by the student in the next turn and the interaction then continues as before, thus noting the minimal effect on progressivity of the talk. Finally, the teacher's comment in line 12 'it's a hard life' provides an assessment of the situation described by the two students, with perhaps an element of teasing as has been noted as fairly common in the dataset and discussed in more depth in Chapter 4.

What is noticeable in the following extract, is that the teacher provides a candidate understanding with an embedded learnable and other-correction, thus, further illustrating how an understanding-check may serve as a vehicle for additional actions. This fragment comes at the end of a discussion on what is bad advice in terms of improving your memory. Here they are discussing the merits and demerits of coffee drinking.

#5.9 (Y1I:C1L3C2:8'00:bad advice)

1 Clara: hmm  
 2 Ana: Bu[t there are peo:ple (.) err:umm (.)=  
 3 Ahmed: [( )]  
 4 Ana: =who drink coffee↑ (.) that feel nervous↑  
 5 Clara: =°ner[ous° yeah  
 6 Ana: [and it's ( ) and they can't concentrate  
 7 → Teacher YI: ah so [it makes- you mean it makes you more anxious↑  
 8 Ahmed: [( )]  
 9 Ana: yes  
 10 (1.0)  
 11 → Teacher YI: °anxious like [ffff° ((gestures))  
 12 Ana: [so it depends (.) on the- on the person  
 13 Clara: =yes  
 14 Ana: I think  
 15 Teacher YI: hm mm

In line 2, Ana launches an extended turn where she proffers her opinion on one of the negatives of coffee drinking being an inability to concentrate. In line 7, the teacher produces a candidate understanding that is initiated with a 'news receipt' and 'so', as will be explored further in the subsequent section on candidate formulations in meaning-and-fluency contexts. In addition, the teacher's turn 'ah so [it makes- you mean it makes you more anxious' includes an embedded learnable 'anxious' which is marked by emphasis on the word and a post-gloss, including a physical demonstration. One key difference here to the learnables that are discussed from the storytelling data is that it appears more clearly as a correction rather than a new lexical

item. The student accepts the understanding-check in line 6 and continues her turn. The teacher's further demonstration in line 8 is largely ignored (and overlapped) by the student.

#### 5.4.2 (Candidate) formulations

In the following chapter, it will be noted that ESOL teacher formulations frequently occur in storytelling episodes, either to clarify meaning and/or to provide a summing up/closing. In other meaning-and-fluency contexts, such as the ones analysed in this chapter, while formulations do occur, they appear to be less frequent and less commonly combined with a learnable. In taking the original speaker's utterance and transforming it, what is also of interest is how the teacher formulations reflect the contrasting epistemic status of the teacher as being simultaneously K- in content and K+ for the target language. While not strictly speaking initiating repair, the teacher formulations require a response from the student that is similar to a candidate understanding.

In the following excerpt, the students have been engaged in a long fluency sequence, where they were trying to collectively communicate a message regarding the difference between smiles as greetings in the UK and in the part of Africa they come from. While retaining a K+ status as the expert of the L2, the teacher is noticeably in a K- position regarding the content that the students are trying to explain. This extract begins near the end of the extended sequence, just as the teacher appears to be starting to grasp the students' communicative intent.

#5.10 (S1R:C1L2C5:20'00 English people smile)

52 Muzuri: ... he's like hello and he like this ((holds mouth closed))  
53 Teacher SR: English people?  
54 Muzuri: yeah  
55 Teacher SR: no smile  
56 Muzuri: no he [smile but  
57 Fatima: [( ) hello don't say hello  
58 Ss ((overlapping talk))

59 → Teacher SR: ahh:: so it's like a small smile instead of hello yeah  
60 (.) yeah yeah  
61 SS: ( )  
62 Muzuri: Sudan is like in my Sudan I can say ( ) salam  
63 aleikum ( ) like this hmm no smile

lines 64-77 omitted

78 Keicha: just the action (.) Africa is everybody people action  
79 SS: yeah  
80 Keicha: England no action hi °hi°  
81 Teacher SR: ((*laughs*))  
82 SS: hello hello / hi /Africa  
83 → Teacher SR: so in Africa the actions are BIG ((*holds arms out*))  
84 Keicha: yeah yeah  
85 → Teacher SR: and in England the actions are small  
86 SS: yeah no teacher ((*ss talk*))

Following a lengthened 'news receipt' (Heritage, 1984b), the teacher formulates the phenomenon that the students have been explaining as a display of understanding 'so it's like a small smile instead of hello yeah' (line 59). A first observation is that the formulation is initiated by the word 'so', which Bolden (2009) stated as being sequence initiating and potentially enacting participant agendas. Secondly, it is noted that this formulation is a FPP that makes relevant a SPP acceptance (preferred) or rejection (dispreferred). What follows is actually the teacher producing the acceptance tokens 'yeah yeah' and further clarification from the students e.g. Muzuri in lines 62-63. After further explanation and clarification from the class, the teacher attempts a second formulation over lines 83 and 85, which again begins with the word 'so'. Another observation here is that the teacher uses simple language (big/small) in the formulation and does not attempt to include any kind of 'learnable', thus rendering this formulation a clarifying type. Following a mixed response from the students (line 86), the discussion on cultural differences continues.



## 5.5 ESOL teachers' use of other-corrections

As discussed in section 5.1, while usually marked in conversation, other-corrections are common in classroom discourse. In the dataset, ESOL teachers' attending to the tension between accuracy and fluency in meaning-and-fluency contexts became evident, with the teacher frequently waiving a possible opportunity for repair or correction. However, what this section will unpack is how when the teacher does opt to correct a learner's contribution this is skilfully managed to minimise the interruption in favour of progressivity.

In this first example, the teacher performs a recast of the student's turn in line 15 from 'take a coffee' to 'have coffee', which the student accepts by incorporating the correct form into a reformulation of their original turn in line 18. It occurs shortly after the fragment presented as #5.9 in which the teacher and students were discussing the benefits and drawbacks of coffee drinking.

#5.12 (Y1I:C1L3C2:10'00:have a coffee)

15 Ana: take a coffee to be:  
16 → Teacher YI: have coffee  
17 Clara: no  
18 Ana: have a coffee to be to: to:

It is observable that the performance of a recast has only a minimal effect on the progressivity of the talk with the student able to pick up from where she was 'interrupted' and continue her turn relatively unimpeded, thus a 'camouflaging of repair' (Seedhouse, 1997a) is noted. In addition, the advantage to the teacher is that a correct form has been produced by the student and attended to by the overhearing audience (i.e. the other students). While the teacher does not draw attention to the 'teachable' collocation<sup>8</sup> at this point, thus allowing the student to continue her turn, she could choose to review this later in the class.

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<sup>8</sup> A collocation is a habitual combination of words that may not translate easily from one language to another.

The following sequence occurs during preparation for a reading text, where the teacher is eliciting examples of the positives and negatives of being the oldest or youngest sibling. It is from the same sequence as the extended extract in sub-section 5.6 of the chapter. Here, Michael is explaining how, as the youngest of three brothers, he was always beaten up in fights with his older brothers. In terms of other-correction, it is observed a second other-correction may be initiated when a successful student uptake has not been supplied.

#5.13 (Y2M: C1L1C0:3'52\_I couldn't win)

- 1 Michael: when I'm ten years old my second brother sixteen years  
2 old and the other nineteen years old <I don't can>  
3 → Teacher YM: I couldn't  
4 Michael: I couldn't can win  
5 → Teacher YM: I couldn't win  
6 Michael: I couldn't win  
7 Seo-yun ((laughs))  
8 Teacher YM: in a fight? ((mimes boxing))  
9 Michael: yeah  
10 Teacher YM: but really they were fighting with you!

In Michael's turn in lines 1-2, there is an error in production of the past form of the verb, yet this is not attended to by the teacher, i.e. Firth's (1996) 'let it pass' principle is applied. What the teacher recasts or corrects is the form 'I don't can', which the student had uttered at a slower pace, perhaps indicating a form of self-initiated repair, to 'I couldn't' in line 3. The student accepts the correction and apparently attempts to integrate this into his continued extended turn-at-talk. However, he produces a second error in the same phrase 'I couldn't can win' (line 4), which once more the teacher recasts. The student receives the correction by adopting the correct utterance into his next turn and the talk resumes. While these other-corrections are explicit corrections, requiring a side-sequence of talk, they are dealt with relatively quickly and 'normal' talk is resumed.

The following example demonstrates how the teacher may actively co-construct turns through the use of an other-correction. This fragment is from a ‘conversation’ class where the teacher and students are discussing good tips for improving your memory.

#5.14 (Y1I:C1L3C2:2'00?:said to me)

1 Clara: the example is not good (.) the  
2 Teacher YI: hm mm  
3 Clara: I think (.) but for exam-for example umm (.)  
4 before err Ahmed sa:y (.) me (.) [that ]  
5 → Teacher YI: [said to me]  
6 Clara: said to [me that for he (.) ] remembers  
7 → Teacher YI: [so told me. said to me hm mm]  
8 Clara: my name (.) he write in: Arabic language  
9 Teacher YI: ah hm

Clara's turn in lines 3-4 contains several false starts and self-repairs. The teacher does not intervene until she produces an other-correction of 'Ahmed say me' to 'said to me'. As can be seen in line 6, Clara accepts the correction, repeating it and continuing with her turn. At this point, the teacher intervenes (interrupts) again with a fuller correction including the structure for 'told me' as opposed to 'said to me'. However, the student effectively ignores the teacher here and continues with her turn, which is completed in line 8. It is noticeable in this sequence that the teacher treats the students' turns as quite permeable (Lerner, 1996) i.e. the teacher treats it as his 'right' to enter the student's turn and correct items. This will be explored further in the extended sequence that follows.

What has clearly been demonstrated in these examples of other-correction or recasts in the ESOL classroom, is that a preference for minimally disruptive or camouflaged repair exists (Seedhouse, 1997a). There is a skilful element related to the timing of these recasts that allow the student to 'pick up' the correction, incorporate it into their utterance and continue with fluent production of the target language. It should also be noted that while learner uptake has been noted in some of these extracts, this is solely in relation to analysing the contingent responsiveness of the



teacher's next turns, as will be unpacked further in the subsequent section. The issue of uptake is only considered to be of importance in this study in this regard and is not systematically analysed. This is not to undermine the importance of learner uptake but to acknowledge that the learner uptake may not only follow in the next turn and the lack of uptake does not provide evidence of learning.

## 5.6 Extended sequence

In this section an extended sequence is presented from a lesson that culminates in a reading activity from the coursebook. Prior to the reading task, the teacher pre-teaches vocabulary that will be useful for understanding the text. As a more conversational and personal way to elicit this vocabulary, he asks the students whether they have older or younger siblings and how they feel about their position amongst their siblings. While the teacher has control of the topic, he has no prior knowledge of the students' families, with the resulting prompts therefore being genuine (i.e. not known-answer) questions. Nevertheless, the teacher retains an expert and pedagogical role in relation to the L2 with the resulting contradictory status of being K- for content but K+ for language.

One of the benefits of unpacking an extended sequence is being able to observe how the ESOL teacher skilfully and contingently reacts to the student utterances, shaping the learners' L2 while also maintaining shared understanding. The analysis and following summary provide examples of the L2 teacher actions and practices in this meaning-and-fluency sequence, before considering their sequential organization.

#5.15 (Y2M:C1L2C?:11'00:brothers and sisters)

- 1 Teacher YM: hmm: what do you think Pat, do you like to be in the
- 2 middle
- 3 Pat: (. ) yeah I like it

4 Teacher YM: uh ((*nods*)) hmm?  
5 (.)  
6 Teacher YM: [Michael d-do you like °to be the youngest°?  
7 Seo-yun: [((*laughs*))  
8 Michael: yeah very  
9 Seo-yun ((*laughs*))  
10 Teacher YM: why what are the advantages (.) what are the advantages  
11 for you two guys (.) Michael and Khalid. (.)  
12 what are the good things about being the youngest  
13 Khalid?: °be[ing the youngest°  
14 Michael: [because. why I'm the youngest  
15 → Teacher YM: because: (.) >because I'm the youngest<  
16 Michael: yeah (.) because why I'm the youngest hmm (.) my parents  
17 are not so: (.) strai↑n (.) not so:  
18 → Teacher YD: sstrict ((*writing on laptop*))  
19 Michael: stric-strict yes (0.5) and (0.6) the example my- my first  
20 bro:ther↑ when he go ou:t (.) my father say  
21 → Teacher YM: when he::  
22 Michael: goes out my father is, he please to come back. a:t (1.0)  
23 >six or seven o'clock<  
24 → Teacher YM: hm mm  
25 Michael: and my second brother >he says< please come back at (.)  
26 eight or nine o'clock and my father say please come back  
27 (.) uh at ten (.) or eleven o'clock  
28 → Teacher YM: yea:h  
29 Michael: in-in my hour (.) when I'm six-.uh sixteen seventeen  
30 → Teacher YM: yeah  
31 Michael: it's <more> (.) my parents are- what's the name for this  
32 when,  
33 → Teacher YM: more flexible  
34 Michael: yeah flexible  
35 → Teacher YM: yeah ((*writing on laptop*))

The teacher directs his question in lines 1-2 'do you like to be in the middle' to Pat, making reference to previously established shared knowledge that he is a middle child. In his response, Pat's hesitation at the beginning of his turn and slightly hesitant delivery seem designed for humorous effect or as a sign of being unsure what the teacher might ask next rather than being a signal that he lacks the linguistic ability to respond. The teacher's response of a go-ahead of 'hmm' (Schegloff, 2007), is followed by an initiation to Michael, while Seo-yun smiles and laughs (line 7). Michael's rather dry minimal response ('yeah very') accompanied with a wry smile gives rise to further laughter from Seo-yun. The teacher then further prompts Michael and Khalid, due to both being the youngest of their respective families. In line 13, Khalid produces a quiet repeat of the final phrase of the teacher's question, which could be taken as him preparing to produce an answer; however, Michael responds in overlap (or doesn't hear Khalid) 'because. why I'm the youngest'. The teacher's response in line 15 is a recast (Loewen, & Sato, 2018) of Michael's response, a form of other-correction (Kendrick, 2015). At the start of his next turn (lines 16-17), Michael's 'yeah' appears to show uptake of the recast, yet he repeats the same mistake. On this occasion, the teacher either fails to notice it or chooses to ignore it in what appears to follow the 'let it pass' practice that Firth (1996) identified as common in talk between native and non-native speakers. What follows at the end of the student's turn is a word search or request in the form of a 'try-mark' (Sacks & Schegloff, 1979), which is hesitant, slow and displays a turn-final rising intonation. The teacher provides the requested vocabulary item ('strict') which the student accepts by repeating it, stating 'yes' and continuing their previous telling regarding his older brothers, thus an example of a self-initiated other-repair (SIOR), which were analysed in section 5.3. The teacher enters the word onto the document on his laptop that will be displayed on the classroom screen, therefore officially adding the lexical item to the lesson record.

In line 21, the teacher produces a DIU (Koshik, 2002) ('when he') which can be seen to efficiently pinpoint the trouble source from the student's penultimate TCU. DIU appear to be more frequent in form-and-accuracy contexts (see Chapter 4 for more detailed analysis). In the following turn, the student produces the correct ending for the the DIU ('goes out') and

continues his turn. What is noticeable here, and was noted throughout this chapter, is how little the progressivity of the talk is affected by the correction. Over several turns, the student continues to explain how his parents were stricter with his older brothers. The teacher's continuers, 'hm mm' (line 24) and 'yeah' (lines 28 and 30), appear designed to encourage the student in terms of fluency. On reaching the final turn of his telling about his brothers, the student initiates a second word search in line 31, 'my parents are- what's the name for this when', with an accompanying open hand gesture. The teacher responds with the appropriate vocabulary item which is accepted and receipted by the student 'yeah flexible' (line 34). Thus highlighting the K+ status (Heritage, 2012a) of the student in relation to his own personal 'telling' yet still reliant on the teacher's expert knowledge of the target language (hence K+ for language). Again, the teacher notes the lexical item onto the the classroom board by typing into his laptop and thus closes the sequence with this student.

As a result of the skilled combination of repair and 'let it pass' (Firth, 1996) practices, the ESOL teacher encourages the progressivity of the talk, whilst also adhering to the institutional/pedagogical goals of eliciting acceptable contributions in the target language from the students. Overall, it appears that ESOL teachers favour progressivity in meaning-and-fluency sections of the classroom but will intervene as and when required to ensure that appropriate language is being produced, taking into consideration both the student who is speaking and the other students in the room (i.e. the permitted overhearing audience). As a result, many of the extended fluency sequences are dependent on the teacher's co-construction of the turns-at-talk and their skilful judgement of knowing when to intervene or withdraw.

In turning to consider sequence organization, which Schegloff (2007) defines as 'the organization of courses of action enacted through turns-at-talk' (p.2), the above extended excerpt can be divided into three sequences (lines 1-4, 6-10 and 10-35). In each of these the teacher asks a question and one or more student(s) produces an answer that is in some way evaluated or at least acknowledged by the teacher. The query arises as to how these sequences differ from the IRE sequences in Chapter 4. While both settings may display a minimal three part sequence that

can be extended, a fundamental difference exists in terms of the epistemic status of the teacher. In form-and-accuracy contexts, where the IRE sequence dominates, the teacher is K+ for both content and language; however, in meaning -and-fluency contexts the student takes the K+ role for content, leaving the teacher with an K+ expert status in the L2. Moreover, the actions differ from those found in form-and-accuracy contexts, in that instead of ‘testing’ knowledge that the teacher already knows and thinks the students should know, the teacher is eliciting meaningful conversation from the students that fulfills the pedagogical goal of ‘maximising the opportunities for interaction’ and ‘expression of personal meaning’ (Seedhouse, 2004, p.111) .

## **5.7 Summary**

This chapter has investigated L2 teacher responses in meaning-and-fluency contexts in the ESOL classroom. In doing so, it has highlighted the complex, contingent and collaborative nature of these responses in shaping the target language produced by the learners, while remaining focused on the overall pedagogical aims. More specifically, the analysis in this chapter has uncovered that ESOL teachers select from a toolbox of possible actions including continuers, student-initiated and teacher-initiated repair practices (word searches, candidate understandings and formulations) and other-correction. In addition, the creation of synthesised and/or hybrid contexts have been demonstrated in the analysis. In terms of synthesising contexts, these were seen to include the move into a meaning-and-fluency context, while the overall or main focus of the interaction remains on form-and-accuracy. Both the teachers and students seem remarkably comfortable with these shifts and as such their normativity in the ESOL classroom is evidenced. Further, some hybrid contexts are presented here that will be developed in the preceding chapter, namely tellings that include both the pedagogical and everyday or non-pedagogical.

Returning to consider the teacher responses, continuers or go-aheads were found to signal to the student that what they have produced so far is acceptable and they should continue. The use of

these was particularly noticeable and repetitive in learner tellings such as Clara's going out story in excerpt #5.2. Following on from this phenomenon, student initiated repair was explored and found to take two main forms: a word-search or a 'try-mark' (Sacks & Schegloff, 1979) that could be lexical or grammatical. In these instances, the student makes a request for assistance from the teacher in the form of a possible repair. Ultimately, the teacher is held responsible as a gatekeeper of the target language for supplying and approving appropriate language in the L2. Even when no assistance was requested for the word search in excerpt #5.5, the teacher was still responsible for confirming the word that the student had found on her phone.

Following on from this, teacher-initiated repair and other-correction practices were explored. While other-initiated repair is said to be avoided in L1 and NS/NNS non-pedagogical conversation, it is a common feature in classroom talk. The analysis uncovered a preference for candidate understandings in the dataset which aligns with Kendrick's (2015) findings on non-pedagogical data. In terms of their frequency in the classroom, this finding can be seen to align with the pedagogical goal of expressing personal meaning while ensuring that shared understanding is maintained. Other practices included open initiations, partial repeats and candidate formulations, which served to clarify meaning while also demonstrating how the teacher is operating from a K- position in terms of content, i.e. having to ask for confirmation of understood meaning. Meanwhile, formulations (which are explored in more detail in Chapter 6) were found to often include a 'learnable', e.g. a new lexical item, that may or not be received by the learner participant. Regarding other-correction, the teachers in this dataset made frequent use of recasts, replacing an incorrect utterance with a correct one, which the student normally acknowledges by incorporating the correction into their next turn, e.g. Ana's adoption of 'said to me' in excerpt #5.14. While Kendrick (2015) points out that self-correction not confirmation is part of what characterises an other-correction, the decision was taken in this analysis to include turns designed to make a self-correction relevant even if that was not forthcoming. In making this decision, the fact that the recipients are L2 speakers was taken into consideration and allowances thus made. The other finding regarding other-correction was a sequential one, that the explicit correction appears to be less disruptive than one might expect and probably less so

than explicit correction in everyday talk. The reason being that other-correction is unmarked and even expected in the L2 classroom. It was noted in several of the presented excerpts that the learner was able to almost seamlessly resume their prior talk following an other-correction side sequence having been completed, as per the strategy of camouflaging of repair noted by Seedhouse (1997a) .

This chapter has focused on analysing the actions and practices of ESOL teachers in meaning-and-fluency pedagogical contexts. However, what has been excluded from this chapter are the L2 student storytelling episodes that emerged in the analysis of the dataset. These will be explored in the following chapter as a specific case in context. While applying a similar lens to the teacher's responses to the students' turns, there will also be an investigation into the hybrid nature of the storytelling in the L2 classroom, by comparing these with storytellings in everyday conversation.

## Chapter 6: ESOL teacher responses in a hybrid context: storytelling<sup>9</sup>

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide an analysis of a special type of meaning-and-fluency context, with a specific focus on learner storytelling in the ESOL classroom, where learners produce extended sequences based on their own lives and experiences. It has been demonstrated that teachers may opt to set up sequential constraints from the beginning of the activity that encourage their students to produce multi-unit turns, such as explanations or argumentations (Heller & Morek, 2015). In this meaning-and-fluency (or 'conversational') class, the teacher uses prompts from a handout to provoke discussion and in some cases an extended sequence in the form of a storytelling is produced. Since the pedagogical goals are similar to those in the preceding chapter, it is expected that there will be some overlap in the sequential organisation and teacher practices. In considering whether these data fit the meaning-and-fluency or task-oriented contexts described by Seedhouse (2004), there appears to be some overlap. While storytelling could be set up as a task per se, in this lesson the storytelling is one option among others. I have therefore classified it as task activity within a meaning-and-fluency context. Seedhouse (2004, p.119) points out that task-oriented contexts tend 'to generate many instances of clarification requests, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and self-repetitions' and that these are essentially various elements of repair, thus critiquing CA-SLA studies focus on correction of errors (e.g. Macbeth, 2004). The findings of the analysis of these storytelling episodes confirm that repair practices, such as those highlighted for task-oriented contexts, are more common than other-correction in this dataset. Therefore, while not being set up as a task-oriented context, there appears to be some overlap due to the 'task' nature of storytelling being an extended activity.

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<sup>9</sup> This analysis chapter has been adapted from the following published book chapter:  
Greenhalgh, E. & Wilkinson, R. (2021) Storytelling in a meaning-and-fluency task in the second language classroom. In J. Wong, & H. Z. Waring, *Storytelling in multilingual interaction: A conversation analysis perspective* (pp.162-182). Routledge.



Building on this line of research, this chapter focuses on how teachers design their turns to solicit and facilitate the production of one type of an extended contributions from their learners in the L2 classroom, namely storytellings.

A further aim of the analysis will be to unpack how the institutional context of the ESOL classroom impacts on the storytelling sequences, as compared to those found in everyday conversations. The research reveals the hybrid nature of these storytelling, with one foot still firmly placed in the interactional architecture of the classroom, while attempting to have another in everyday conversational. As such, while students and teachers may seek to tell stories as they would outside the classroom in their own L1, the contextual constraints of the classroom and the nature of talking in an L2 (for the students) impact the storytelling sequences. The research question addressed in this chapter:

Chapter 6: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ to support learner storytelling in a hybrid pedagogical context?

Before progressing with the analysis, a brief review of CA literature on storytelling is provided (6.1.1). This is followed by the presentation and the glossing of phenomena in a storytelling episode from the dataset that contains both a learner and a teacher storytelling (6.1.2). In section 6.2, four learner stories are examined which uncovers some key interactional features of storytelling in the ESOL classroom, focusing on the teachers' actions and practices. Each storytelling is analysed, demonstrating how it is initiated, how the teacher shapes the telling and how the sequence is brought to a close, as well as its hybrid qualities between everyday and institutional storytelling. Finally, in section 6.3, a teacher storytelling is analysed demonstrating how it provides a model, before bringing the chapter to a conclusion with a summary (6.4).

### 6.1.1 Literature review on storytelling

While this review is not intended to furnish an in-depth background on CA studies on storytelling in everyday conversation (see Mandelbaum, 2013 for one such overview), a brief survey will be presented concerning how stories are launched, produced and responded to in everyday and institutional settings to that seeks to inform the analysis of the storytellings from the dataset.

As is widely noted in the CA literature, storytelling sequences suspend the normal rules of turn-taking for the duration of the telling (e.g. Goodwin & Heritage, 1990), with the teller permitted more than the usual single TCU. The sequential context from which the story is launched will affect its overall design, with a ‘first position’ being where the story is launched from non-story talk and normally accompanied by a story preface that projects the telling of a story (Schegloff, 1992). While a ‘second position’ is occasioned in response to a prompt, for example in response to a co-participant’s question (Schegloff, 2007), which will affect what is deemed to be a relevant response. One of the key findings of CA into storytelling has been to show that storytellings are co-produced with the recipients’ intra-story aligning and affiliating response tokens aiding the telling while orienting to the teller’s stance (Stivers, 2008). Further, recipients can be seen to monitor the story for its possible ending/climax, for example a laughable at the end of a funny story or a complainable at the completion of a complaint story (Selting, 2010). It then falls on the recipient to respond appropriately with some form of understanding display and alignment with the teller’s stance (Stivers, 2008).

Storytelling has been championed in the L2 classroom for motivating students to produce extended turns-at-talk where they can share personal experiences and find their ‘voice’ in the L2 (Nicholas et al., 2011). In terms of CA work on storytelling in an L2, there has been little to draw on with the majority of studies having been focused on longitudinal development outside the classroom (Waring, 2021). Tabensky (2008) analysed storytelling by Australian university students in an L2 French class, detailing how affiliative body language in the form of gestures, gaze and laughter support the storytelling. While a more recent study in a Swedish language

café, also demonstrated the importance of affiliative responses from L1 recipient to support the L2 storytelling (Kunitz & Jansson, 2021). However, in neither of these studies is the focus on how a teacher supports L2 storytelling in the classroom, which this study noticeably seeks to address.

A further analytical focal point in Chapter 6 is how teacher storytellings may support the pedagogical goals of the L2 classroom. While there is very limited research on this activity particularly from a CA perspective, Kasper and Monfaredi's (2021) recent study found that students quickly orient to the story beginning and align as story participants. The story evolved similar to those in everyday conversations; however, there was limited affiliative uptake from the students, which they suggest may require further action from the teacher to encourage more student contributions. One aspect that could be seen to be at play here is the epistemic access and rights that participants have to affiliate and/or provide an assessment. Heritage (2011) details the 'knotty dilemmas' (p.181) of empathetic responses where recipients need to balance territories of knowledge and experience, which can be further complicated, or the distance increased in the distance-involvement dilemma, due to the teacher's institutional role. With the result being a notable difference between everyday storytelling and those told in an L2 classroom as demonstrated in the analysis in this chapter.

### **6.1.2 Example storytelling**

First, an example of storytelling is presented that contains both a student and a teacher telling, and serves to provide a gloss of the phenomena identified in this chapter. From this excerpt, several key phenomena are identified that will be explored further in the ensuing analysis. In terms of the student storytelling, the story is launched in second position (Schegloff, 1997) in response to a prompt on the handout. This has implications for how the story is told and how it is received, by the teacher in particular. As will become apparent in the analysis in this chapter, the teacher orients to his institutional role as 'gatekeeper' of the the target language produced by

the student and whether the question on the handout has been responded to appropriately. In addition, there appears to be an overarching pedagogical goal being oriented to in this meaning-and-fluency type lesson for learners to produce extended turns-at-talk. This is evidenced by how the teacher works to further the students' turns through continuers, prompts and occasionally through his own storytelling (see also section 6.3).

The learner's storytelling is in response to prompt from the handout 'Have you ever broken a window?' and the teacher produces a second story that aligns with the learner's story in line 23.

#6.1 (Y2D:C2L3C1:19'00\_David Beckham banana curve)

1 Saleh: [have you ever broken a window  
2 [(gazing to and pointing at Ahmed)]  
3 Ahmed: (2.0) [yeah  
4 Saleh: [a lot  
5 Clara: ɛa lotɛ ((laughs))  
6 Teacher YD: ((clears throat)) that's normal though,  
7 (0.8)  
8 Teacher YD: when you're playing sp[ort?  
9 Saleh: [(points at teacher)] I broke my  
10 father uh (.) my-my father's car window  
11 Teacher YD: hm mm  
12 Saleh: it was a- it was a new porsche  
13 Teacher YD: okay right  
14 Clara: (h)uhh!  
15 Saleh: °broke the window°  
16 Teacher YD: with a football or °something°?  
17 Saleh: football  
18 Clara: ah(h)uhh  
19 Teacher YD: that's unusual,  
20 (1.6)  
21 Teacher YD: cos. the windows usually are quite strong I mean  
22 Saleh: =li-like I crack it ((draws a line in the air))  
23 Teacher YD: ahh: okay. =I remember when I was (.) younger we were

24                    playing baseball and I really swung as hard as I could  
25                    to hit the ball (1.0) 'nd (1.4) h(h)uhh the bat (0.5)  
26                    flew out of ha:nd (0.6) straight into the window  
27                    =>while my mother was in the kitchen< and °just°  
28                    (h)whusssh ((*gestures glass shattering*))  
29        SS:                    ((*laughter*))  
30        Teacher YD: uhhuh. (0.6) that was a (0.2) good day (0.3) very  
31                    in[teresting?  
32        Ahmed:                [((*laughs*))  
33        Saleh:                =°for me° like I shot the ball very hard  
34        Teacher YD:        ((*leans in indicating possible repair initiation*))  
35        Saleh:                l-like I shooted the ball,  
36        Teacher YD:        football?  
37        Saleh:                yeah  
38        Teacher YD:        okay (.) hm mm  
39        Saleh:                like th-. the power shot £I ever. had£ ((*smiles*))  
40        Teacher YD:        okay  
41        Ahmed:                ((*laughter*))  
42        Saleh:                the like- just the ball went like that  
43        Teacher YD:        yeah  
44        Saleh:                to my father's car  
45        Teacher YD:        okay (0.4) perfect (0.5) David Beckham banana curve  
46        Saleh:                fyeah£  
47        Teacher YD:        =okay good. uh umm

**Figure 9**

*Teacher YD non-specific repair initiation by leaning forward*

9.1



9.2



Prior to this excerpt, teacher YD has been encouraging the students to ask and answer the prompts from the handout between themselves, thus, reducing teacher control of the interaction and increasing peer-to-peer talk as befits the pedagogical goal of meaning-and-fluency contexts. Salah selects one of the prompts to read out, 'have you ever broken a window', and clearly directs his question at Ahmed by gaze and pointing. Following a two second pause, Ahmed and Saleh both provide jokey answers but neither produces an extended response to the question. Clara repeats Salah's response and laughs, thus aligning to her peers' responses as laughables and perhaps indicating topic termination (Holt, 2016). In clearing his throat, the teacher calls the attention of the students and produces an assessment that breaking a window is 'normal' 'when you're playing sport' (lines 6/8). While this turn could be a pre to the launch of his own story (Schegloff, 2007), at his point in the interaction it serves to prompt or encourage one of the students into telling a story as can be seen by Saleh's action of pointing at the teacher when he makes the suggestion 'playing sport' in line 8.

Saleh launches his telling by providing the details of which window he broke, thus adhering to the constraints of the initial prompt. The teacher's response is minimal and encouraging, in that he provides a go-ahead continuer (Schegloff, 2007). Following Saleh's extra detail that 'it was a new porsche' (line 12), the teacher provides a further prompt acknowledging the extra information and signalling to the student to continue with the telling 'okay right'. Stivers (2008) reported on vocal continuers in everyday storytelling being a form of alignment, that serve to display understanding and a kind of approval with the stance of the teller. In an L2 classroom, the need to confirm understanding is further highlighted in the L2 teacher's gatekeeper role and the alignment to stance is adapted to meet the pedagogical constraints of responding appropriately to the story prompt (the question from the handout). When the learner next only repeats the fact that he broke the window (line 15), the teacher asks a more direct clarifying question 'with a football or something' which fits the pedagogical goal of encouraging fluency. Saleh's confirmation that it was with a football is reacted to by one of the other students with an affiliative sigh. Despite the main recipient in these storytellings being the teacher, which is demonstrated by constant gaze to the teacher, the teller's peers are also present

in an overhearing role and may contribute reactions to the story being told. At this point, the teacher comments that it is rather unusual, which is perhaps querying the veracity of the story's claim, to break a car window with a football, adding an account for his challenge with 'cos. the windows usually are quite strong I mean' in line 21. As was highlighted previously in Chapter 5, the teacher can be seen here to be balancing a role as an active recipient of a storytelling, with that of an L2 teacher who checks that an 'appropriate' response is being delivered. In response, the student downgrades his claim to having only cracked the car window. The teacher's news receipt in line 23 is followed by the the launch of his story, seemingly as a second story (Sacks, 1992) in response to Saleh's, an observation which is supported by the similarity of the topic.

The delivery of the teacher's story is reminiscent of the description Long (1996) provided for NS storytelling to NNS in non-pedagogical contexts, as having a slower delivery rate, pausing around and emphasis on key-information lexis, thus increasing 'topic saliency' (p.420). This reflects the teacher's keen awareness of the students' status as language learners. On their part, the students appear attentive to the story as attested by all gazing to the teacher. However, it is noteworthy that no alignment or affiliation tokens are forthcoming as normatively expected from story recipients in everyday storytelling (e.g. Mandelbaum, 2013) yet highlighted as common in classroom storytelling (Kasper & Monfaredi, 2021). At the end of the telling, the teacher produces the sound of a window shattering rather than stating the window shattered, which seems to reflect the teacher's discernment that 'shattered' would be beyond the students' language knowledge, or it was perhaps designed for dramatic effect, and it does seem to signal that the story has reached its climax (Goodwin, 1984). The students laugh in response and the teacher follows up with a story 'coda' in the form of an ironic assessment 'that was (0.2) a good day (0.3) very interesting' in lines 30-31. In Saleh's response in line 33, his 'for me' shows that he oriented to the teacher's as a second story and responds by highlighting the shared topic of a sporting action. It is also notable that his turn is latched to that of the teacher, demonstrating a keenness to take his turn.



In the sequence that follows, Saleh reformulates his follow-up statement several times. Following Salah's first response, the teacher leans in (see Figure 9) seeming to indicate a possible repair initiation (Rasmussen, 2014) due to not hearing, to which Salah responds by reformulating 'like I shooted the ball' (line 35). The teacher's response is a candidate understanding 'football?', a form of other-initiated repair (see Chapter 5), which Salah confirms. Following the teacher's continuer in line 38, Salah reformulates adding some exaggeration 'like th-the power shot I ever had' (line 39) and some clearer indication of the direction or how he kicked the ball: 'the like- just the ball went like that' (line 42) 'to my father's car' (line 44). This sequence demonstrates how the L2 learner's storytelling is elicited and collaboratively shaped by the teacher's prompts. The student's story is brought to a close with the teacher's assessment and closing formulation in lines 45 'okay perfect David Beckham banana curve', which elicits a smile and agreement token 'yeah' from the student. At this point, all the students and the teacher gaze down at the handout and the next question is selected.

As was observed in this excerpt, learner stories in the dataset are usually launched in response to a prompt from a class handout, thus in second position. It is notable that this prompt has a pedagogical aim, rather than one of 'natural conversation' such as might be produced by a fellow participant. Moreover, the responses are a hybrid form of personalised and pedagogical content, that is authored and animated (Goffman, 1981) by the learners themselves while still designed to 'answer' the prompt on the lesson handout. Ultimately, the teacher still takes 'ownership' for confirming the answer as being acceptable in relation to the prompt, as will be shown in the analysis that follows.

## 6.2 ESOL teacher responses to learner storytellings

In this main section, I present four learner storytelling episodes selected from the dataset for analysis. My observations and findings centre around the ESOL teachers' responses to the storytelling and will be summarised in the final section of the chapter (6.4).

In a 'meaning-and-fluency' type class, Teacher YD directs the students to look at a set of questions on a handout they have been using to prompt conversation. In line 4, Clara refers to the prompt on the handout: 'what's the worst/nicest thing that anyone has ever said to you?' and queries some of the vocabulary 'worst nice what's this?'. The clarification sequence continues over several turns (lines 4-10), with Clara eventually self-selecting 'worst' and launching her telling in line 19. The interactional sequence leading up to this launch will be discussed in more detail below, along with the telling itself and how the other participants respond to her telling. The focus is on how the teacher designs their turns to shape the learner's storytelling response through contingent and collaborative practices.

#6.2 (Y2D:C1L4C3:09'00\_worst thing anyone ever said to you)

1 Teacher YD: okay well we'll have a look at this <last part here> then  
2 (. ) uhm a::nd, (0.6) °yeah just see what you° (0.4) °°say?°°  
3 Clara: worst nice (what's [this?])  
4 Teacher YD: [what's the worst [the worst is-  
5 Clara: [ahh I understand  
6 (0.3) okay the:, (0.2) bad=  
7 Teacher YD: =bad (0.5) worst  
8 Clara: and ni:ce, (.) bett[er.  
9 Teacher YD: [nicest. (1.2) best.  
10 Clara: [°best° (0.7) hmm:::,  
11 [(C turns gaze towards A and S; eye contact with S  
12 who then drops his gaze; A is gazing down at the handout;  
13 T is gazing at A and S)]  
14 Ahmed: [(talking under his breath while reading)]

15 Clara: [((turns gaze to teacher and holds it there until he  
16 gazes at her))  
17 worst↑ (0.3) I study in uh:m (0.3) a religion school,  
18 Teacher YD: mm hmm,  
19 Clara: and what's the name [I: [can' [t remember  
20 [(C [ gazes [at A; gestures to head))  
21 Ahmed: [a nun [  
22 Teacher YD: [a catholic school?  
23 Clara: a nun ((gazing to and pointing at A))  
24 Ahmed: [nun? ((gazes to T))  
25 Saleh: [nun  
26 Teacher YD: nun  
27 Clara: with ((gestures head covering)) woman,  
28 Teacher YD: mm hm  
29 Ahmed: nun  
30 Clara: uhm one nun say me tha::t (0.8) pharmac:y is too  
31 difficult for me.  
32 Teacher YD: okay,  
33 Clara: and I must eh study:, (0.3) I must<sup>↑</sup>n't eh stud[y pharmacy  
34 Teacher YD: [okay.  
35 okay. (.) ooh (so)=  
36 Clara: =and I (mean) [ptk  
37 [(points to her head; shrugs and laughs))  
38 Teacher YD: yeah so you would have been quite eh (.) eh:m (1.0)  
39 <demo-tivated> with that.=  
40 Clara: =yeah  
41 Teacher YD: yeah it makes you quite (.) sad=okay (.) and the best  
42 ↑thing

In line 3, Clara seeks clarification for the use of 'worst' and 'nice' in one of the prompts on the handout and the teacher launches an explanation. From Clara's news receipt (Heritage, 1984a) and understanding confirmation (Koole, 2010) 'ahh I understand' in line 5, it appears that hearing read out, what was written in the prompt, as a direct interrogative ('what's the worst')

helps Clara's understanding, which she confirms by referring to 'bad' in line 6 and 'and nice better' in line 8. In response, the teacher confirms her confirmation check by overlapping with 'nicest. (1.2) best.' in line 9, thus highlighting that it is the superlative forms of the adjectives that are being prompted. In eliciting the '*worst or nicest thing that anyone has ever said*', they are recognisable as extreme case formulations (Pomerantz, 1986). Therefore, it is likely that this prompt would elicit a telling, as the worst or nicest thing would have to have been said at a particular time/event in the past and being the best or the worst would most probably make it a memorable event. Clara repeats 'best' quietly in line 10 followed by 'hmm', thus displaying 'doing thinking' about the prompt. Once this clarification sequence has concluded, there is no clear next speaker. In lines 11-16, gaze becomes highly relevant while the participants are 'negotiating' who will take the next turn, in this case most likely a story launch. In line 15, Clara looks to the teacher and on return of his gaze she launches her story in line 17. This phenomenon of student self-selection is analysed in further detail in the following excerpt.

In terms of the telling itself, the student launches her story in answer to the prompt 'what is the worst thing that anyone has ever said to you?', therefore in 'second position' (Schegloff, 1997). As observed in the previous extract, this has sequential implications in terms of how this telling, and others in the same lesson, proceed with the teacher appearing to orient to checking understanding of key vocabulary from the prompt (see extract #6.3 for an extended word check sequence). In line 17, Clara states 'worst' to inform that this is the prompt she is responding to, before launching her telling with a typical 'setting of the scene' statement (Mandelbaum, 2013) 'I study in uh:m (0.3) a religion school'. In doing so, she identifies herself as the main protagonist in what will turn out to be a complaint story (Selting, 2010), reporting something negative that was said to her by a nun in the Catholic school she attended. What is also notable here is that the teacher does not correct Clara's error in verb tense, the use of a present instead of a past tense. Evidently, the teacher opted to maintain progressivity and 'let it pass' in terms of the error (Firth, 1996). As this telling comes from direct personal experience, it assigns a K+ status (Heritage, 2012a) to Clara as the teller, while assigning K- to the teacher, who also retains a K+ status in terms of assessing that an appropriate answer to the

handout prompt has been produced and in acceptable English, thus, maintaining an orientation to the pedagogical goals of an L2 classroom.

Storytelling in everyday talk has been recognised as a collaborative effort, a co-construction between the teller and the recipient (Mandelbaum, 2013). In classroom settings, it is common for the teacher to be the main recipient of student talk and the same applies to these tellings. While Clara recruits another student (Ahmed) to assist in her word search for ‘nun’, once this sequence is complete she reverts her gaze back to the teacher as she restarts her telling in line 30. She begins her report of what was said to her ‘uhm one nun say me that pharmac:y is too difficult for me’, which explicitly addresses the prompt ‘what was the worst thing anybody has ever said to you’. The teacher accepts her response, producing a continuer token in the form of ‘okay’. The student continues her reporting of what was said to her in line 33 ‘and I must eh study (0.3) I mustn’t eh study pharmacy’, which includes a self-initiated self-repair from the affirmative ‘I must’ to the negative form ‘I mustn’t’. What is also of interest here, is the shared knowledge between the teacher and other students that this student has studied pharmacy at university. It therefore appears that she has designed her telling for the overhearing audience by not adding the information that she did in fact go on to study Pharmacy.

In lines 34-35, the teacher produces an acknowledgement token ‘okay. okay.’ and seems to be about to produce a formulation ‘ooh (so)’, before Clara adds, latched to the teacher’s turn, her own evaluation, thus highlighting her stance. She points to her head in a gesture, that appears to signify ‘it’s (or they’re) crazy’<sup>10</sup>, and follows this with a shoulder shrug and a laugh token. At this point an affiliative evaluation becomes sequentially relevant from the story recipient(s) (Stivers, 2008), which the teacher partly addresses in his sympathetic response in lines 38/39: ‘yeah so you would have been quite eh (.) eh:m (1.0) demotivated with that’. What stands out as being different to conversational storytelling, is the inclusion of a contingently-arising ‘learnable’ (Majlesi & Broth, 2012), that the teacher marks by slowing

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<sup>10</sup> This was checked by showing the anonymised video to several Spanish speaking friends who agreed that this gesture usually means ‘crazy’.

down his pace and over-articulating the target word 'demo-tivated' . What makes it less clear regarding the teacher's pedagogical intention is the lack of any typical strategies for teaching vocabulary, such as asking students to repeat the word, writing it on the board or asking students for a gloss/synonym (Harmer, 2007). Clara accepts the teacher's response and the teacher adds a more linguistically-simple sympathetic response in lines 41: 'yeah it makes you quite (.) sad=okay,' that also serves as a closing and summative formulation that brings the storytelling episode to a close.

In this next extract from the same lesson, the prompt from the handout of 'have you ever been the victim of a burglary' elicits a storytelling from a different student. The teacher employs similar devices: continuers, formulations and learnables to elicit, shape and assess the appropriacy of the story in response to the prompt.

#6.3 (Y2D:C2L3C0:02'00\_victim of a burglary)

1 Teacher YD: ok↑ay:: (0.2) so:, (.) hav- a very (0.4) strange  
 2 question, (1.3) have you ever been the victim of a  
 3 ↑burglary?  
 4 (1.8)  
 5 Saleh: ((nodding)) yes  
 6 Clara: ( )  
 7 Teacher YD: ↑yes, oh dear!  
 8 (0.5)  
 9 Teacher YD: i:::n Qatar? [eh::  
 10 Saleh: [no ((shaking head))  
 11 Teacher YD: ↑here?  
 12 Saleh: no  
 13 Teacher YD: okay.=  
 14 Saleh =in Thailand  
 15 Teacher YD: in <Thailand>. in a hotel?  
 16 Saleh <no::.>  
 17 (1.3)

18 Teacher YD: okay: [:, so was it pickpocketing=that's where they

19 Clara: [( )

20 Teacher YD: [stea::l from you on person

21 [(reaches out hand in enactment of taking something)]

22 Saleh: no, (0.4) just I was like (.)

23 lef-[left my phone like that on the ta[ble

24 [(picks up, then puts down, his [ phone)]

25 Teacher YD: [okay,

26 Saleh: in a restaurant [like an (.) open restaurant

27 Teacher YD: [mm hhm

28 Teacher YD: okay,

29 (.)

30 Saleh: for I didn't see it like for ten minutes [then I

31 Teacher YD: [okay

32 Saleh: [looked and I didn't find my phone.

33 [(gazes at his phone on the table; enacts surprise)]

34 Teacher YD: okay. ri<sup>↑</sup>ght, so somebody [SNATCHed: (.)

35 [(enacts snatching)]

36 Saleh: ((nods))

37 Teacher YD: your phone.

38 (0.3)

39 Saleh: but the good thing about iphones you can kill it with

40 eh (.)

41 Teacher YD: mm hmm

42 Saleh: with your computer.

43 Teacher YD: yeah (.) and did you manage to (.) find your iphone?

44 Saleh: no I didn't find it because I went back to Qatar and

45 talked to my cousin

46 Teacher YD: Okay

47 Saleh: (.) he did it for me.

48 Teacher YD: okay. (.) yeah

*((12 lines omitted in which Saleh and the teacher talk mostly in general terms about how it is possible to find lost iphones and how they are so valuable))*

60 Teacher YD: okay (1.2) well let's have a quick look at this te:xt,

As in the previous example, this story is told in response to a prompt, in this case about being burgled, which if ever experienced is likely to be remembered and therefore a recountable event. It is also noted that in this 'conversational' meaning-and-fluency class, the teacher opens the floor to all participants and normally waits for them to self-nominate. This differs from what usually happens in form-and-accuracy contexts, where the teacher will often nominate a student to provide a response. As shown in section 6.3, on the occasion when no other participant has offered a response, the teacher may opt to tell a story. This turn-taking variation may be the result of there being no 'known-answer' to the question, or prompt in this case, and having nothing to report would be an equally valid (if not preferred) response. For example, it is quite possible that none of the students (nor the teacher) had been the victim of a burglary and would therefore not have the past life experience to draw upon to be able to recount a tale. When considering this in relation to the current speaker selects next speaker maxim (Sacks et al., 1974), it can be seen that gaze plays an important role in speaker selection. While the prompt is the initiator, it is still the teacher that gives the go-ahead for the student tellings and this is often negotiated through gaze, as was the case in the previous extract (#6.2) with Clara.

Following a 1.8 second gap after the prompt was read out by the teacher, Saleh makes a verbal claim ('yes' in line 5) to having had a relevant experience, thus indicating that he is most likely to be willing to produce a longer turn. The teacher acknowledges the response (line 7) adding an affiliative sympathy token 'oh dear'. When no further telling is forthcoming, the teacher asks a direct question in an apparent attempt to elicit the backgrounding story statement, usually the location and time of the telling. This location questioning sequence starts on line 9 'in Qatar? eh' and continues through to line 28 when the teacher accepts the location of the incident being recounted as an open restaurant. What is perhaps striking about this sequence is the adaptation to the typical known-answer sequence, with the teacher retaining the main interrogator role,



asking the questions and approving the responses, but with the student possessing the epistemic knowledge or K+ status. The teacher's suggestions, in the form of questions, in lines 9, 11 and 15 are responded to Saleh with a bald rejection token of 'no'. Only when the teacher uses the continuer 'okay' in line 13 does the student offer the first piece of information regarding the location where this burglary took place: 'in Thailand'. It may be that continuers are more effective than direct questions to elicit fluent responses from students but there are limited data here to be able to draw any conclusions. The teacher produces an acknowledgement token by repeating 'in Thailand', then seeks clarification by asking 'in a hotel'. Thus, begins the focus on identifying the building location which would be required for a burglary to have taken place. In line 19 when the teacher seeks to 'correct' the student's interpretation of the word burglary (from the prompt) 'so was it pickpocketing', a further complication to the epistemic relationship becomes relevant in that the teacher maintains an 'expert role' in the target language (L2) but struggles to apply the L2 to the still as yet unknown learner story. This tension can be realised as askew projects of talk as observed in this fragment, with the student focused on telling the story while the teacher appears more concerned with shaping an 'appropriate' response from the student. This type of multilayering or multivoicing in the L2 classroom can cause confusion for the learners; however, it is perhaps unavoidable when the goal of the interaction and means to reach that goal are in the same medium, i.e. the target language.

The teacher completes the 'learnable' with a latched gloss 'that's where they steal from you on person' and an enactment of snatching, which represents a further move into a pedagogical frame at this point in the interaction. Saleh rejects the teachers interpretation with 'no' (line 22) and proceeds with his telling. He states that 'just I was like (.) lef-left my phone like that on the table' and gestures placing his phone on the table. At this point, it appears that the teacher has accepted the storytelling in its current form and produces minimal responses in the form of the continuers 'okay' and 'mm hhm', thus, aligning with the telling, mitigating any confusion and potentially also displaying empathy (Voutilainen et al., 2018).

Saleh treats the teacher as his main recipient by maintaining gaze and continues his story, first stating the location where the incident took place (line 26), then detailing the course of events and finally enacting surprise (line 33) at the moment when he notices that his phone is no longer on the table. In his following turn in line 34, the teacher first aligns 'okay' and accepts the telling, then shifts, using 'right', to formulating with 'so somebody snatched your phone' while also enacting snatching. The formulation device here can be seen as vehicle for several actions: providing a closing summary of the event (Solem & Skovholt, 2019), demonstrating understanding (Heritage & Watson, 1979) and offering a clarification that what had taken place was a snatched robbery, i.e. not a burglary as specified in the prompt. The teacher highlights the word 'snatched' with loud delivery, stress on the first syllable and an accompanying enactment, which would seem to help anyone unsure of the word's meaning have a clearer idea. This is similar to the teacher's production of 'pickpocketing' in line 19 that was also stressed on the first syllable and a definition was provided along with a gestural display of 'stealing' to clarify its meaning. It is therefore the case that the teacher's response to the storytelling orients to their pedagogical role in combination with their role as an active recipient to a storytelling and the relevant aligned affiliative responses, thus illustrating the hybridity of this context.

In the next extract, the same teacher and student are engaged in a different storytelling in response to the prompt 'what is the most embarrassing thing you've ever done', featuring an extreme formulation (Pomerantz, 1986) similar to extract #6.2; likewise suggesting that a most embarrassing experience would be memorable and therefore likely to be recountable as a storytelling. The observations of this extract mirror many of those in the previous extract, thus adding evidence to my findings which I will summarise at the end of the chapter.

#6.4 (Y2D:C2L4C3:17'29\_more stupid not embarrassing)

- 1 Teacher YD: [okay::¿ what's the most emba:rassing thing
- 2 [(gazing down at handout)]
- 3 (0.3)
- 4 Clara: a lot. (.) £m(h)aybe a lot.£
- 5 Teacher YD: okay, maybe you shouldn't say then khheh heh .hh there's

6 a lot of: (.) eh things the most emb(h)arrass(h)ing  
7 (h)th[ing  
8 Clara: [kheh heh ((*silent laughter*))  
9 Teacher YD: [((*indicates towards Ahmed*))  
10 Ahmed: [gh hih hih hih hehh ((*silent laughter*))  
11 Clara: .hhh  
12 Ahmed: .hhh  
13 Teacher YD: eh, ↑yeah  
14 (1.0)  
15 Teacher YD: >I don't know<. nothing ever really.  
16 Clara: ahheh  
17 Saleh: yeah (well), (.)  
18 Teacher YD: [how about you guys?  
19 [((*indicating towards the two male students*))  
20 Saleh: ((*smiles*)) I was [driving and  
21 [((*enacts driving*))  
22 [(I) was using my phone,  
23 [((*enacts writing message on phone*))  
24 Teacher YD: (°okay°)  
25 Saleh: I was not driving very fast like (0.3) forty kilometres  
26 [an hour?  
27 Teacher YD: [mm hm  
28 Saleh: yeah (.) it was like (a) traffic  
29 Teacher YD: °mm°  
30 I didn't see it. ((*holds gaze at teacher; slight smile*))  
31 (0.3)  
32 Teacher YD: .hh:: (0.3) [okay that's more stupid not embarrassing.=  
33 Saleh: [(°so°)  
34 Clara: =yes.=  
35 Saleh: =but it was embarra- because a lot of people  
36 (0.5)  
37 Teacher YD: okay=  
38 Saleh: =and I didn't see the car



The teacher's next turn in line 18 follows current speaker selects next speaker norms by indicating towards the two male students and asking 'how about you guys?'. As has been shown in the previous examples, it is unusual for the teacher to nominate or elicit in this way during a meaning-and-fluency class. However, as he directs this to two students it softens the nomination. Saleh smiles, probably indicating epistemic access (Sert & Jacknick, 2015) and launches his telling in lines 20-23. It therefore appears that Saleh's turn in line 17 'yeah (well)' could have been a pre-telling, an indication of willingness to contribute, that was not responded to by the teacher in the next turn. In contrast to the previous excerpts, there is a notable amount of negotiating over line 1-19 as to who is willing and permitted to launch a telling. The joking seems to indicate some shared epistemic access is perhaps more reminiscent of everyday conversation; however, it becomes evident that the teacher retains control of the talk-in-interaction effectively rejecting one storytelling offer and eliciting an alternative. This appears to be more pedagogical in nature.

In launching his storytelling, Saleh treats the teacher as his main recipient by maintaining eye gaze. His opening line 'I was driving and I was using my phone' is accompanied by enactment of driving and then of writing a message on a mobile phone. From the following turn, the teacher takes on the role of story recipient by the issuing of continuers: 'okay' (line 24) and 'mm hm' (line 27), and Saleh continues his storytelling. It becomes apparent that Saleh's story is about crashing his car while using his mobile phone. In response, the teacher issues an assessment 'okay that's more stupid not embarrassing', which may have a pedagogical focus on the meaning of the word 'embarrassment', and this is how Saleh seems to understand it. In line 35, he clarifies that the reason it was embarrassing, thus attending to the highlighted trouble word, was because there were a lot of people that saw the crash. The teacher accepts this explanation and Saleh continues the story by enacting the crash with the teacher supplying and emphasizing the target word in line 41 ('you had a crash?'). The student accepts the 'learnable' vocabulary item with a nod. The teacher's response here of 'oh dear' is perhaps an affiliative one but could also be viewed as an assessment on Saleh's actions that disaligns with the teller's stance. In stating that 'it's not a big crash', the student seems to have

responded to the negative assessment by minimizing the result of his actions. Following on from this, the teacher employs shared epistemic access to tease the student and perhaps lighten the mood in the classroom 'okay and you want a Bugatti?' (line 47). Looney (2021) has posited that classroom teasing often accompanies disalignment in turns-at-talk and may serve to restore affiliation between participants, which seems to be the case here. While the students laugh in response to the tease, it is notable that Saleh quickly returns to defending his story in lines 51 and 53. The teacher produces two alignment tokens, before delivering a closing formulation of 'yes it's a difficult question that', which could be interpreted also as an assessment on the prompt itself.

Overall, it appears to be the case that this telling featured more disalignment and disaffiliation between the student teller and the teacher than previous examples; however, it can still be considered as useful practice for telling stories in everyday conversation where co-participants cannot always be relied upon to align and affiliate. A further observation is that the teacher's actions have most likely prolonged the story beyond the first possible closing point in line 30, which was partly to check that relevant vocabulary was understood but also to meet the pedagogical goal of producing extended turns-at-talk.

In this final excerpt of a learner storytelling, a different teacher and the same student from the previous example are engaged in a storytelling episode. As with the previous extracts, I will point out the observations in the analysis and summarise the findings in section 6.4.

#### #6.5 (Y1I:C1L3C1:16:00\_dirty shoes)

1 Teacher YI: we'll have some feedback ((*reading*)) I can't remember  
2 anything before I started school when I was six  
3 (1.2)  
4 Teacher YI: is that [(.) true to anyone?  
5 Ahmed: [no  
6 Ana: no  
7 Ahmed: no ((*sits back and smiles*))  
8 Teacher YI: (h)no (hh hh.)°no°

9 Saleh: I remember my first day in Kindergarden  
10 [(1.3)  
11 Teacher YI: [(*smiles and nods*)  
12 Saleh: that was before I was six (0.5) I was four five  
13 Teacher YI: =°fou:r,° (.) yeah what's everyone's earliest memory  
14 (0.8)  
15 Ana: uff!  
16 Teacher YI: ca:n  
17 (.)  
18 or something you feel  
19 Saleh: yeah I remember when my dad bought a new  
20 car  
21 Teacher YI: (.) (h)hhh hh hha [hh  
22 Saleh: [yeah and I got in like in  
23 the car with my dirty shoes (.) walk on the  
24 seats  
25 Teacher YI: with your dad's shoes  
26 Saleh: no with my shoes  
27 Teacher YI: o(h)kay  
28 Ahmed: dirty shoes  
29 Teacher YI: ah:,  
30 Saleh: car (.) °the° car leather (.) I- I ruined the car  
31 leather  
32 Teacher YI: (hh) [ oh that's not a £nice memory£ hh  
33 Ahmed: [hh hh  
34 Saleh: but I remember it  
35 Teacher YI: <what happened next>  
36 Sx: ( )  
37 Saleh: didn't tell me anything (.) I was very young  
38 Teacher YI: ok(h)ay  
39 Saleh: I think three (.) four  
40 Teacher YI: three or four (.) hm mm  
41 (.)  
42 Teacher YI: (*reading*) I'm not as young as I used to be

43 and I definitely think my memory's getting  
44 worse

As observed in previous excerpts, Teacher YI initiates a fluency sequence utilizing text from the lesson handout. However, instead of reading out a prompt, she reads a statement and then asks a follow up question 'is that (.) true to anyone?' (line 4). In replying 'no', two of the students offer an acceptable (if dispreferred) response. Perhaps due to the teacher not offering a continuer or asking a question after their turns, Ahmed and Ana opt not to continue their turns. In line 9, Saleh states that he can remember something earlier than school, his first day in kindergarten. The teacher's response is to smile and nod which appears designed as a continuer or go-ahead. However, it seems to be an insufficient response for Saleh who clarifies in line 12: 'that was before I was six I was four five'. Following this turn, the teacher produces an acceptance token by repeating 'four' with elongation/emphasis on the vowel sound. She appears to treat this as sequence closing by asking a further question to the group: 'yeah what's everyone's earliest memory'. While the teacher's first question could be answered with a bald affirmative or negative, this question is more likely to elicit a telling due to a memory being recalled which is reminiscent of a story. It appears that the teacher is attempting to elicit extended turns from the learners, as would befit the pedagogical goals of the meaning-and-fluency context.

Ana produces a sigh 'uff'<sup>11</sup> which results in the teacher expanding on her question with the option for 'something you feel'. Again, Saleh is first to respond, returning to his favourite topic of conversation, very expensive cars, which causes the teacher to laugh out loud. Saleh is not derailed by this and launches his telling in line 22. The teacher responds with an understanding check in line 25 'with your dad's shoes', which the student corrects 'no with my shoes'. Following the teacher's alignment token, Ahmed adds 'dirty shoes' in line 28 with a clear emphasis on the word dirty. What is noted here is how one student collaboratively intervenes to clarify another's telling. It is doubtful that Ahmed has heard the story previously

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<sup>11</sup> This sounds typically Spanish (her L1) but I am not sure of its meaning in the L1.



which excludes the kind of assisted storytelling that has been observed when participants have a shared epistemic status (Lerner, 1992). Nevertheless, he feels confident to act as an ‘interpreter’ for his friend’s telling and is successful in doing so with the teacher producing a news receipt acknowledgement in the next turn.

In lines 30-31, Saleh expounds on his telling, by haltingly, with several false starts, explaining that he had ‘ruined the car leather’. Despite the fact that the vocabulary in this utterance is advanced for a student at this level and his pronunciation flawless, the teacher does not comment. It is therefore also seemingly possible that Firth’s (1996) ‘let it pass’ principle in meaning-and-fluency contexts could be applied to praiseworthy production of the target language. Instead, the teacher responds affiliatively and relates his telling back to the lesson’s focus on the theme of memory, thus sanctioning and positively assessing the student’s contribution. However, the student appears to react to the teacher’s turn as a criticism and defends his telling as being something he remembered even if it wasn’t a pleasant memory, thus, highlighting the importance that all the participants put on providing an appropriate answer to a prompt. The teacher’s question in line 35 ‘what happened next’ provides Saleh with a direct continuer which he responds to by explaining that his father did not tell him off because he was so young at the time, stating his age as three or four. Once this has been accepted by a repetition, the teacher moves on to a new prompt.

This sub-section has examined how learner storytellings are responded to by ESOL teachers in meaning-and-fluency focused lessons, producing a hybrid context. Several actions and practices can be identified as common to the tellings which will be summarised at the end of the chapter. These include the story prompts, student self-selection, the use of alignment and affiliation tokens, collaborative practices from the teacher and occasionally other students, and the closing formulations as assessments.



((56 lines omitted on queueing culture/jumping))

6 Teacher YD: okay that's good, (0.5) but it is annoying.  
7 (0.6)

8 Teacher YD: (h)hmm, (1.0) I told you before when I was at the  
9 air<sup>↑</sup>port there was (1.4) a que:ue (0.3) fo:r- >'nd I'd  
10 been waiting in the queue for about two hours<

11 Ahmed: ((small laugh/smile))

12 Teacher YD: and then (.) for a- a lady came with her (.) wheelchair  
13 (.) of course she was disabled so okay fair enough  
14 ((gestures forward)) she came to the front no problem and  
15 then she brought with her about twelve people<sup>↑</sup>

16 Ahmed: [((laughs))

17 Clara: [((laughs))

18 Teacher YD: so: I felt yeah it was a bit annoying to be honest °with  
19 you°

20 Clara: yes ((nods))

21 Teacher: her and her helpers okay but when you just then they  
22 bring everyone else then [it jus

23 Clara: [(really not)

24 Teacher YD: I-I think everyone was thinking the same as (.)  
25 [me that it was just a bit <over the top>

26 Clara: [yeah

27 Teacher YD: 'nd it was just too much

28 Ahmed: yeah

29 Teacher YD: ((clears throat)) how about the next one. if someone is very  
30 rude to you

Following a lengthy discussion in queueing culture and queue jumping, the teacher concludes with an assessment and reiterates his initial stance 'okay that's good, (0.5) but it is annoying' (line 6). There follows a 0.6 gap, after which the teacher launches a telling, first referring back to a previous informing 'I told you before'. In terms of the epistemics of storytelling, this action recruits the participants into his telling as sharing some common knowledge of the setting and/or context. As a result, certain typical elements of the launch of a

storytelling are omitted, e.g. details as to why he was at the airport, who with, where he was going, etc. Teacher YD recalls how he was waiting in a queue, thus linking his telling to the prompt, and adds a dramatic element that he had been waiting for about 2 hours. Following the teacher's exclamation, one of the students produces a laugh/smile at the TRP that acts as an alignment token to the exaggerated stance of the teller. One of the other students maintains gaze throughout the telling, while the other student is mostly looking down at the table and therefore seemingly less engaged in the telling.

Teacher YD continues his telling, introducing the main character as a woman in a wheelchair. In clarifying that 'of course she was disabled', it may be that he is designing his turn for his audience of L2 learners but it also provides a rationale for the next action in the story where he enacts the 'waving forward', or queue jumping action. At this point in the telling, the teacher produces a 'lamination' (Goffman, 1981) or overlapping of frames by enacting the story with gestures (e.g. come forward gesture in line 14), possible elements of direct reported speech (e.g. 'no problem' in line 14), and the recounting of the events to a climax in line 15: 'she brought with her about twelve people'. The climax of his humorous telling receives a preferred response of laughter from two of the students. The teacher's next turn is a formulation that signals the close of the telling and a repetition the teller's stance of 'a bit annoying' that was first stated back in line 1 immediately after reading out the prompt. In pedagogical terms, the teacher has produced a perfect model of a longer sequence in the shape of a storytelling, that links directly back to the prompt, its key vocabulary and the initial assessment. It therefore appears to function as a model that the students could emulate.

In line 20, Clara's production of an agreement token of 'yes' and nodding could signal the end of the sequence. However, the teacher produces further assessments and closing formulations (lines 21/22, 24/25 and 27), either as a way to convince the audience of the veracity of the teller's stance or to clarify and explain for speakers of English as L2. Certainly, the emphasis and elongation on the production of 'over the top' signals that this phrase is a 'learnable'. Although Clara's response in line 23 is unintelligible, it does appear to be offering alignment or

acceptance of the teller's stance. Likewise Clara's 'yeah' in line 26 and Ahmed's in line 28 both align and offer preferred responses. What is perhaps missing is an affiliative response, e.g. oh yes that is annoying. Nevertheless, following Ahmed's 'yeah' the teacher takes the sequence as closed and moves on to the next prompt in line 29.

#### **6.4 Summary**

In Chapter 4 the teaching context under analysis was form-and-accuracy, whereas in Chapter 5 and 6 the focus has shifted to the meaning-and-fluency context of L2 teaching. It was expected that the interactional architecture of these two contexts would noticeably differ (Seedhouse, 2004). What this study has also demonstrated is how ESOL teacher actions and practices differ depending on the specific pedagogical goal and the activity type. The tellings in this dataset were not produced in a lesson with an explicit aim to teach or practice storytelling, instead they arose naturally from 'fluency' prompts on a class handout. During these 'conversation' lessons, the teacher focuses on encouraging fluency on a moment-by-moment basis and where appropriate, collaborating in the production of extended turns-at-talk, e.g. storytelling. The teacher is therefore seen to be operating as a 'mediator', ensuring that the learner's message is successfully communicated, as well as operating as a 'collaborator' in the production of fluent talk (Seedhouse, 2004, p.117-8).

With regard to learner storytelling, several ESOL teacher actions and practices were identified in the analysis of this study which will be summarized here. Firstly, that the storytellings are initiated by a teaching resource, a handout, either in the form of a direct prompt or in the last excerpt provided one formulated by the teacher in response to a statement on the handout. Secondly, that the normal turn-taking rules of the classroom (McHoul, 1978) are suspended, due to the learners needing to show 'willingness to contribute' (Sert, 2019a) when the material is asking for them to share personal experiences. Self-selection is therefore more common than in form-and-accuracy contexts. It is also noted that normal turn-taking rules are suspended to allow

for a telling's extended turns, as is typical of storytelling in everyday conversation (Mandelbaum, 2013). Thirdly, teachers and occasionally other learners may be engaged in collaboratively constructing the storytelling, e.g. assisting with word finding or eliciting further details regarding the details of the story. Fourthly, L2 teachers tend to employ more alignment and less affiliation tokens compared to everyday storytelling. This can partly be explained by the dual action of aligning and evaluating that teachers may perform in the same turn as was noted in the analysis. Fifthly, it was noted that L2 teachers take control of the closing of the storytelling, often by the production of a closing formulation, which may contain a 'learnable'. Finally, the overall 'completion' of the activity is strongly oriented to by the teacher and sometimes by the students; this entails ensuring that the prompt has been appropriately responded to.

As the goal is for learners to produce extended turns, a teacher storytelling could be viewed as a 'last resort', similar to when a L2 teacher may resort to providing the correct answer in a form-and-accuracy context. Nevertheless, they are seen to serve two pedagogical functions: to act as a model storytelling for the students to emulate (Wood et al., 1976) and to provide opportunities for the students to practice being active recipients in storytelling episodes (Kim, 2016)

Finally, an overall observation was made regarding what could be described as the hybrid nature of the interaction in these storytelling sequences, between that of everyday conversations and classroom discourse. This and other examples of the hybrid nature of the talk in meaning-and-fluency contexts will be discussed further in the Discussion (Chapter 7).

## Chapter 7: Discussion

### 7.1 Introduction

This study has applied the micro-analytic tool of CA to the investigation of teacher talk, the *how* of 'doing teaching', in the context of adult L2 classrooms of General English (ESOL) in the UK. Despite extensive previous CA research into L2 classrooms (e.g. Lee, 2007; Seedhouse, 2004; Wong & Waring, 2008), few studies have focused on the specific context of General ESOL teaching in Adult Education (i.e. non-academic). Although, work on the parallel setting of ESL classes (e.g. Reddington, 2018; Waring, 2016) in the USA has been influential in documenting phenomena such as classroom management strategies and the use of humour (e.g. Reddington & Waring, 2015). As this study demonstrates, analysis of the ESOL lesson as an interactional context offers useful insights into the ways in which ESOL teachers go about the profession of 'doing teaching'.

As outlined by Seedhouse (2004) and others (e.g. Krashan, 1982), and discussed in more detail in the Literature Review (Chapter 2), an overarching distinction can be made between L2 teaching contexts with different pedagogical goals, with Seedhouse's (2004) 'form-and-accuracy' (Chapter 4) and 'meaning-and-fluency' (Chapters 5 and 6) identified as the most relevant for this study.<sup>12</sup> Gardner (2019) notes that the 'form-and-accuracy' context has overwhelmingly received more attention in L2 classroom interaction research. While Chapter 4 focuses on this more formal teaching context and in particular how IRE extended sequences are managed by the teacher, the focus of the remaining two analytic chapters is on the context that has received less attention in previous research, that of meaning-and-fluency. Chapter 5 focused on ESOL teachers' actions and practices to shape the fluent production of the target language,

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<sup>12</sup> Seedhouse (2004) also identified two other L2 teaching contexts: 'task-oriented' and 'procedural'. The first was not considered relevant for this study as the majority of the interaction takes place between students and the focus here is on teacher responses. The second context did not appear frequently in the dataset.

including the use of continuers, formulations and repair practices, while Chapter 6 developed this analysis by focusing on one particular meaning-and-fluency activity: storytelling.

The overarching aims of the thesis were to identify the actions and practices of ‘doing L2 teaching’ in the ESOL classroom and to observe how L2 teachers shape development in the target language through contingent and collaborative practices, that may engender the devising of hybrid contexts. In order to achieve these research objectives, the following research questions were designed for the individual analytic chapters:

Chapter 4: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers use to shape the accurate production of the target language in form-and-accuracy teaching contexts?

Chapter 5: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ in shaping fluent production in the L2 in meaning-and-accuracy teaching contexts?

Chapter 6: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ to support learner storytelling in a hybrid pedagogical context?

In responding to the study’s overall research aims, I note that the actions and practices of doing ESOL teaching have been identified as a ‘toolkit’ which is dependent on the teaching context, i.e. form-and-accuracy or meaning-and-fluency. Secondly, regarding ESOL teachers’ shaping of the target language through contingent and collaborative practices, these were found to be pervasive throughout the dataset with ESOL teachers responding to student contributions with sensitivity and skill, as will be detailed in the ensuing discussion. In responding to the chapter specific research questions, I will provide a brief summary of the relevant findings that will be discussed in the following sections in more detail.

In Chapter 4, the focus was on teacher responses in form-and-accuracy contexts where the pedagogical goal is accurate production in the target language. To this end, the teachers’ actions and practices in response turns in the IRE sequences, that are ubiquitous in this context, were investigated. It was noted that teachers shape the students’ production of the target language through their actions of positive and negative evaluations, all of which are contingently designed



to guide the learner to accurate production in the L2. Furthermore, it was observed that ESOL teachers frequently blend or synthesise contexts (e.g. form-and-accuracy with meaning-and-fluency) to check meaning and increase student participation. In Chapter 5, the focus shifted to teachers' actions and practices in the meaning-and-fluency context where the pedagogical goal is facilitating opportunities for practicing and generating fluent production in the L2. As a result, the teachers' role is akin to that of a facilitator or collaborator, ensuring that the conversation flows and that shared understanding is maintained. In terms of ESOL teacher actions and practices in meaning-and-fluency contexts, these were identified as continuers, repair practices, other-correction and formulations. Chapter 6 also focused on a type of meaning-and-fluency context, that of storytelling. Here, it was shown that ESOL teachers support their learners to tell stories in the L2 via collaborative actions and practices that align and affiliate with the storytelling, such as continuers, candidate understandings and formulations. Moreover, they appear to blend some of the attributes of everyday storytelling with the pedagogical aspects of meaning-and-fluency contexts to create a hybrid form of interaction.

These research findings shed light on ESOL teacher actions and practices in the classroom, particularly in the under-researched meaning-and-fluency context. As such it contributes to Firth and Wagner's (1997; 2007) call for more research into L2 teaching that focuses on L2 learning as a social and contextualised phenomenon and adds to existing literature on the 'interactional architecture' of the L2 classroom (Seedhouse, 2004). Moreover, the use of CA with its insistence on the use of naturally occurring data, responds to Ellis' (2017) call for research that properly informs on what is actually happening in the L2 classroom, with the resulting aim of bridging the gap between teachers' attitudes and textbook recommendations regarding teacher pedagogical practices.

This next section discusses the findings from this study, situating these within the body of previous CA research into talk in the L2 classroom. Following this, theoretical and pedagogical implications of the study's findings are presented and discussed. Finally, strengths and

limitations of the study, and possible recommendations for future research are presented as a conclusion.

## **7.2 Discussion of findings**

This section is divided into three subsections that deal with each of the analytic chapters in turn. The findings of each chapter are briefly summarised, before being discussed in relation to the relevant research literature. Additionally, the findings are discussed in relation to the study's research questions. The purpose of this section is to summarise and collate the study's observations and findings in preparation for the following section, where the overarching implications of the findings are discussed in relation to theoretical and pedagogical aspects.

### **7.2.1 ESOL teacher responses in form-and-accuracy contexts**

Chapter 4 analysed the interactional features of teacher responses in form-and accuracy contexts of ESOL teaching. As is common in instructional or formal teaching contexts, the IRE sequences dominate much of this type of interaction in the dataset, serving the pedagogical goal of attending to and enhancing accurate production of the target language. Drawing on Complexity Theory, Seedhouse (2022, p.9) has proposed that the pervasiveness of the IRE sequence is due to its design providing the 'most compact vehicle' to achieve that goal, which the findings from this study support. While criticism is commonly levied against the perceived straight-jacket or lockstep of the IRE sequence, this study's findings demonstrate that it is an effective feedback system that is not necessarily a barrier to developing interaction in the L2 classroom. For example, my findings mirror Waring's (2014) in demonstrating how L2 teachers can skilfully shift between IRE and fluency sequences while still retaining control of the interaction (see section 4.5.1). In answering the research question (for Chapter 4):

What actions and practices do ESOL teachers use to shape the accurate production of the target language in form-and-accuracy teaching contexts?

the analysis focused on the teachers' third turn evaluative practices as rich sites of L2 teaching-in-action (to paraphrase Lee (2007)).

Section 4.2 investigated ESOL teachers' positive evaluations of a student response that had been deemed correct or acceptable. As established by Margutti and Drew (2014), positive evaluations are the preferred third part of the IRE sequence, and described as 'sequence-closing' by Schegloff (2007, p.221). Moreover, Wong & Waring (2008) posited that positive evaluations (or acceptance tokens) in the IRE third turn (e.g. 'very good') effectively shut down the interaction. This was mirrored in my dataset with a teacher's next IRE initiation normally following a positive evaluation turn. Gardner (2019) makes the pertinent point that a predominance of third-turn positive evaluations in a lesson could show that the material being worked on is below the students' language level, in other words not appropriately stretching the students. Therefore, there is perhaps then an epistemic incongruity being highlighted here in relation to the IRE sequence, between the pedagogical ideal of scaffolding and the constraints inherent in the preference of the IRE sequence.

However, this study found that positive evaluation turns are not always sequence-closing, with the teachers frequently opting to extend the sequence. This echoes interactional practices between adults/caregivers and young children acquiring their first language (e.g. Cleave et al., 2015; Drew, 1981). Despite these post-evaluation expansion sequences having been referred to as desirable in the literature on L2 teaching (e.g. Gourley, 2005; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Wong & Waring, 2008), very little detail has been provided on their sequential organization and the actions being enacted. In this study, it was shown that following a teacher's evaluation turn, ESOL teachers may opt to add an expansion turn, either as a stated 'learnable' (Majlesi & Broth, 2012) (e.g. 'so present continuous for the (.) near future' from extract #4.2) or as a follow up question (e.g. 'when do you need to give your fingerprint?' from extract #4.3). In producing the 'learnable', the teacher normally gazes at the students but there appears

to be no expectation or prompt for a response from the students. Moreover, these post-evaluation extensions also provide the opportunity for the initiation of a side fluency sequence. For example, the teacher may follow up a completed IRE sequence with a question that provides a useful vocabulary knowledge check, while also eliciting personal experiences and/or cultural knowledge in the classroom talk. Waring (2011; 2014) noted that ESOL teachers frequently negotiate between control and connection in the classroom through this shifting of context which has not been extensively explored in the CA L2 teaching literature. It is clear that this potential synthesising of contexts requires interactional work on the part of the L2 teachers. What was noted in the analysis is that once the side-fluency sequence has been concluded the teacher usually returns to initiating a new IRE sequence of the form-and-accuracy type. I suggest that this as potentially a fruitful avenue for future research.

In section 4.3, the analytic focus shifted to third turn negative evaluations in IRE sequences and how these may be supplemented with prompting sequences, thus combining a negative evaluation and prompt to signal to the student that they should make another attempt to produce the correct response. This mirrors Schegloff's (2007, p.117) observation that third-turn negative evaluations are 'expansion-relevant'. What comes into focus as a result of my analysis is how the ESOL teachers respond according to the students' displays of knowledge (Koole, 2010) and contingently design their next turn by selecting from a toolbox of prompts (e.g. bald rejection tokens, epistemic prompts, invoking a rule and DIUs) in order to guide the student to a correct response. While the third turn of the IRE has been the focus of CA studies on L2 classroom interaction (e.g. Lee, 2007), what this study contributes is the detailed analysis of the extended correction sequences (as called for by Gardner, 2019). These findings will be discussed in the following subsections.

One of the key findings is that rejection tokens of 'no' and alternative forms (e.g. non-verbal head shaking) featured regularly in this study's dataset. This contrasts to Seedhouse's (1997) study where he found only one example in a significantly larger dataset than that employed for this study. In pointing out that 'no' was extremely rare in his dataset, Seedhouse (1997) argued that

the avoidance of explicit rejection tokens resulted in linguistic inaccuracies being marked as embarrassing or problematic, thus contradicting the pedagogical tenet that 'it's OK to make linguistic errors' (p.567). He posited that the use of more explicit rejecting actions would better align pedagogy and the interactional practices of the classroom, which was observed in the dataset. In analysing a collection of explicit rejection actions, this study contributes to knowledge on how these are sequentially organized and how they are oriented to by the participants.

Furthermore, it was observed that ESOL teachers may use an extreme rejection token when they assume knowledge of the correct alternative in the learner's L2 repertoire, as in the example in excerpt 4.6, where the 'no' prompts a correct response from the learner in the following turn. In addition, this argument is strengthened by the fact that many of the grammar exercises being worked on in the classes in the dataset, presented a choice of only two options for the answer, meaning that if X is wrong it must be Y. However, this is complicated by the requirement to conjugate the verb form once the correct verb aspect has been confirmed, which may still result in a non-response or incorrect attempt. It was noted that a teacher's 'no' that fails to elicit a response, correct or otherwise, from the original student, may sometimes result in a correct response from another student, an example of Kasper's (1985) 'delegated repair'. While this perhaps calls into question the teacher's assessment of the first student's knowledge, it can be seen to align with the notion of a collective epistemic status being ascribed to the students, as highlighted by Heller (2017) as a contingent skill that L2 teachers must be constantly orienting to and then designing their turns in relation to this. Meanwhile, Stivers et al.'s (2011) notion of 'epistemic responsibility' puts the onus back on the students. There appears to be an element of this in the occasional delivery of the negative evaluation in a jokey tone that seemed designed as a tease (e.g. see #4.12), as if the teacher judges that the students should be capable of answering the question correctly. Although seemingly risky in terms of managing rapport in classroom talk, Looney & Kin (2019) posited that third turn teases may turn out to be unexpectedly affiliative. In support of this claim, it seems to be the case that a convivial atmosphere, with a sense of trust built between the teacher and the students, is maintained, and enhanced throughout the explicit rejection sequences in this study's dataset. This supports Seedhouse's (2004) argument that the

unmitigated use of rejection tokens can be beneficial to achieving the pedagogical goals of the L2 classroom.

In summarising the use of bald rejections in the study's dataset, several observations can be made. Bald rejections, including verbal and non-verbal varieties, are located at one end of a cline of correction sequences in terms of scaffolding or support, in that no prompt or hint is explicitly supplied. These negative evaluations are local, unmitigated, and provide an opportunity for the student to self-repair. When self-repair is unsuccessful (or not attempted), a slot opens up for peer-repair. If neither self nor peer repair is successful, the teacher may usually launch a prompt, hint or explanation sequence to readdress the displayed gap in the learner's L2 knowledge.

In sections 4.4 and 4.5 extended negative evaluation prompting sequences that appear to be designed to move the student from an incorrect response to one that it is deemed acceptable or correct were analysed. These were found to include various pedagogical actions and practices that can be positioned along a scale from minimal support or hinting to more explicit prompting. Within this group of corrective practices, actions identified in the analysis (from excerpt #4.12) include: epistemic prompts (e.g. 'What could it be? What should it be'), invoking a rule (e.g. 'no. he (0.7) past simple') and DIUs (e.g. 'I was pai::nt='). The aim of this section is to unpack some of the characteristics of L2 teacher actions and practices in prompting sequences as observed in the dataset, thus adding to previous literature on repair and correction in the L2 classroom (e.g. Norrick, 1991; Seedhouse, 2004).

Following on from the discussion of bald rejection tokens, this section first considers the ESOL teachers' use of negative evaluations that include a prompt or hint. It was observed in the dataset that these took the form of 'references to a past learning event' (Can Daşkın & Hatipoğlu, 2019, p.17), or expected knowledge state, which often included the invoking or reminder of a grammar rule and/or how to apply that rule. They are complex actions that appear to manage incongruency between a perceived to-have-been-established knowledge base and the learner's actual performance in the target language, thus are contingently designed to guide the student(s) to the target response.

In terms of their sequential placement, the negative evaluations including a prompt were normally located in the third turn of the IRE, i.e. in the evaluation slot. These findings partly mirror work by Can Daşkın and Hatipoğlu (2019), who noted that epistemic prompts or ‘references to past learning events’ occur during or close to a teacher evaluation turn. In extracts #4.14 and #4.15, the reminder of a grammar rule or previous learning event results in a revised attempt at the target language in the next turn. It was also noted that an epistemic prompt or the invoking of a rule may often instigate the insertion of a new IRE sequence. For example, in extract #4.16 the teacher asks the student to confirm the grammar rule regarding the use of present simple and present continuous by asking ‘is it a general thing every afternoo:n (0.2) or is it just (1.0) specifically’. Once the side sequence has been completed, the participants return to complete the original IRE sequence. In this example, the teacher extends the positive evaluation with a ‘learnable’ that adds a further reminder of the grammar point just covered. Mercer (2008) pointed out that learning is longitudinal and incremental, which is evident in these teacher references back to prior learning events. In summing up the analysis of these sequences, it is noted how the teachers skilfully design their feedback in terms of prompts and reminders to guide the students into producing the target language themselves, thus ideally managing to self-correct and learning how to apply rules to do so in future.

The third phenomenon that was analysed in this section on ESOL teacher negative evaluation actions were DIUs. In terms of support provided in guiding the student to the correct answer, these are at the high end of the scale, due to pinpointing the location of the repair and providing part of the target response, whether that is a word or phrase. It is noted in the examples in the dataset that a DIU is normally only used when other repair initiations have failed, which echoes Koshik’s (2002) findings. For example, in extract #4.20 the teacher has previously elicited and checked understanding of the present simple and continuous tenses before resorting to two DIUs to elicit the correct production of the target language. The first is a simple DIU (‘it say::’) that produces part of the response up to the error, in this case the missing ‘s’ on the verb say, while lengthening the last syllable and pausing to encourage completion. When the student fails to respond, the teacher upgrades their DIU to include a reference to the earlier grammar point

(‘I say. you say. it’), which elicits the correct response from the student. What is noted as highly unusual about the DIU adjacency pair is how an incomplete TCU is posited for completion by the recipient (Koshik, 2002). While speakers may sometimes be invited to finish off another’s TCU, e.g. in a wordsearch (Lerner, 1996), the difference here is that the completion has been made sequentially relevant and expected as part of an IRE sequence. Thus making the DIU a specifically pedagogical action. The examples provided in the analysis demonstrate how DIUs are contingently utilised by the teachers to enable collaborative production of the target language to be achieved, perhaps as a last resort before the teacher supplies the correct answer themselves (as occurred at the end of extract #4.21).

In summing up the findings from Chapter 4, the observations have centred round the IRE third turn and the possible expansion of this sequence by one or more teacher prompts. Positively evaluative actions were shown to often be simple with a traditional sequence-closing tripartite structure (Schegloff, 2007); however, they may be expanded to include a ‘learnable’ (Majlesi & Broth, 2012), which could refer back to a grammar rule, or initiate a side fluency sequence. Negatively evaluative actions were shown to also have a simple version in the form of the bald rejection token (verbal or non-verbal), that made a second attempt (i.e. a self-repair) from the student relevant. While these have not been documented as unmitigated in the literature, they appeared to be so in this dataset, which is perhaps a characteristic of classroom interaction in an adult ESOL setting. Other negatively evaluative actions identified in the dataset included prompts to prior learning events, invoking of grammar rules and DIUs. While not strictly ordered along a cline from more supported to less, there was evidence, particularly in the extended sequences provided in the analysis, that teachers make contingent decisions as to how much support a learner may require for them to be able to produce an accurate target language response. In answering the research question, these are the toolbox of actions and practices that L2 teachers use to achieve the pedagogical goal of accurate production in the target language.



### **7.2.2 ESOL teacher responses in meaning-and-fluency contexts**

In addition to the instructional work that L2 teachers perform regarding the accurate production of the L2, they are also required to take on the role of a conversational partner, essentially as ‘facilitators and shapers of language output’ (Long, 1996). It is this aspect of the L2 teachers’ work that Chapter 5 on meaning-and-fluency contexts and Chapter 6 on storytelling sequences (one type of meaning-and-fluency activity) sought to investigate. Notably, the pedagogical focus has shifted from producing accurate language to developing fluency in the target language, resulting in the teacher usually being in a K- role for content while retaining the K+ expert position for the L2 (as documented by Reddington, 2018). On a practical level, while it is often the teacher or some pedagogical materials (e.g. a handout) that set the topic of the conversation, the students’ responses are individualized and spontaneous, in that they share personal experiences and/or beliefs that the teacher does not normally have prior knowledge of (i.e. not ‘known-answer questions’). This contrasts with the form-and-accuracy context of L2 teaching where the teacher retains a K+ status in terms of both language and content and maintains a tight hold on the interaction (Waring et al., 2016).

Chapter 5 explored the contingent interactional work done by ESOL teachers to facilitate fluency and manage shared understanding in meaning-and-fluency contexts. In answering the following research question:

What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ in shaping fluent production in the L2 in meaning-and-accuracy teaching contexts?

The findings include observations on how continuers are often vehicles for multi-actions, how co-construction builds understanding in repair sequences and how other-corrections, including recasts, are unmarked and therefore consistent with co-construction of talk rather than a correction, thus upholding rather than hindering the progressivity of talk, as supported by Seedhouse’s observation the L2 teachers may design their repair to be hidden or camouflaged (Seedhouse, 1997a).

In Section 5.2, it was demonstrated that continuers or minimal responses (Schegloff, 1982), such as ‘mh mm’, ‘yeah’ and ‘okay’ are employed by ESOL teachers in shaping the production of the target language in meaning-and-fluency sequences. Akin to the absence of an acceptance or agreement token in an IRE sequence being equated to a rejection (Margutti & Drew, 2014), it was observed that learners also orient to approval/confirmation from teachers in fluency-focused talk before continuing. While this first appears to be a specifically pedagogical and institutional characteristic of the talk, this phenomenon is also common in NS/NNS talk. where the NNS will frequently look to the NS for approval before continuing (Vickers, 2010). However, it was noted that continuers do additional work in classrooms compared to their use in everyday conversation; not only do they claim understanding and give the go-ahead, but they are also usually evaluative. Therefore, one of the findings of this chapter is that ESOL teacher continuers in meaning-and-fluency contexts are often vehicles for multiple actions.

Section 5.3 examined co-constructed examples of self-initiated other repair (SIOR) in the dataset, with many taking the form of word searches. While Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) noted that word searches do not necessarily request assistance from the recipient, research into L2 interaction has observed that NNS will frequently bypass the preference for self-repair by making it clear that they are recruiting assistance (Brouwer, 2003; Kurhila, 2006). This was found to be a common practice in the dataset with learners recruiting assistance from both teachers and other students, through direct recruitment (e.g. ‘I don’t know the name’ extract 5.4), ‘try-marking’ (Sacks & Schegloff, 1979) and/or the direction of gaze (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986), which mirrored findings by Duran et al. (2019) in a university setting. For example, in extract #5.4, when the student indicates that she has forgotten the word ‘sword’ again by uttering ‘er don’t put well the the’ and gazing at the teacher, he produces the word for her, and she continues her turn with the correct word in place. It was noted that other-repair following a word search is performed as efficiently and collaboratively as possible with minimal effect on the progressivity of the talk. A further finding that relates to the teacher’s expert status role is how even in an example of a self-repaired word search, the teacher still takes on the role of confirming the located word as appropriate and correct, which he does through an

‘echo explanation’ (Heritage, 1984b), thus acknowledging it as both new and correct. This highlights the teacher’s role as the expert for sanctioning the use of the L2, even in SISRs. As in the previous section, the hybrid nature of talk is noted with many of the practices described here being similar to NS-NNS interaction outside the classroom.

In Section 5.4 the focus shifted to instances of teacher-initiated student-repair (OISR) and teacher formulations. It was found that there were limited examples of open class OISR in the meaning-and-fluency contexts in the dataset. These tended to appear in the more relaxed or even liminal spaces between teaching and break time, e.g. the open repair evident in extract #5.6 which is talk that occurred prior to the start of the lesson. Thus, not necessarily pedagogic but more akin to everyday conversational repair that puts ‘epistemic responsibility’ back onto the speaker (Stivers et al., 2011). This appears to reflect Van Lier’s (1988) ‘didactic’ and ‘conversational’ repair, which he posited as two types of repair that occur in the language classroom. What is also noticeably different about this type of repair is that they are not minimal or embedded like the other-corrections that will be discussed in the next subsection; OISR are usually explicit and potentially sequence disrupting. Meanwhile, Kendrick (2015) notes the use of partial repeats in OIR (that are evident in extract #5.6 e.g. ‘to the school?’) as serving to provide a frame for the repair, which helps to pinpoint the location for the repair.

One practice of L2 teachers that was observed as common in the dataset, that was also noted as the most common form of OISR in Kendrick’s (2015) study, was that of ‘candidate understandings’ (CUs). The design of these will be discussed as well as their effect on progressivity and co-construction of talk. In inferring through the use of a CU what the first speaker had meant to say, the second speaker initiates an insertion sequence with the CU as the FPP and the confirmation or rejection of the proposed CU being made relevant in the SPP (Heritage, 1984b, p.319). Indeed, the findings from the data show that most CUs are confirmed by the students, often with a simple yes; however, sometimes a student will challenge or correct a CU. While the original speaker is provided with the opportunity to confirm or reject the proffered interpretation of their talk, there is nevertheless a sense that CUs can be risky. Antaki

(2012) posits that CUs are usually detrimental to the progressivity of the talk and may be disaffiliative. While not as common as in the storytelling episodes that were analysed in Chapter 6, formulations were also observed in other meaning-and-fluency talk-in-interaction. Rather than simply requesting a confirmation from the first speaker of what has been inferred from the talk, formulations transform speech and display a particular understanding of what has been said. It was observed in the dataset that CUs and formulations can be vehicles for the introduction of new vocabulary or a 'learnable'. This practice of introducing 'learnables' in formulations will be discussed the section on Chapter 6 as they occurred more frequently in these data.

Section 5.5 analysed other-correction practices in the dataset, many of which are commonly referred to as 'recasts' in the L2 literature (e.g. Loewen, & Sato, 2018). While correction is accepted and expected in the L2 classroom, e.g. Norrick (1991) noted that 'evaluation and correction of student performance make up a large part of what teachers are expected to do' (p.73); it is suggested that as other-correction would be out-of-place in everyday conversation it is perhaps unusual to find it in the L2 meaning-and-fluency class. Moreover, Nguyen (2007, p.285) claims that there is an 'apparent, inherent paradox' in combining instructional and social functions in the classroom. However, the study's findings show that other-correction is noticeably unmarked in the data, with most corrections or recasts only minimally affecting the progressivity of the talk. This is perhaps also reflected in the predominance of what Firth (1996) referred to as the 'let it pass' phenomenon, where NS and NNS interactional partners will choose to ignore certain errors in the production of L2 talk. A further observation made in the analysis was the 'permeability' of learner turns (Lerner, 1996) with teachers appearing to have rights to interrupt mid-TCU and correct items.

In summing up the findings of Chapter 5, it is also useful to make reference to the analysis of the extended sequence in section 5.6. It is noted that the teacher is K- in terms of the content (the students' positioning as the elder or younger in relation to their siblings) while simultaneously being K+ in terms of the target language, which is representative of the teacher's status in the interaction in meaning-and-fluency contexts in the dataset. The result of this is a hybrid form of

interaction that has elements of everyday conversation interspersed with pedagogical actions and practices. For example, continuers are used as both go-aheads and evaluations in relation to both content and language. Continuers were found to be oriented to by learners and used frequently by the ESOL teachers to encourage extended turns-at-talk. Meanwhile in repair and correction practices, the L2 teacher has to negotiate between confirming understanding and ensuring that an acceptable response or sample of the target language has been produced. The examples of student-initiated repair normally took the form of word searches that may be repaired by the teacher, a peer or the student themselves. However, what was noted as significant in the data was that in all these cases the teacher retains a gatekeeper role in sanctioning the items, either verbally or also writing them on the classroom whiteboard/laptop.

Other-initiated forms of repair were limited in the meaning-and-fluency contexts in the dataset, which supports the hypothesis of a hybrid form of interaction being in play here, partly conversational and partly pedagogical. What were noted as frequent in the dataset were candidate understandings that supports the finding that negotiating meaning is a key role for the L2 teacher in this pedagogical context. On the other hand, other-correction was found to occur frequently in the dataset and was noted as not requiring any ‘attendant accounting’ (Jefferson, 1987) in the form of any apology or explanation from the original speaker. This resulted in the co-construction of student turns, with other-correction occurring without significant disruption to the flow of talk, thus serving to maintain the progressivity of talk in these conversational classes. In answering the research question, these are the actions and practices that ESOL teachers employ in shaping fluency in meaning-and-fluency contexts in the L2 classroom, that may engender hybrid contexts.

### 7.2.3 ESOL teacher responses in a hybrid context: storytelling

In the third and final analysis chapter, the focus was on how L2 teachers work to support storytellings in the classroom. While the pedagogical task was not intended to solely elicit storytellings, it was one possible response to the prompts (e.g. *what is the worst thing anyone has ever said to you?*) provided on the worksheet (see appendix D), with personal stories being told by both the students and the teacher. In responding to the research question:

Chapter 6: What actions and practices do ESOL teachers employ to support learner storytelling in a hybrid pedagogical context?

it was noted how these storytelling sequences differ interactionally from the IRE sequences that are standard in form-and-accuracy contexts, as well as storytellings told in everyday conversation, thus displaying a hybrid quality, blending the pedagogical meaning-and-fluency context with non-pedagogical conversation. In analysing the teachers' actions and practices in response to learner storytelling in the ESOL classroom, three main actions were highlighted: the story launch, the collaborative responses to the unfolding tale and the management of the story completion. As reviewed in the previous section on meaning-and-fluency contexts in general, in the case of student storytelling, the teacher is K- in terms of the content but retains a K+ role as the L2 expert and teacher. In this section, I will summarise my findings on the various ESOL teacher actions in storytelling episodes in the dataset and discuss these in relation to relevant literature where available.

Firstly, it was observed that the student stories were launched in response to a worksheet prompt, thus in 'second position' (Schegloff, 1997). As a result, the worksheet prompt controlled what was considered acceptable as a response, with the teachers in particular orienting to the appropriacy of the language provided in the response (e.g. in #6.3 the teacher tries to pin down the location of the theft to fit the prompt lexical item 'burglary'). Meanwhile, in everyday conversation a story launched in second position would be expected to 'touch off' from the previous story (Sacks, 1992), which was the case with the teacher's second story in extract 6.1

that was semantically linked to the student's story. However, this 'subsequent story' by the teacher seemed to be doing some additional interactional work here of a pedagogic nature, by providing a model of how to appropriately respond to the prompt. The student storyteller seems to respond to this by defending his own story at the first opportunity, beginning with 'for me' to signal a return to his story and a reformulation of the telling (in line 33 '=°for me° like I shot the ball very hard'). This is one example of the hybrid nature of storytelling in the L2 classroom, with practices from everyday storytelling merging with the pedagogical, with the practice here perhaps more akin to learning an L2 in professional contexts (e.g. Kurhila, 2006). Furthermore, it is evident that the worksheet prompts were not known-answer questions, instead more akin to a 'real' question that would encourage a genuine, personalised response from the learners. This was reflected in an open elicitation from the teacher, as students could not be expected to necessarily have something personal to contribute to each prompt. Thus, the normal turn-taking rules of the classroom (McHoul, 1990), with the teacher nominating students, did not apply in this hybrid context. Nevertheless, the students still looked to the teacher to give the go-ahead for their storytellings.

On the launch of the telling, the students oriented to the teacher as both the main recipient and L2 expert. Thus, highlighting the epistemic tension or incongruence (Heritage, 2013) L2 teachers have to manage in meaning-and-fluency contexts of being K- in terms of content and K+ for the target language. Battle & Deal (2021) have highlighted how these epistemic mismatches need to be carefully managed by L2 teachers to avoid becoming a trouble source, with a resulting repair initiation. At times, it was noted in the dataset that a tension and possible misunderstanding could arise as a result of this incongruence; however, the teachers in the study were careful to respect the student's 'territory of knowledge' (e.g. in extract #5.5 teacher YM allowing time for Seoyun to search for a word on her phone rather than guessing it). Meanwhile, research into L2 'learning in the wild' or in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) talk, where the 'expert' role is less obviously assigned, has suggested that errors are more likely to be ignored in line with Firth's (1996) 'let it pass' phenomenon or by favouring recast formulations to 'correct' language proffered without drawing attention to its 'wrongness' (Theodórsdóttir, 2018). In the

storytellings in the dataset, the ‘let it pass’ notion was frequently observed, helping to focus on the pedagogical goal of fluent communication; however, other-corrections were less common than in the non-storytelling examples of meaning-and-fluency in Chapter 5.

In returning to observations regarding the storytellings, it was noted in the analysis that ESOL teachers tended to use a greater number of aligning rather than affiliating actions in response to the learner storytellings than would be expected in mundane conversations. I suggest this displays the L2 teachers’ pedagogical orientation to evaluating the storytelling in its appropriateness in relation to the worksheet prompt, while also maintaining shared understanding in the classroom. Throughout the tellings, the L2 teachers display moment-by-moment attentiveness to the student’s utterances, producing go-heads and assists (e.g. in a word search) as appropriate. In addition, the teachers are seen to shape the production of the telling in the form of elicitation of extra details (e.g. 6.1 ‘with a football or °something?’) and/or the issuing of candidate understandings (e.g. #6.4 ‘you had a cra:sh?’). It appears that the teachers’ epistemic responsibility furnishes a role that is more akin to that of a ‘collaborator’ (Seedhouse, 2004) in the telling, displayed by their close attention to the unfolding narrative.

At the possible story completion, it was observed that the teachers produced a display of understanding, that were often affiliative and sometimes included a learnable embedded within a formulation (e.g. in #6.2 ‘yeah so you would have been quite eh(.) eh:m (1.0) <demo-tivated> with that’). In their institutional management role, teachers ultimately hold the K+ position in relation to the target language and what is therefore deemed ‘learnable’ (Majlesi & Broth, 2012). Even when a student is telling a personal story or explaining a cultural phenomenon from their own country (i.e. fully K+), it is still the L2 teacher who ‘sanctions’ and ‘accepts’ the proposed L2 contribution, with students seeming to orient to checking their contributions with the teacher. This is perhaps one reason as to why in studies of L2 teacher identity a recurrent label is that of the gatekeeper (Barkhuizen, 2016). In producing a closing formulation, Solem and Skovholt (2017) have posited that teachers elicit the closing or summarising formulation in order to focus on the learnable, which partly mirrors what the L2



teachers do in my dataset. I would also suggest that the closing formulation works as a type of story coda that links back to the initial prompt, thus maintaining shared understanding in the classroom, and perhaps also displaying an evaluation of the storytelling itself as found in examples from psychotherapy sessions (Buchholz, 2016)

Finally, in considering my observations regarding the telling of stories by the teachers in the dataset, I note that these seem to serve one of two functions. In non-storytelling contexts these are often told as ‘funny stories’ and appear to be intended to build rapport in the classroom, while in storytelling contexts they also take on the role of a model answer to the prompt. This is evidenced in the delivery of the stories which was slow, exaggerated and often included enactment, thus designed for the learner recipients. It was also noted that teachers display a preference for learner storytelling, only launching a story of their own during a lull in the talk or as a second story in the example provided in extract #6.1.

Overall, the analysis has demonstrated how the ESOL teachers work to support learner storytelling via the actions and practices detailed in this section.

### **7.3 Further considerations and implications**

The aim of this study was to examine L2 interaction in the adult educational context of ESOL classrooms and in ‘real world’, non-experimental settings. In this section, I will now situate the findings presented in the previous section in relation to theoretical and pedagogical considerations and implications.

### 7.3.1 Theoretical considerations

In considering the theoretical aspects of this study, this section will respond to the central argument of the thesis: ‘Teachers respond to the contingencies of ESOL classroom interaction by employing a wide range of interactional techniques; in some cases this includes teachers devising ‘hybrid contexts’. by drawing out some key themes of the analysis and their contribution to knowledge.

This study has identified the actions and practices of ESOL teachers that ‘talk into being’ (Heritage, 1984a) the distinct pedagogical contexts of the ESOL classroom. It is worth noting here that L2 teaching is ultimately a reflection of the process of L2 acquisition, with the development of complexity, accuracy and fluency recognized as principal components (Housen & Kuiken, 2009). What is challenging about L2 teaching, and what makes it particularly complex, is how teachers need to manage the competing demands of improving accurate production in the target language while also facilitating the development of fluency. Skehan (2009) notes that a seesaw relationship exists between form (complexity and accuracy) and fluency, which this study has shown requires a diverse range of ESOL teacher actions and practices to be appropriately managed. What this dichotomy highlights, and has been demonstrated in this study, is that L2 teachers essentially have at least two distinct ‘toolkits’ of available actions and practices depending on whether their teaching focus is accuracy or fluency.

In building on previous research (e.g Seedhouse, 2004; Solem & Skovholt, 2017), this study has added further granularity to the documenting of these practices, noting previously unrecognised pedagogical effects such as the successful use of bald rejection tokens to prompt student self-repair practices. Furthermore, the use of learnables, candidate understandings and formulations in meaning-and-fluency contexts has not previously been analysed in the depth afforded here. What this study also contributes to knowledge on L2 teaching is how ESOL teachers may synthesise or hybridise contexts to achieve pedagogical goals, with the resulting analysis

potentially identifying a new context of hybrid storytelling to add to Seedhouse's (1996; 2004) inventory of pedagogical contexts.

Moreover, the study builds on previous work by Waring (2014; 2016) and Reddington (2018), by unpacking L2/ESOL teacher moment-by-moment affordances to the interactional dynamics at play in the classroom, while skilfully designing their responses to shape learners' production in the target language. As highlighted by Walsh (2002), the success of teaching depends on how the teacher responds to learner contributions, which requires a skilful level of contingency, i.e. being responsive to learner demands (Waring, 2016). Fundamentally, teachers design their turns to make their talk 'comprehensible' to their students and to achieve the pedagogical goals. From a CA perspective, this echoes what all participants do in talk, which is to 'design your talk to another with an orientation to what you know they know' (Sacks, 1992, p.564). This is termed 'recipient design' and has a particular relevance for talk that is modified in some way by an 'expert' participant for one that is 'learning' e.g. adult carer to young child or L2 teacher and L2 student (Norrick, 1991). It is clear from the study's analysis and findings that ESOL teachers' turn design is a complex practice often involving the integration of multi-actions in one turn (e.g. rejecting and prompting or affiliating, evaluating and formulating).

### **7.3.2 Pedagogical considerations**

I have approached this study as both a CA researcher and an L2 teacher with over 30 years' experience. In the latter role, I am keenly aware of the preference for research findings that enhance understanding of teaching practice rather than issuing a list of recommendations that may or may not be useful in the classroom. As alluded to in the Introduction (Chapter 1), the L2 teaching profession is often dismissed as not 'serious' and has frequently not received the recognition afforded to the more traditional school subjects. Yet, and as demonstrated by this study, it is perhaps one of the more complex subjects to teach, due to the dual nature of language

in the classroom as both product and process, as well as the competing demands of managing accuracy and fluency in the L2. Thus, spotlighting the ‘multivocality’ of the L2 teachers’ role (Waring, 2016), in that they orient to varying and sometimes contradictory pedagogic goals. In this regard, my hope is that this study contributes to furthering awareness of the complex and skilful profession of L2 teaching.

Meanwhile, Ellis (2017) highlighted the divide between professional attitudes and recommendations in teacher textbooks on L2 teaching on the one hand, and current research on the other; claiming that most research is failing to properly document what actually happens in the classroom. By its very nature, CA is an ideal methodology to bridge this divide through its obsession with naturally occurring data and detailed unpacking of the interaction. An example from this study is how the data analysis was able to demonstrate the potentially positive use of bald rejection tokens in IRE sequences. As posited by Lantolf (2010), I believe that research should contribute both to theory and practice, which guides my overview of pedagogical implications presented here.

Arguably the most important pedagogical implication of this study is that it provides a systematic description of the actions and practices of ESOL teachers in form-and-accuracy, meaning-and-fluency, and storytelling pedagogical contexts. The ensuing description, analysis and observations provide a rich source of information on what actually happens in the ESOL classroom that could be used to inform practice. For example, Stokoe’s (2014) CARM model could be applied here with actual transcripts being used in teacher training, rather than imagined dialogues as often appear in teaching textbooks. More recently, another project that demonstrates the usefulness of CA to teaching practice is the VEO, a video tagging software, (Sert, 2019b) that has recently been incorporated into a teacher training programme in a Turkish university. It is a reminder of the possibilities made available when researchers and practitioners work together to produce training materials based on data, i.e. what actually happens in the classroom.

In regard to the pedagogical implications of the study’s findings, I will focus on the meaning-and-fluency context which has received less attention in previous research (Gardner, 2019).

Moreover, successful teaching in the meaning-and-fluency context in L2 classroom interaction has increasingly been recognised as fundamental to developing interactional competence in the target language (e.g. Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Walsh, 2005), which is a fundamental goal of SLA. While L2 teachers are already aware of the complexities involved in error correction, e.g. *when* to correct, *what* to correct, and *how* to correct, they might be less knowledgeable about the effect of certain practices in meaning-and-fluency contexts. For example, in this study it was demonstrated that other-correction is generally unmitigated in the L2 classroom, i.e. usually expected and accommodated for, which makes its integration into the talk relatively smooth, with a minimal effect noticed on progressivity. Prior to this study, I would have assumed that other-corrections were potentially disruptive, negatively affecting the progressivity of talk. As an L2 teacher, I may have avoided other-correction for fear of disrupting the flow of talk but now I would feel more confident that this would not necessarily be the case. Further findings that could be useful for teacher training include: looking at how L2 teachers support learner extended turns, e.g. storytellings; considering how the K+/K- incongruency affects teaching; and encouraging self or peer repair for student-initiated repair practices.

#### **7.4 Strengths and limitations**

Regarding the strengths of this study, these can be seen to include various elements such as the focus on meaning-and-fluency contexts, the synthesising and hybridising of contexts and the focus on teachers' responses to student utterances in extended sequences. Moreover, in collecting data from ESOL classes in Adult Education in the UK, the study investigated L2 teachers' actions and practices in the previously under-researched areas of FE colleges and private language schools. Meanwhile the focus on the meaning-and-fluency context addresses an under-researched area in terms of understanding the interactional architecture of L2 classrooms, despite being acknowledged as equally important for successful communication in the L2. Moreover, the study's design has allowed the comparison between L2 teachers' responses in the form-and-

accuracy and meaning-and-fluency contexts, generating findings on the differing ‘toolbox’ of actions available to teachers in these settings. This is particularly evident when analysing examples of the same teacher, e.g. YM or SR, teaching both form-and-accuracy and meaning-and-fluency elements in the dataset. For example, SR’s control of the IRE sequences is contrasted with her relaxed approach to discussing cultural differences between the UK and the students’ home countries. Additionally, the study has demonstrated how ESOL teachers can talk various contexts ‘in and out of being’ while maintaining control of the interaction. To date, there has been very little analysis of synthesised contexts (e.g. Seedhouse, 1996; Waring, 2014) and almost none at all (see Greenhalgh & Wilkinson, 2021; Kasper & Monfaredi, 2021 for two recent examples) on the potential hybrid context of storytelling in the ESOL classroom.

Turning to some of the potential critiques of this study, which will now be acknowledged and defended. Any empirical research study has its limitations in terms of the particular ‘real world’ sample it can obtain and in selecting a specific set of methodological tools. Therefore, limitations are an intrinsic and unavoidable element of all empirical research projects. It is noted that this is not intended to undermine the overall value of the present study, merely to demonstrate the shortcomings have been acknowledged and reflected upon.

The main limitations relate to the collection and analysis of the data. It must be acknowledged that this is limited by the time and resources available to the researcher on a PhD programme of study. Clearly, a larger dataset would afford more opportunities for identifying key phenomena and gathering larger collections. The attempt to uncover the practices and procedures of ESOL classroom interaction has in a more general sense been limited by the constraints of space and the limitations of time that all research must contend with. Nevertheless, the dataset collected for the study provided a comprehensive range of teaching contexts that enabled a broad scope in the analysis. Regarding the transcription of the data, it is acknowledged that due to being extremely time-consuming only small sections of the dataset have been fully transcribed. A further limitation related to this, is the transcription of multimodal elements in the data. While I have transcribed the most relevant characteristics, e.g. laughter and gesture, and provided video

stills of key evaluative gestures, I have omitted many others that could have been useful in the analysis. Nevertheless, in ensuring the video is watched together with the transcript helps to resolve this issue.

## **7.5 Conclusion**

In considering recommendations for possible future research, it is apparent that there are a number of potential avenues. Firstly, I would suggest that more research is conducted into adult ESOL teaching settings. There are two main reasons for this that I will explain. One is that the teaching of adults differs from that of children, requiring particular actions and practices as apposite to the needs of an adult student. For example, adult students already have adult level competence in one language as well as a wealth of life experience and knowledge to draw on. Second, is that the various modes of L2 teaching in English have different pedagogical goals that will affect the teaching practices and actions evident in the classroom. For example, the Teaching of English for Academic Purposes has a quite distinct goal in preparing students for university study.

Secondly, I would recommend that more research is conducted into the meaning-and-fluency context of L2 teaching (as recommended by Gardner, 2019). While there is a useful amount of previous research to inform on practices in the form-and-accuracy context, particularly on IRE sequences, there is little to draw on regarding L2 teacher practices in fluency contexts. As the pedagogical goal shifts to facilitating fluency in the target language, it would be apposite to analyse teacher behaviours and strategies that support this. For example, as I have focused on storytelling in the meaning-and-fluency context of this study, an analytic lens could be applied to other communicative activities such as advising, complaining, negotiating, or telling a joke.

Additionally, the use of particular actions could be further researched. For example, this study reported candidate understandings as common in meaning-and-fluency contexts. This is a phenomenon that could be more fully explored to ascertain their sequential organisation and to explore how learners respond to them. A second practice that could benefit from further research

is the use of formulations in the L2 classroom, which would build on previous work by Solem and Skovholt (2017).

Thirdly, I would suggest further research into epistemics in the L2 classroom. This study highlighted the complexities arising from the teacher's epistemic incongruity in meaning-and-fluency contexts where the teacher is K- for context but still K+ for language. I believe that it would be useful analyse how participants orient to epistemic stance in the interaction and how it might affect the teachers' efforts to maintain shared understanding.

Fourthly, the findings from this study have demonstrated that further research into synthesised and/or hybrid teaching contexts could be particularly fruitful. The combined teaching of form and fluency is often seen as the holy grail of L2 teaching (Seedhouse 1997a), which the skilful synthesising of form-and-accuracy and meaning-and-fluency contexts could go some way to achieve. Moreover, teaching that is able to combine the pedagogical with the non-pedagogical may also be a rich seam for further research. While Seedhouse (2004) posited that classroom talk can never be fully conversational due to the inherent constraints of the classroom, there appears to be evidence in this dataset on storytellings that a hybrid pedagogical context is achievable. This may be applicable to other activities and subjects, e.g. in professional training settings.

Future research should also focus on the learner in meaning-and-fluency contexts. I was clear in my focus on the teacher in this study but recognise that this is only part of the analytical story. For example, how do L2 learners collaborate in the production of the target language? As this study has touched on learning 'in the wild', i.e. outside the classroom (Theodórsdóttir, 2018, it also suggests a possible avenue of research, that could be particularly useful would be comparing interactional practices and production of the L2 in meaning-and-fluency contexts in non-classroom and classroom settings. Thus, also furthering the research agenda on hybrid contexts.

Regarding studies into meaning-and-fluency contexts of L2 teaching, it is clear that any research questions remain not just unanswered but also yet to be asked. I believe that asking and



addressing research questions on some of these suggested topics will add to existing literature and increase knowledge of the actions and practices employed by L2 teachers in under-researched areas.

Reflecting on the experience of watching, rewatching and analysing the hours of data gathered for this study, I am reminded of one of my primary goals for this study which was to illuminate the complex, contingent and collaborative work of the L2 teacher. The skilful designing of turns in response to spontaneous learner contributions and the resulting shaping of language production in the L2 has been an absolute joy to observe. I feel truly honoured and privileged to have been able to observe and analyse their work, The space that is created and held by these ESOL teachers allows for the pursuit of pedagogical goals in a 'safe environment', e.g. one where students feel comfortable to tell a personal story in the L2. My hope is that this study has been able to shed light on the skilful and at times misunderstood profession of L2 teaching, and that it can provide a foundation on which to build future research.

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## Appendices

## A: The Jefferson Transcription System (adapted from Jefferson, 2004)

The transcription system uses some standard punctuation marks (comma, stop, question mark); however, in the system they mark intonation rather than syntax.

[ ]	square brackets mark the start and sometimes the end of overlapping speech
↑↓	marked rising and falling shifts in intonation are indicated by upward and downward pointing arrows immediately <i>prior</i> to the rise or fall
→	side arrows are used to draw attention to features of talk that are relevant to the current analysis.
.	a full stop indicates a stopping fall in tone, <i>not necessarily the end of a sentence</i>
,	a comma indicates a continuing intonation
?	a question mark indicates a rising inflection, <i>not necessarily a question</i>
!	an exclamation mark indicates an animated tone, <i>not necessarily an exclamation</i>
(.)	a micropause, hearable but less than two tenths of a second
(0.5)	silences, measured in tenths of a second
=	an equals sign marks where there is no interval between adjacent utterances
bu-	a single dash indicates a halting, abrupt cut off to a word or part of a word
<u>underlining</u>	underlining indicates emphasis
CAPITALS	mark speech that is hearably louder than surrounding speech
°yes°	degree signs indicate a passage of talk which is <i>quieter</i> than surrounding talk
>she said<	‘greater than’ and ‘lesser than’ signs enclose speeded-up or slowed-down talk
oh:	a colon indicates elongation of the sound or syllable it follows (more colons more elongation)
hhh / heh	aspiration (out-breaths) or laughter; proportionally as for colons
.hhh	inspiration (in-breaths); proportionally as for colons
fu(h)n	an h in single brackets marks discernable aspiration or laughter <i>within</i> a word in an utterance

- £yeah£      pound signs mark smiley voice quality
- ((*waves*))      text in italics in double brackets represents a gloss or description of some non-verbal aspect of the talk
- (mouth)      single brackets containing either a word, phrase, or left blank (if utterance is very unclear) mark where target item(s) is/are unclear to the transcriber



## B: Ethical consent – Approval Letter



Downloaded: 29/01/2016  
Approved: 27/01/2016

Emma Greenhalgh  
Registration number: 140117408  
Human Communication Sciences  
Programme: PhD

Dear Emma

**PROJECT TITLE:** Talking about language: an investigation into how second language teachers and speech and language therapists teach and informally assess language

**APPLICATION:** Reference Number 006960

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 27/01/2016 the above-named project was **approved** on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 006960 (dated 24/11/2015).
- Participant information sheet 1013666 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant information sheet 1013665 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant information sheet 1013664 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant information sheet 1013663 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant information sheet 1013662 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant consent form 1013648 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant consent form 1013647 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant consent form 1013642 version 2 (24/11/2015).
- Participant consent form 1013640 version 2 (24/11/2015).

The following optional amendments were suggested:

*Dear Emma, Please take under consideration the following suggestions which also appear as comments on your application: You said that "The observational design uses 3 cameras to gain an overview of the interaction, a direct view of the teacher/therapist and the teacher's/therapist's view of the student(s)/patient(s)." This relates to the reviewer comment regarding unobtrusive recording - 3 cameras are not unobtrusive! So please take extra care to ensure that participants do not lose out on their allocated therapy/lesson. I understand you want the sessions to proceed as normally as possible and I believe you can achieve this with your planned setup. Also, please see comments in particular with regard to sufficient time built in for consent process, that participants are informed of the various levels of anonymity more clearly, that withdrawal by professionals is considered, that the need to destroy data is checked, that the information and consent forms are amended in line with comments and/or discussed with the SLTs and language teachers wrt support.*

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please inform me since written approval will be required.

Yours sincerely

Traci Walker

## C: Participation information sheets and consent forms

### Participant Information Sheet for L2 teachers

#### Participant Information Sheet

Department of Human Communication Sciences



#### Participant information for Second Language Teachers/Lecturers

You are being invited to take part in the following research project. This information sheet will tell you about the project and detail your potential involvement in it. Please read it carefully.

#### Project title

'Talking about language': an investigation into how second language teachers and speech and language therapists teach and informally assess language.

#### Project/rationale

The project will use a methodology called Conversation Analysis to analyse video recordings of a) Speech and Language Therapists (SLTs) and b) Second Language Teachers (L2Ts) interacting with their respective clients and students, with the aim of comparing how they teach and informally assess language. This type of detailed linguistic and interactional comparison of the talk produced by both groups has not been carried out before, and as well as providing theoretical findings about language teaching and informal assessment, the project is highly likely to have practical implications for practitioner training in both the health and education domains.

#### The researcher (and supervisors)

Emma Greenhalgh is a PhD student in the Department of Human Communication Sciences at The University of Sheffield. Her research is supervised by Prof. Ray Wilkinson (Department of Human Communication Sciences) and Dr. Oksana Afitska (School of English).

#### What will happen

You will teach your normal classes with your usual student(s). The only difference is that the researcher will record the lessons using two or three video cameras: one on the teacher, the second providing an overview shot and a possible third camera focused on the students from the teacher's perspective. The researcher will use Conversation Analysis to investigate the verbal and non-verbal interactional behaviours present in the learning environment, with a particular focus on the teaching strategies. These findings can be discussed, along with viewing extracts from the video recordings, in a recorded (audio only) reflective interview. The aim of the interview is for the teacher to be able to reflect on the lessons and provide the researcher with their professional insight into the interaction. The researcher will be entirely non-judgmental about the interaction and the teacher's reflections at all times, since the main focus of the project is on analysing the methods of language teaching used across the two professions. The interview is optional and your teaching data will still be included in the study without the interview.

**Number of participants:** 3/4 SLTs and 3/4 L2Ts and their respective clients/students

**Recruitment of students as participants:** You will be asked to suggest potential participants (classes/students), but the researcher will be responsible for providing information sheets and gaining consent.

**Location:** The recording of the lessons will take place in your normal classroom in your language school/department. The interviews can take place at the researcher's department at the University of Sheffield, at your place of work or at a more convenient public location.

**Time required**

After an initial meeting of about 30 minutes to make the arrangements, the recordings of the observed lessons will last about 1 hour each. The optional reflective interview would take place several weeks after the lessons to allow for some initial analysis of data and would last between 30 and 45 minutes.

**Data security and confidentiality**

Immediately after the recording has taken place, the recordings will be downloaded onto a laptop and a copy saved on an external hard drive. The recordings will be immediately erased from the video cameras. Both the laptop and external hard drive will be password-protected and encrypted. Only the researcher and supervisors will have access to the original and identifiable data (video and audio), which will be kept on password-protected and encrypted devices. The results may be published in peer reviewed scientific journals, presented at conferences and used in teaching materials. On the consent form you will be asked to choose your preferred level of anonymity regarding video and audio data used in these various contexts. After 5 years, the original data will be destroyed and the researcher will keep all anonymised data securely.

**Participants' rights**

You may decide to withdraw from the research project at any time, without needing to provide an explanation. Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will not cost you anything and you will not receive any payment or compensation.

**Benefits and risks**

There are no known benefits or risks for you in taking part in this study.

**Ethical approval**

The project has been approved by the ethics committee at the University of Sheffield's Department of Human Communication Sciences.

**Complaints procedure**

In the case of a complaint, please contact the researcher's main supervisor, Professor Ray Wilkinson, Department of Human Communication Sciences, University of Sheffield, S10 2TS. Alternatively, you can email: [ray.wilkinson@sheffield.ac.uk](mailto:ray.wilkinson@sheffield.ac.uk) or telephone: 0114 222 2449.

**Thank you for taking the time to consider participating in my research. I will be happy to answer any questions you might have. This participant information sheet is yours to keep.**

If you wish to be kept informed of the results of this study, please let me know. You can contact me by email, post or telephone. My contact details:

<b>The researcher</b> 	Name: Emma Greenhalgh Address: Department of Human Communication Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, S10 2TS Telephone: 07801 503136 Email: <a href="mailto:ejgreenhalgh1@sheffield.ac.uk">ejgreenhalgh1@sheffield.ac.uk</a>
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# Participant Information Sheet for L2 learners



## Participant Information Sheet

Department of Human Communication Sciences

### Participant information for **Second Language Learner (of English)**

We are inviting you to take part in our research project. This information sheet will tell you about the project. Please read it carefully.

#### **Project title**

'Talking about language': an investigation into how second language teachers and speech and language therapists teach and informally assess language.

#### **Why this project**

To find out more about how experienced English teachers/lecturers talk to their students during class.

#### **The Research team**

PhD student: Emma Greenhalgh (Department of Human Communication Sciences, University of Sheffield)

Supervisors: Prof. Ray Wilkinson and Dr. Oksana Afitska

#### **What will happen**

You will have your normal English class with your teacher/lecturer. The only difference is that the researcher will record the lesson using 3 video cameras. The researcher will then look very closely at how the teacher talks to their students.

#### **Time required**

The recorded lesson will be your normal timetabled session. You should arrive 15 minutes early to your class. This will give you enough time to complete the consent form and ask questions.

**Location:** The recording of the lesson will take place in your normal classroom.

#### **Data security and confidentiality**

The researcher will store all data carefully and securely. After 5 years the original videos will be deleted and the researcher will keep all anonymised data securely. The researcher may write and talk about the results in academic journals, conferences and in teaching. On the consent form you can choose if you prefer your video and audio data to be made anonymous in different situations.

#### **Ethical approval**

The project has received ethically approval from the Department of Human Communication Sciences' ethics committee (University of Sheffield).

#### **Your rights**

It is your choice to be recorded or not. You can change your mind at any time, before or after the recording has happened. You do not have to give a reason and your English learning will not be affected.

#### **Costs/payment**

It will not cost you anything to take part in this project and you will not receive any payment.

**Benefits and risks**

There are no known benefits or risks for you in taking part in this study.

**Complaints procedure**

If you need to complain, please contact the researcher's main supervisor, Professor Ray Wilkinson, at: Department of Human Communication Sciences, University of Sheffield, S10 2TS. Alternatively, you can email: [ray.wilkinson@sheffield.ac.uk](mailto:ray.wilkinson@sheffield.ac.uk) or telephone: 0114 222 2449.

**Thank you for taking the time to consider participating in my research. Please ask me (or your teacher) any questions you have.**

**This participant information sheet is yours to keep.**

If you wish to know the results of this study, please tell me. You can contact me by email, post or telephone:

<b>The researcher</b> 	Name: Emma Greenhalgh Address: Department of Human Communication Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, S10 2TS Telephone: 07801 503136 Email: <a href="mailto:ejgreenhalgh1@sheffield.ac.uk">ejgreenhalgh1@sheffield.ac.uk</a>
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# Consent form for L2 teachers

## CONSENT FORM (Second Language Teachers/Lecturers)



Participant Identification Number for this project:

Title of Project: 'Talking about language': an investigation into how second language teachers and speech and language therapists teach and informally assess language

Name of Researcher: Emma Greenhalgh      Names of Supervisors: Prof. Ray Wilkinson and Dr. Oksana Afitska

	Please tick box
1) I confirm that I have read the information sheet for the above project. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	<input type="checkbox"/>
2) I consent for all <u>original and identifiable</u> data (video and audio) to be kept securely and confidentially on encrypted and password accessed external hard drives in the care of the research team for 5 years.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3) I consent for all <u>anonymised</u> data (video, audio and transcripts) collected in this research to be kept securely and confidentially on encrypted and password accessed external hard drives in the care of the researcher indefinitely.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4) For the purposes of <u>academic data sessions and conference presentations</u> , please select one of the following options:	
a) I consent for <u>identifiable video and audio data</u> of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) I consent for <u>anonymous video (see example overleaf)/identifiable audio data</u> of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) I consent for <u>anonymous video and audio data</u> of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
or	
d) I <u>do not consent</u> for video or audio data of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5) For the purposes of <u>teaching materials (e.g. presentations and seminars)</u> , please select one of the following options:	
a) I consent for <u>identifiable video and audio data</u> of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) I consent for <u>anonymous video/identifiable audio data</u> of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) I consent for <u>anonymous video and audio data</u> of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
or	
d) I <u>do not consent</u> for video or audio data of me to be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>

6) For the purposes of academic journal articles and teaching materials (e.g. hand-outs), please select one of the following options:

a) I consent for identifiable photographs (i.e. still images from the video data) of me to be used.

b) I consent for anonymous images of me to be used.

or

c) I do not consent for images of me to be used.

7) Regarding a follow-up reflective interview with the researcher, please select one of the following options:

a) I agree to take part in a reflective interview and consent to being recorded (audio only).

b) I do not wish to take part in a reflective interview.

8) I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

9) I agree to take part in this study.

**Thank you** for your assistance in making this research project possible.

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant	Date	Signature
<u>Emma Greenhalgh</u>	_____	_____
Name of person taking consent	Date	Signature

If you wish to be kept informed about the findings and any future publications related to this study, please provide a contact email address:

An example of an anonymised video image



# Consent form for L2 learners

## CONSENT FORM (Second Language Learners)



Participant Identification Number for this project:

Title of Project: 'Talking about language': an investigation into how second language teachers and speech and language therapists teach and informally assess language

Name of Researcher: Emma Greenhalgh      Names of Supervisors: Prof. Ray Wilkinson and Dr. Oksana Afitska

	Please tick box
1) I have read the information sheet dated..... for the above project. I have had the chance to think about the project, ask questions and have these answered.	<input type="checkbox"/>
2) I agree for all original and identifiable data (video and audio) to be kept securely and confidentially on encrypted and password accessed external hard drives in the care of the research team for 5 years.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3) I agree for all anonymised data (video, audio and transcripts) collected in this research to be kept securely and confidentially on encrypted and password accessed external hard drives in the care of the researcher indefinitely.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4) For <u>academic data sessions and conference presentations</u> , please select one of the following options:	
a) I agree that <u>identifiable video and audio data</u> of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) I agree that <u>anonymous video/identifiable audio data</u> of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) I agree that <u>anonymous video and audio data</u> of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
Or	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) I <u>do not agree</u> that video or audio data of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5) For <u>teaching (e.g. presentations and seminars)</u> , please select one of the following options:	
a) I agree that <u>identifiable video and audio data</u> of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) I agree that <u>anonymous video/identifiable audio data</u> of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) I agree that <u>anonymous video and audio data</u> of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>
Or	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) I <u>do not agree</u> that video or audio data of me can be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>



6) For academic journal articles and teaching materials (e.g. hand-outs), please select one of the following options:

a) I agree that identifiable photographs (i.e. still images from the video data) of me can be used.

b) I agree that anonymous images of me can be used.

Or

c) I do not consent for images of me to be used.

7) I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am free to say stop at any time without giving any reason. No one will mind and my lessons will not be affected.

8) I understand this form and agree to take part in the research project.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

Emma Greenhalgh  
Name of person taking consent

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

## D: Copies of teaching materials (for Chapter 6)

Source: (Wallwork, 1997)

**YOU**


### 1 You are what you have

Victims of burglaries often report that they feel they have in some way been personally polluted. This suggests that our possessions are in some way an extension of ourselves. Think of the kinds of things you buy second-hand – you'd have no problem in buying a second-hand car, but second-hand underwear (no matter how clean) you might not even want to touch. Even after we die, possessions may still remain a part of us. This is demonstrated by burial sites, where domestic utensils, jewellery and weapons have often been found. We may even become immortalised in our possessions as they get handed down from one generation to another.

- 1 To what extent are possessions more important than people?
- 2 Would you buy something just because it belonged to a famous person?
- 3 How attached are you to your things? What kind of things would you never lend anyone?
- 4 What second hand things would you consider buying?
- 5 Do you have any collections (stamp albums, butterflies, etc.)?

### 2 Have you ever?

- a Left a shop or restaurant without paying.
- b Lied about your age.
- c Had anything published.
- d Had a supernatural experience.
- e Swam in the sea in the winter.
- f Won a competition.
- g Been the victim of a crime.
- h Had a holiday romance.
- i Broken a window.
- j Thought you might be going to die.
- k Killed an animal bigger than a mouse.
- l Got/Stayed up to see the sun rise.
- m Met someone famous.
- n Broken or damaged something and not told the owner.
- o Got completely drunk.
- p Had food poisoning.
- q Witnessed a crime.
- r Been abroad.
- s Forged someone's signature.
- t Passed an exam you never thought you'd pass.



A cartoon illustration of a newsagent running out of a shop. The shop has a sign that says 'NEWSAGENT' and an 'OPEN' sign. The newsagent is carrying a newspaper and looking back over his shoulder. The newspaper has a headline that says 'MURDER OF THE PRESIDENT'. There are some items on the ground outside the shop.

Discussions A-Z Intermediate **PHOTOCOPIABLE** © Cambridge University Press 1997

### 3 Would you ever ... ?

- |                               |                              |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 Go on holiday alone.        | 6 Steal.                     |
| 2 Gamble.                     | 7 Buy a very expensive wine. |
| 3 Kill someone (even in war). | 8 Take drugs.                |
| 4 Eat raw meat or raw fish.   | 9 Wear a fur coat.           |
| 5 Live in another country.    | 10 Hit your partner.         |

### 4 Feelings

What do you do when ... ?

- you can't get to sleep.
- you're stuck in a 10 km motorway queue.
- you're at a party where you know no-one apart from your hosts.
- somebody pushes in front of you in a queue.
- someone is very rude to you.
- you're told a joke which you don't understand.
- you want to cry during a sad scene in a film.
- you're late for an appointment.
- you see someone hitting an animal.
- a stranger smiles at you.



### 5 Superlatives

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 1 What's the worst/nicest thing that anyone has ever said to you?            | 6 What's the most embarrassing thing you've ever done/said?    |
| 2 What's the best thing that has ever happened to you?                       | 7 What's the worst thing that could ever happen to you?        |
| 3 What's the most luxurious thing you'd like to own?                         | 8 What are the most important things you've learned from life? |
| 4 What are the ugliest/biggest/most unusual/prized/valuable things you have? | 9 What's the cruelest thing you've ever done?                  |
| 5 What's the kindest thing anyone has ever done for you?                     | 10 What's the silliest thing you've ever done?                 |

## E: Key terminology

A list of key terms adopted from CA and SLA literature is presented with accompanying definition and rationale for usage where deemed apposite.

**Table 3**

*Key terminology used in the analysis in Chapter 4*

Terms used	Definitions and rational for usage
Positive evaluations (acceptance tokens)	Commonly used in the SLA and CA literature when an L2 teacher positively assesses or accepts a student's SPP (e.g. Drew, 1981; Wong & Waring, 2008). The teacher designs their turn by selecting between various strategies (verbal and/or non-verbal), including echo repeats, nods and tokens such as 'good'. In the CA literature (e.g. Margutti & Drew, 2014) these may also be referred to as 'positive assessments' or 'go-aheads' (Schegloff, 1982). Acceptance token is used in the analysis to refer to simple go-heads made by teachers in the dataset e.g. very good (extract 4,2; line 10).
Negative evaluations (rejection tokens)	Commonly used in the SLA/CA literature when an L2 teacher negatively assesses or rejects a student's SPP in a IRE sequence (e.g. Drew, 1981). The analysis shows how teachers can select from a toolbox of actions and practices, including simple rejection tokens such as 'no' or more complex prompting actions such as referring to past learning or a grammar rule.  Others in the SLA/CA tradition (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Seedhouse, 2004) have utilised the CA term of repair (either 'specific or non-specific repair) to describe the teachers' actions in these cases. Following McHoul's

(1990) claim that correction sequences operate as a subset of repair and that repair operates differently in different pedagogical contexts (Seedhouse, 2004), this thesis adopts the term ‘negative evaluation’ for analysing IRE sequences in form-and-accuracy contexts due to the explicit corrective nature of the third turn. Meanwhile, the CA terminology of repair is adopted for the more conversational interaction in Chapters 5 and 6.

Learnables	Majlesi and Broth (2012) define these as words or phrases that become interactionally relevant and included in the shared pedagogical focus.
Expansions/ embedded extensions	Following an evaluative turn, a teacher may opt to provide extensions in the form of explanations or other pedagogical actions (Gourlay, 2005; Wong & Waring, 2008)

**Table 4**

*Key terminology used in the analysis in Chapters 5 and 6*

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Continuer	Commonly used to encourage further participation in the exchange. Also, an approval of what has been contributed so far. Schegloff (1982) refers to these as minimal responses as ‘go-aheads’.
Self-initiation	Where the first or original speaker begins a repair trajectory

Other- initiation	Where another participant (i.e. not the original speaker) begins a repair trajectory
Self-repair	Where the original speaker repairs (or corrects) their own contribution
Other-repair / Other- correction	Where another participant repairs (or corrects) the original speaker's utterance
SISR/SIOR OISR/OIOR	Combinations of the above
Formulation	Heritage and Watson (1979) characterise formulations as offering up different versions of a previous utterance, accompanied by some sort of transformation which is to be agreed upon by the participants. Further there is a distinction made between self-formulations and other-formulations.
Candidate understanding	Heritage (1984a) describes a candidate understanding of what an earlier speaker had intended, as 'an understanding check' that invites that speaker to confirm (or disconfirm) the adequacy of that proposal' (p.319).
Recast	Loewen and Sato (2018) define recasts as a teacher's reformulation of a learner's response by providing 'the correct form immediately after the learner's erroneous utterance'. A form of OIOR that is noted as particularly common in L2 teaching.

Uptake

Commonly refers to ‘a learner’s immediate repetition of a recast, whether the repetition was partial or complete.’ (Révész et al., 2011, p.207)