



# Developing L2 Interactional Competence in EFL Classroom Interaction: A Longitudinal Study of Young Japanese Learners

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博士論文

Developing L2 Interactional Competence in EFL Classroom Interaction:  
A Longitudinal Study of Young Japanese Learners

(教室会話における第二言語相互作用能力の発達：  
日本人児童英語学習者の長期的研究)

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神戸大学大学院国際文化学研究科

渡邊 綾

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## Developing L2 Interactional Competence in EFL Classroom Interaction:

### A Longitudinal Study of Young Japanese Learners

所属専攻・コース：グローバル文化専攻・外国語教育コンテンツ論コース

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#### **Abstract**

Second language classroom interactions have been widely investigated to reveal teacher's teaching practices, as well as learners' learning processes, in the field of applied linguistics. From a discourse analytic or conversation analytic point of view, classroom interactions have been studied in terms of turn-taking organization (McHoul, 1978), sequence organization (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), repair organization (McHoul, 1990; Macbeth, 2004), as well as in terms of how embodied actions and semiotic resources shape the on-going interaction (Kääntä, 2012; Lauzon & Berger, 2015). These previous studies reveal the intricate patterns of how teachers and students manage, negotiate, and co-construct classroom interactions using linguistic and non-linguistic resources in order to accomplish activities. Despite the long-lasting interest in exploring second language classroom interactions, little empirical research has been conducted on how learners' develop their interactional competence in using second language (L2) through participating in teacher-centered multi-party classroom interactions over time.

In order to unpack the intricate nature of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom interactions and trace the development of L2 interactional competence, this study adopts Conversation Analysis (CA) as a methodological framework. Viewing second language learning as a social practice, recent CA-for-SLA research has adopted longitudinally designed studies to

track details of changes in the use of linguistic resources or grammatical forms (Hauser, 2013; Ishida, 2009; Markee, 2008) as well as interactional practices (Brouwer & Wagner, 2004; Hellermann, 2008; Nguyen, 2011). A growing number of studies focus on how learners develop their L2 interactional competence (Hall, Hellermann, & Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Nguyen, 2012) and the process of becoming a competent L2 user over time. However, most of these studies have focused on competence development in adults and not enough research has been done on competence development among children learning a foreign language in instructional settings.

Thus, this dissertation examines young learners' discursive practices demonstrated in EFL classroom interaction by tracking the interaction between an experienced instructor and the same group of learners through longitudinally collected data. Audio and video recordings of naturally occurring classroom interactions were collected over a four-year period at an after-school English program in Japan. Using CA as a methodological framework and vertical comparison (Zimmerman, 1999) of the data, this study aims to describe how novice L2 learners become interactionally competent. It examines recurrent interactional phenomena, i.e., interactional routines, in relation to how a learner's engagement methods develop. It also aims to analyze learners' self-selected turns or learner-initiated sequences (Waring, 2011) and reveal how learners take initiatives in the multi-party interactions. Moreover, it examines a learner's developing methods of participation in recurrent post-expansion sequences (Schegloff, 2007) in news-telling routines. It aims to describe how the learner diversified his strategies of turn-taking by effectively utilizing interactional resources over time. Furthermore, the study focuses on analyzing how the microphone gesture, which is a recurrent teacher embodied turn-management resource, is used over time. It aims to analyze the changes in learners' responses and the changes in the teacher's multimodal practices, which reflects the learners' growing interactional

competence. Changes in their participation frameworks (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2004) will also be discussed in relation to the diversifications of their methods of participation.

This dissertation aims to contribute to the understanding of various aspects of the developmental nature of L2 interactional competence displayed by young EFL learners. The detailed observation of classroom interaction provides insight into how learners actively engage in teacher-designed interactional routines, how teacher-centered classroom interactions can be altered by learner initiatives, and how participation framework changes through self-selected turns. Finally, its findings have academic implications for longitudinal CA studies on L2 interactional competence and pedagogical implications for EFL classroom teaching and learning for young learners.

# 博士論文

教室会話における第二言語相互作用能力の発達：

日本人児童英語学習者の長期的研究

所属専攻・コース：グローバル文化専攻・外国語教育コンテンツ論コース

氏 名：渡 邊 綾

指導教員氏名：Dr. Timothy Greer

## (要旨)

第二言語を教えることを目的とする教室会話は、教師の教育実践や学習者の学習プロセスを明らかにするために、応用言語学で広く研究されてきた (Chaudron, 1988; Markee, 2015; Seedhouse, 2004 参照)。談話分析や会話分析の視点からも、教室会話は順番交代の組織 (McHoul, 1978)、連鎖組織 (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975)、修復組織 (McHoul, 1990; Macbeth, 2004) 等の観点から研究されている。これまでの様々な先行研究から、教師と学習者が言語的・非言語的資源を用いながら、協働で教室活動を一つ一つのやり取りの中で達成していることが明らかになっている。しかしながら、教室会話への学術的関心が変わらず続いているにも関わらず、教室会話に参加していく中で学習者の第二言語相互作用能力 (second language interactional competence) が具体的にどのように発達していくのかということについての研究はまだ十分にされているとはいえない。

そこで本研究では、外国語として英語を教える教室での相互会話の本質を解明し、第二言語学習者の相互作用能力の発達を調査するため、実際の教室会話を分析する。会話分析を使った第二言語習得の最近の研究では、言語学習は社会的実践であるという視点を持って、学習者の発話における言語資源や文法形式の変化 (Markee, 2008;

Ishida, 2009; Hauser, 2013) や相互行為の変化 (Brouwer & Wagner, 2004; Hellermann, 2008; Nguyen, 2011)を、長期的に収集されたデータを用いて調査している。第二言語学習者の相互作用能力はどのように発達していくのか (Hall, Hellermann, & Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Nguyen, 2012)、また、相互作用能力の高い第二言語使用者になっていく過程を経時的な視点から観察する研究は近年増加している。しかしながら、これらの研究の多くは大人の第二言語学習者の発達を対象にするものが多く、児童学習者を対象とした研究はまだ十分にされていない。

本博士論文では、外国語として英語を教える教室における教員と複数の児童学習者たちとのインタラクションと第二言語使用の変化を長期的に調査する。約4年間にわたって、日本のある英語教室に通う同じ学習者たちのグループのレッスンの音声・ビデオ録画を収集した。初級の第二言語学習者たちが、繰り返し行われるルーティンに参加していく中でどのようにやりとりが変化していくのか、複数人が参加する会話において学習者主導のシーケンス(Waring, 2011)をどのように構築するのか、参与構造はどのように変わっていくのか等、に着目して会話分析を用いて記述していく。

本論文の目的は、児童英語学習者たちの発話の分析を通して第二言語相互作用能力の発達に関する様々な側面を理解することに貢献することである。教室会話を詳細に分析していくことで、学習者の発話の変化を丁寧に紐解き、複数人が参加して行う教室内の複雑に重ねられた言語・非言語活動を明らかにすることができる。この研究の結果、会話分析を使って相互作用能力の発達を追った長期研究への学術的な貢献と児童英語学習者を教える際の外国語教室における教育現場への貢献ができると考える。

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## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

#### **1.1 Background**

How do second language (L2) learners successfully engage in L2 interaction in a particular social context? How do L2 users develop their abilities to accomplish meaningful social interactions with their interlocutors? Engaging in L2 interactions requires L2 users to operate intricate abilities. Each interaction, whether it is ordinary or institutional (e.g., in a hospital, court, or classroom), is sensitive to the context it is placed in. Context, as defined by Goodwin (2000), is “not simply a set of features presupposed or invoked by a strip of talk, but is itself a dynamic, temporally unfolding process accomplished through the ongoing rearrangement of structures in talk, participants’ bodies, relevant artifacts, spaces, and features of the material surround that are the focus of the participants’ scrutiny” (p. 1519). During the course of interaction, L2 users need to continuously be aware of the dynamic developments and shifts that take place in the on-going talk carried out through attending to the interactional resources employed by each participant. Simultaneously, L2 users need to continuously display their understanding of the prior turns and produce linguistically, sequentially, and interactionally apposite actions to jointly construct the interaction with the other interlocutor(s).

Learning additional languages can take place in various linguistic environments, including when the L2 is abundantly used as the main language or scarcely used as a foreign language, and can be learned through formal instruction in classrooms or in a naturalistic



environment through ordinary conversations. Among various ways of learning L2,<sup>1</sup> applied linguistic researchers with an interest in social interactions have been interested in *instructed language learning setting* (Sert, 2015) to uncover how languages are taught and learned. Instructed language learning settings can be represented by dyadic institutional interactions such as writing conferences (Young & Miller, 2004), dyadic peer-to-peer talk during classroom activities (Hellermann, 2008) or teacher-centered multiparty classroom interactions (Sert, 2015). Second language classrooms have been a rich venue to provide various contexts to investigate teacher's teaching practices, as well as the learner's learning processes (see Chaudron, 1988; Markee, 2015; Seedhouse, 2004 for an overview). Classroom interaction or classroom discourse has been widely studied in terms of turn-taking organization (McHoul, 1978); the management of turn-allocations (Kääntä, 2012) and selection of next-speaker (Lauzon & Berger, 2015), as well as sequence organization (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), and repair organization (McHoul, 1990; Macbeth, 2004). These previous studies reveal the intricate patterns of how teachers and students manage, negotiate, and co-construct the classroom interaction.

While many of these studies have focused on teachers' instructional practices and how learners respond to them, other studies have focused on the learner's interactional methods and changes in participation practices over time (Cekaite, 2007, 2008a). A growing body of research has been conducted to take up the challenge of exploring how L2 learners develop interactional competence through a detailed sequential analysis of longitudinal data. Despite this increasing interest in the development of L2 interactional competence, Hall and Pekarek Doehler (2011) point out that "little is known about the process by which learners develop their L2 interactional

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<sup>1</sup> In this study, the term L2 serves as an umbrella term that covers second, foreign, and additional language in an "instructed language learning setting" (Sert, 2015: 1).

competence, nor about the stages this development goes through” (p. 7). This lack of research indicates the need for empirical investigations of actual instances of classroom interaction in order to expand our knowledge of how learners develop their interactional competence through participating in various forms of classroom interactions.

## **1.2 Aim and Scope**

Existing Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research has approached the task of understanding teaching and learning processes of foreign languages in instructional contexts from various angles. Traditional or mainstream SLA research has been largely influenced by cognitive linguistic and psycholinguistic paradigms and therefore views language acquisition and learning as an innate systematic phenomenon (Gass & Selinker, 2001; Ellis, 2007; Ortega, 2009). The early SLA research focused heavily on the cognitive and individual aspects rather than contextual or interactional factors that influence language learning. One of the major underlying assumptions of such approaches was that language learning is a phenomenon that occurs within the mind of an individual. Thus, such studies aim to reveal the mental processes of how cognition develops internally.

In relation to this academic climate, in the mid-1990s several influential works that called for a ‘*social turn*’ in SLA (Block, 2003) were published (including Firth & Wagner, 1997; Hall, 1993; Lantolf, 1996). These articles questioned many of the basic assumptions behind mainstream SLA studies and called for an expansion or re-conceptualization of SLA research and introduced the idea of incorporating contextual and interactional dimensions of language use as a viable means of exploring L2 acquisition. Their work thus opened up new venues for SLA

research and as a result, alternative approaches to language learning began to expand and flourish, including the sociocultural approach (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) and the conversation analytic approach (Kasper, 2006; Markee, 1994; Seedhouse, 2004).

Among the approaches that view language learning as social practice, the conversation analytic approach to investigating the nature of L2 learning has grown into a field of study called CA-for-SLA (Markee & Kasper, 2004). Conversation Analysis (henceforth referred to as CA) was first established in the field of Sociology by Harvey Sacks (Silvermann, 1998). By focusing on how turn-by-turn sequences of action are locally produced, CA studies aim to contribute to our understanding of how ordinary people formulate structures and accomplish social actions through their locally managed talk. One of the goals of CA is to investigate the diverse phenomena of social members' mundane life and focus on the analysis of naturally occurring language productions. CA has provided a rigorous methodological tool with which to investigate research questions that emerged in the field of applied linguistics and L2 learning. This resulted in the approach termed CA-for-SLA.

As one of the pioneers in this approach, Markee defines CA-for-SLA as a form that “unpacks second language user-learners’ common sense understandings of their own and their interlocutors’ real time, embodied language learning behaviors” (Markee & Kunitz, 2015, p. 426). The aim of this approach is to investigate the social processes of L2 learning and teaching through describing and analyzing naturally occurring talk-in-interaction. In so doing, CA-for-SLA attempts to document evidence for ‘learning’ that is witnessed through the sequential development of talk. Thus, studies are conducted under the assumption that language learning is a social construction which is publicly observable and contextually bound.

The current study shares the CA-for-SLA view as outlined above, and employs it to examine how young learners co-construct classroom interactions with the instructor and their peers. Over a period of four years, the study tracks the development of the same group of students who attended an after-school English program once a week. Through analyzing transcriptions based on audio- and video-recorded data, the purpose is to document moments of how learners display their understanding within sequences of actual interaction. Therefore, the study limits its scope to analyzing observable features of talk and avoids making speculations on cognitive aspects that are unavailable to either the recipient or the researcher. The study also restricts its database to the recordings of classroom interactions and will not include other sources such as interviews with the instructor or students' reflections on the recorded videos and the like (The rationale behind this will be discussed further in Chapter 2.). The study aims to reveal the intricate nature of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom interaction and demonstrate how novice learners display their L2 interactional competence through participating in various classroom interactions. It focuses on how learners display their development by diversifying their methods to accomplish interactions in teacher-centered, multi-party classroom interaction.

### **1.3 Overview of the Study**

This chapter has provided the background to this study, and situated the project by introducing the social-interactional perspective on L2 learning. The study aims to reveal the development of L2 interactional competence of young learners within the context of EFL classroom interaction by analyzing discourse between a teacher and a group of learners collected over a four year

period. To achieve that aim, Chapter 2 describes the analytical framework, i.e., Conversation Analysis, within which the data will be examined, as well as the data-collection method that has been used for conducting the research. Following this, Chapter 3 provides a theoretical and empirical framework for the study by reviewing relevant literature on CA-for-SLA and longitudinal CA research and its challenges, L2 interactional competence, and EFL classroom discourse studies to position the study within the larger context of previous research.

Based on Chapters 2 and 3, Chapter 4 presents an extended analysis of the classroom interaction focusing on a learner's participation in a recurrent interactional routine. Chapter 5 explores a learner's participation and engagement in an interactional sequence, i.e., a post-expansion sequence, and conducts a detailed analysis on how self-selected turns are accomplished over time. Next, Chapter 6 reveals one of the teacher's recurrent multimodal actions, namely a microphone gesture, and describes how the gesture gets formulated and how the learners orient to it and display their understanding over time. In the final chapter, the study concludes by discussing the significance of the findings and theoretical and pedagogical implications for foreign language teaching and learning. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also considered.

#### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study offers a detailed investigation of instructed interactional practices observed in EFL classrooms and thus contribute to our understanding of the process of how language classrooms are managed and how interactions are co-constructed by the learners and the teacher. The close examination of verbal and nonverbal resources utilized in the classroom by the instructor reveals

the pedagogical practices that evolve over time and provides useful insights for practitioners on how to promote participation among young learners. In addition, close examinations of how young learners demonstrate their understanding through verbal and nonverbal interactional resources and how they take self-selected turns will reveal the process of interactional development demonstrated by learners. In short, the investigation aims to inform teachers and researchers about how a teacher-centered multi-party classroom interaction for young L2 learners evolves over time.

Furthermore, the research aims to make a contribution to the academic field of SLA, especially CA-for-SLA-related studies. Although numerous conversation analytic studies have been conducted on classroom discourse, there is still a need for more research on longitudinally designed studies. In addition, the dissertation also aims to fill the gap in the under-researched area of young children's L2 learning and development. By analyzing classroom interaction recorded over a period of four years, the study adds to the existing literature through providing empirical evidence on how young learners develop their L2 interactional competence and become successful L2 users in order to accomplish interactions.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Methodology**

#### **2.1 Method of Analysis**

This chapter will introduce Conversation Analysis (CA) as a qualitative yet empirical research methodology with which to investigate naturally occurring talk. This will be followed by discussions of the CA perspective on language learning, the analytical strength of CA in analyzing classroom interactions, and its approach to data. The section on data will include information on the participants, site, and data collection procedures of the current study and transcription conventions. The overall structure of the classroom activities that takes place throughout the data will also be laid out.

##### **2.1.1 Conversation Analysis (CA)**

Qualitative research has been widely employed across various fields of social sciences, including sociology, anthropology, history, education, and communications (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Silverman, 2004). The field of applied linguistics, which is an interdisciplinary field of study that explores language use in the real world (Cook, 2003), is no exception. Applied linguistics covers diverse research areas such as bilingualism, translation/interpretation, second language acquisition (SLA), and language policy. Since its emergence as an academic field in the 1950s, the above research areas have been investigated through both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Unlike survey or experimental studies, qualitative studies approach a topic through observations, textual analysis, interviews, and audio-visual recordings (Silverman, 2006). Within

research on teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), ethnography, case studies, action research, life histories, discourse analysis and conversation analysis all fall under the category of qualitative research methods (Richards, 2003).

CA is one of the qualitative approaches that involves “the systematic analysis of the talk produced in everyday situations of human interaction: talk-in-interaction” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 11). It originated in the lecture series given at the University of California by the sociologist Harvey Sacks (Sacks, 1995; Silverman, 1998) between 1964 and 1972. After Sacks passed away in 1975, the CA enterprise was carried on by his colleagues, including Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson, and was established by fellow conversation analysts in the United States and Europe.

The idea of viewing conversation or “talk-in-interaction” as systematic and orderly rather than a chaotic and messy phenomenon was largely influenced by prior work conducted by Erving Goffman and Harold Garfinkel. Goffman’s (1981, 1983) claim that social interaction embodied institutional order led to treating the “interaction order” as a subject matter to investigate in its own right. Garfinkel (1967), the founder of ethnomethodology, set out a research agenda to investigate the social order embedded in our daily activities. As members of a society, people use various methods to achieve social actions and ethnomethodology aims to describe these methods and procedures. Following this line of thought, conversation analysts are also interested in revealing the procedures of ordinary people’s orderly methods that is evidenced in the interactional sequences and turn-taking of talk-in-interaction.

The interest of CA lies in how talk-in-interaction is produced and understood, how people collaborate to achieve mutual understandings and how social actions are accomplished as observed in the interaction. It is also interested in explicating the underlying structure of the talk



through closely observing how people take turns and how people deal with problems that emerge in interactions. Thus, CA primarily focuses on the analysis of verbal interaction itself and the structure produced by the participants, rather than relying on pre-existing theories or categories. Specifically, the analytical focus lies on the procedures of turn-taking organizations, structural organization, sequence organization, turn design, repair organization, lexical choice, and interactional asymmetries (Heritage, 2004) that emerges in the interaction. In short, CA's work contributes to our understanding of how ordinary people construct social structures through their locally managed talk.

### **2.1.2 Embodied Interaction**

One of the key topics in CA is to investigate embodied action and what it accomplishes in social interaction (Deppermann, 2013; Heath & Luff, 2013). Face to face human interactions often involve not only talk but also bodily movements, which play a significant role as interactional resources for participants to make sense of each other's conduct and to progress the on-going talk. For instance, gaze direction is carefully adjusted to indicate participation roles (speaker or addressee of the question etc.) and engagement (Rossano, 2013), and it is thus used as a resource in interaction for turn-taking and next-speaker selection (Goodwin, 1980; Lerner, 2003). Moreover, it is also called on as a resource for pursuing responses (Stivers & Rossano, 2010) when the response is absent. Carefully coordinated with the talk, gesture can also function as a powerful resource in interaction (Schegloff, 1984). Pointing employed in pre-beginning of the speaker shift functions to secure self-selected turn for the next speaker in multiparty interaction (Mondada, 2007). When, where, and how a gesture is employed in a particular sequential position and what it accomplishes in the interaction have been of great interest for many scholars (Kendon, 2004;

Streeck, Goodwin, & LeBaron, 2011). As prior studies reveal, our bodily conducts play a great part in progressing the on-going interaction and deserve analytic attention whenever they are made relevant by the participants in the interaction. Combined with conversation analytic work, previous studies on embodied interaction contribute to our understanding of how ordinary people organize social activities through coordinating their talk and bodily movements.

This dissertation adopts the theoretical and methodological framework of CA to analyze a collection of naturally occurring institutional interactions. Following the procedures of conversation analysis, the study will undergo a turn-by-turn analysis of the interaction taking place in the EFL classroom between a teacher and nine students. Focusing on both the talk and embodied actions employed by the participants, the data will be analyzed to see how members make sense of each other's actions and how the classroom interaction is co-constructed and developed over time.

### **2.1.3 The CA Perspectives on Language Learning**

Cognitive processes such as 'thinking' or 'knowing' have often been believed to be fundamentally internal and psychological, rather than external and social. 'Learning,' which is the process of acquiring knowledge or skill, has also been viewed as one of the cognitive processes that occur privately and independently in the learner's mind. These assumptions have guided not only sociological research but also linguistic and psycholinguistic research to explore how individuals develop a linguistic system in their minds (Gass & Selinker, 2001). To illuminate this point, learning a first language has been explained as innately determined by nativist approaches. Learning a language has been investigated based on the understanding that there is an abstract system called universal grammar, which is an internal system that guides

child language acquisition. Such research aims to uncover principles, conditions, and rules that underlie cognitive and psychological mechanisms. Thus, the actual utterances produced by the speakers have been of secondary importance (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). In short, studies investigating cognitive behaviors such as learning a language have aimed to reveal the learning process as an individual phenomenon which occurs in the mind.

One of the contributions that CA has offered is to shed light on the significance of social interaction on the mind or cognition (te Moulder & Potter, 2005). Conversation analysts are not aiming to uncover underlying mental processes of interactions but are instead interested in how utterances are produced and designed to accomplish actions, as well as how recipients respond to these utterances, and how their understanding is displayed in the sequences. Scholars who adopt a discursive approach to cognition understand cognitive phenomena like learning as a discursive construction or discursive practice. Thus, “rather than denying the relevance of underlying psychological processes, these researchers have shown that it may be possible to explore how our knowledge of the social, interactional order may shape our understanding of cognitive or neurological phenomena” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 221). Viewing language learning as a discursive construction acknowledges it as socially constructed, publicly observable, and contextually bound.

Firstly, language learning is socially constructed. Language learning takes place in a particular context through interacting with people (Kasper & Wagner, 2014). Learning a language does not just mean that one can utter speech sounds or words successfully in the target language. One should be able to use the language appropriately according to the rules of the language community. Therefore, appropriate use of the language is an essential component for learning the language. A child, for instance, needs to learn this through interaction with care-

givers or members of the society by participating in specific language activities (Wootton, 1997). In other words, social interaction with co-participants and participation in social activities are crucial for learning another language.

Second, language learning is often publicly observable. Learning and understanding are displayed by the members as a visible action available for the participants to interpret in the interaction. As Kasper and Wagner (2014) state, “language, culture, and interaction are learnable because they are on constant public exhibition” (p. 194) through performing daily activities. Understanding is displayed in how members respond in the next turn. This characteristic allows both participants and analysts to observe the process of learning.

Third, language learning is contextually bound. Language learning cannot occur without a particular context. Thus, it is important to observe language learning from the particular local context in which it is produced. Learning should be closely observed from situated actions because what is uttered is indexical and reflexive in nature. Language learning and understanding occur only through utilizing and interpreting both linguistic and situated actions produced in the context. In conclusion, these characteristics of viewing language learning as socially constructed, publicly observable, and contextually bound are important concepts to understand learning as a discursive construct.

#### **2.1.4 Analytic Strength**

There are a number of analytic advantages to using CA to investigate institutional talk, such as classroom interaction. One of these is the emic perspective and another is the view of learners as competent users of the L2. As Hellerman (2008) points out, CA aims to uncover the details of participants’ orientation to the orderly practices of classroom language learning. In

other words, CA allows the researcher to employ an emic perspective (Hall, 2004; Markee & Kasper, 2004) in examining the details of the situated action. This perspective enables the researcher to observe and describe what the participants are orienting to and what each action means to them in that particular context. By observing and analyzing how the participants themselves make sense of their co-participants' actions (Mori, 2007), the researcher is able to uncover what is made relevant in the ongoing interaction from the member's perspective without relying on predefined constructs. Thus, participants' orientations and understandings are treated as local and sequential accomplishments that are observable in interaction (Markee & Kasper, 2004).

Another analytic strength of using CA for analyzing classroom interaction is that it allows researchers to see the learners as competent L2 users rather than as defective communicators (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Focusing more on what the novice learners are capable of accomplishing rather than what they are lacking is crucial in order to make sense of how classroom interaction is carried out. In addition, Goodwin and Goodwin (2004) argue for the importance of analyzing verbal and nonverbal participation as actions which demonstrate multimodal forms of involvement performed by speakers and hearers in the evolving structure of talk. Thus, CA allows the analyst to observe both language and embodied action as resources for achieving social roles and order (Goodwin, 1986, 2000, 2003; Olsher, 2004; Mori & Hayashi, 2006; Schegloff, 1984).

### **2.1.5 The CA Perspectives on Data**

The type of data CA collects for analysis is recordings of natural interactions. In order to understand the organization of talk-in-interaction from the participants' perspective, CA

investigates ‘how’ the sequences are formed in ordinary conversations, e.g., coffee break talk, and institutional interactions, e.g., classroom talk. Thus, CA has a strong preference for using naturally occurring data as opposed to experimental or scripted data (ten Have, 2007). Data collection methods include video or audio recordings of face-to-face interactions. Video-recorded data is preferred due to the significance of nonverbal aspects in interaction. These recordings are transcribed following a detailed transcription system which attempts to capture how words are produced: pitch, volume, and stress, as well as the length of silence and overlaps. Visual information, such as gaze, posture, and gestures, obtained from the video recordings are also transcribed as it has a significant effect on the interaction. Various ways to transcribe visual activities are suggested and discussed in greater detail in Hepburn and Bolden (2013).

One methodological limitation that is often pointed out for CA studies is the exclusion of external information in the analysis. External materials, for instance classroom materials or reflective interviews with participants about the recorded interactions, are included in the analysis only when the participants themselves make them relevant in the talk. CA has often been criticized for having a ‘restricted’ database (ten Have, 2007). For critics coming from other paradigms as well as within the CA community, the inclusion of additional data or background information has been a topic of debate. As ten Have (2007) mentions, there is no fixed answer for this, however, “any choice one makes should be accounted for” (p.78). In this particular study, the purpose is to reveal the learners’ development of interactional competence through participation in classroom interaction over time. Thus, I will take the stance of focusing primarily on the classroom data obtained through video recordings and will not include external materials for analysis unless it is oriented by the participants.

## **2.2 Data**

### **2.2.1 Participants and Site**

The data set consists of audio and video recordings of interactions in an EFL classroom at an after-school English program in Japan. All participants are L1 speakers of Japanese. The participants are a female teacher and nine students who are young learners with almost no English training prior to attending this school. The instructor is an experienced EFL teacher who has been teaching English for over thirty years at both private and public institutions in Japan. She conducts all of her classes using only English and the students who attend this school vary in age groups from kindergarten to high school. The students in the present study have attended this school once a week (one lesson consists of 60 minutes) for more than 3 years. Their parents, usually their mothers, often observe their children's English class and sit in the classroom since the teacher has an open policy for observation (see Appendix 2 for seating arrangements of all participants at different time periods).

### **2.2.2 Data Collection**

The excerpts examined in the following chapters were extracted from a larger database consisting of audio-visual recordings of approximately 7 hours and 33 minutes of classroom interaction. Initial data collection began in April, 2006 when there were originally nine students, age five to six, who had just started to attend this program. The first day and the second day of the English lesson were video-recorded. The second data sample was video-recorded focusing on the teacher's picture book reading activity for about 30 minutes. The third set was obtained in January, 2008 with 10 students and one lesson was video-recorded. The fourth data set was

collected in July, 2008 and two lessons were video-recorded. The fifth data set was collected in June, 2009 and two lessons were video-recorded. In sum, a total of nine lessons were video-recorded over a span of four years.<sup>2</sup> Throughout the 4 years of data collection, the students remained mostly the same with some minor changes in the number of participants due to absences or additions of members (For further details, see Appendix 2).

Table 1

*A summary of the data*

	Data collection date	Length (minutes)	Note (learners age & grade level)
T1	04/17/2006 (First day)	1:00:20	Age 5 to 6 (Kindergarten)
T2	04/24/2006	0:30:30	Age 5 to 6 (Kindergarten)
T3	06/05/2006	0:32:00	Age 5 to 6 (Kindergarten)
T4	01/07/2008	1:02:51	Age 6 to 7 (1 <sup>st</sup> grade)
T5	07/14/2008	1:01:10	Age 7 to 8 (2 <sup>nd</sup> grade)
T6	07/28/2008	1:02:46	Age 7 to 8 (2 <sup>nd</sup> grade)
T7	06/15/2009	0:55:08	Age 8 to 9 (3 <sup>rd</sup> grade)
T8	06/22/2009	0:58:20	Age 8 to 9 (3 <sup>rd</sup> grade)
T9	06/29/2009	0:30:00	Age 8 to 9 (3 <sup>rd</sup> grade)
T10 T11	05/08/2015 06/05/2015		Age 14 to 15 (JH 3 <sup>rd</sup> grade)
	Total	7:33:05	

The data were collected through classroom observation and audio video recordings. Video recordings were collected by the researcher in order to capture both the verbal and nonverbal interaction of the teacher and the students. The audio-visual recorded data was

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<sup>2</sup> The data collection involves intervals due to the accessibility to the research site.



transcribed following the CA transcription conventions devised by Gail Jefferson (see Appendix 1.1). In addition, gestures, gaze directions, and other embodied actions that were relevant in the interaction were also closely transcribed, especially in the excerpts that appear in Chapter 6. The transcription conventions with multimodal aspects were devised by Mondada (2014) (see also Appendix 1.3).

The participants and their parents were informed of the research in July, 2008. The purpose of the research, expectations of the participants, their rights, and benefits were explained explicitly in Japanese and consent forms were signed by the participants and their guardians in both Japanese and English (see Appendix 3). Both the recorded video-data and audio-data remain confidential and all the names in the participants of the transcripts have been changed to pseudonyms.

### **2.2.3 Classroom Activities and Overall Structure**

Before going into the details of the data analysis, it is important to lay out the overall structural organization of the activity (Heritage, 2004) in order to identify typical phases or sections of this particular classroom interaction based on the analysis of the whole data source. The following is a summary of the overall classroom structure that takes place in the first half of each lesson (approximately 30 minutes), which is where the data in this study mainly come from.

1. *Opening*: The lesson starts with an opening in which the teacher and the students begin by singing a hello song.
2. *How-are-you sequence*: In the second section, the teacher initiates a greeting by asking “how are you” to each student. The students take turns to answer the teacher-initiated question.
3. *What’s the date today sequence*: Following the how-are-you sequence, the third section

commences with identifying the location of the calendar. The teacher then moves on to initiate a display question, “What’s the date today?”

4. *Filling in the attendance card*: After finding out the date, the students fill in their attendance cards by writing the date and selecting a colored sticker that the teacher provides.
5. *Closing*: A closure is made when students put away their attendance cards and the teacher moves on to the next half of the lesson.

The purpose of describing the overall structural organization is not to classify every piece of interaction into these sections, nor to assert that this structure will always occur in this order. Rather, the purpose is “to identify task orientations which the participants routinely co-construct in routine ways” (Heritage, 2004: p.229). Therefore, the overall structural organization identified above is not a fixed framework, but rather an indication for the analysts to look at the classroom activity in terms of how participants orient to it and organize their talk in order to carry out their institutional business.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Literature Review**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, I will briefly review ‘the social turn’ (Block, 2003), which has had a significant impact on the field of applied linguistics and SLA research in recent years. As mentioned in the earlier chapters, this dissertation is based on data recordings of naturally occurring classroom interactions between a group of novice L2 learners and their teacher. The aim of this chapter is to introduce the use of CA as a methodological approach with which to investigate L2 learning, known as CA-for-SLA and review relevant literature on longitudinally designed CA studies and studies on young L2 learners. In section 3.3, a theory of Interactional Competence and recent studies adopting this theoretical framework will be discussed.

#### **3.2 The Social Turn in Applied Linguistics and SLA**

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of study that explores a broad range of language use and language-related issues in the real world (Cook, 2003). It covers a variety of research areas, including multilingualism, computer-mediated communication, corpus linguistics, language assessment, and second/foreign language teaching, learning and use. Within the area of language pedagogy, in the late 1960s, second and foreign language learning combined with psychology and linguistics, grew into an independent field called second language acquisition

(SLA), which specifically devotes its attention to the scientific study of the process of how languages are acquired (Gass & Selinker, 2001).

In the 1980s and 1990s, the mainstream view on language learning among applied linguists and SLA researchers was strongly influenced by a cognitive-interactionist perspective (Ortega, 2009). Doughty and Long (2003), editors of *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*, claim that language learning is “ultimately a matter of change in an individual’s internal mental state” (p. 4) and the focus of SLA research is on “identifying the nature and sources of the underlying L2 knowledge system... not the external verbal behavior that depends on that competence” (p. 4). SLA concepts such as ‘*interlanguage*,’ i.e., the idea that learners possess or create a mental grammar or language system in their mind (Gass & Selinker, 2001), were coined to explain the learner’s internal linguistic system. Studies were conducted in order to reveal how learners develop this internalized system. The process of language acquisition has been described using terms, such as *comprehensible input* (Krashen, 1981), which helps learners to acquire language and leads to learners’ language production, i.e., *output* (Swain, 1985). As represented in the above examples, the goal of SLA studies based on the cognitive-interactionist view of language learning is to identify underlying universal patterns, processes, and individual systems to explain L2 acquisition.

In the mid-1990s, a number of publications that critically examined the predominant SLA theories called for a reconceptualization of the existing framework (including Hall, 1993; Lantolf, 1996; Firth & Wagner, 1997). This movement was characterized as ‘the *social turn in SLA*’ (Block, 2003). These critics believed that the nature of reality was socially constructed and L2 learning should be best understood within a given social context. Among the critics, Firth and Wagner’s article, published in the *Modern Language Journal* in 1997, was particularly

influential. They critically argued that the mainstream SLA approach to language learning was imbalanced and favored theories and methodologies that were cognitively oriented. To address this imbalance, they argued for widening the perspective of the discipline by enhancing awareness of the contextual and interactional aspects of language use, increasing the emic perspective, and broadening the data base to include more naturally occurring interaction. They stand from the perspective that “language is not only a cognitive phenomenon, the product of the individual’s brain; it is also fundamentally a social phenomenon, acquired and used interactively, in a variety of contexts for myriad practical purposes” (p. 296). Through critically analyzing commonly employed SLA categories, e.g., interlanguage, they succeeded in drawing the attention of applied linguists and SLA researchers to the realm of exploring how language learning could be shaped through social interaction and how L2 can be used resourcefully by learners in situated contexts.

The most significant achievement of this movement was that it opened the doors for researchers to use alternative theoretical frameworks and methodologies to investigate the nature of L2 learning (Firth & Wagner, 2007). Some of these theories are Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), L2 language socialization (Duff, 2007) and Situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), to name a few. Among these alternative methods, CA emerged as one of the empirically grounded methods for SLA researchers to explore and discover the interactional practices observed in actual talk in educational contexts, such as that found in classrooms (Markee, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004), writing conferences (Young & Miller, 2004), on-line chat rooms (Brandt & Jenks, 2013), as well as talk in non-educational context such as workplaces (Firth, 2009).

### 3.3 CA-for-SLA

Over the past 15 years, CA's emergence as a robust methodology to explore actual practices of L2 use and learning through observing L2 users' situated interactions led to an increase in research that adopt this methodological framework to investigate SLA (Kasper, 2006; Markee, 2000; Mori, 2007; Seedhouse, 2004). This line of inquiry, known as CA-for-SLA (Markee & Kasper, 2004) aims to investigate the social processes of L2 learning through describing and analyzing the details in sequences of interaction. It attempts to document evidence for 'learning' that is observed through the sequential development of talk-in-interaction.

The field of SLA more generally has shown a rather cautious view on whether CA can contribute to investigating SLA or L2 learning. Some SLA researchers argue that CA is not well equipped to explain what L2 learning is and how L2 learning occurs (Gass, 2004; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). Ortega (2009) points out that this is because "no *a priori* concept of 'learning' can be assumed, unless speakers in a given interaction happen to orient to learning" (p. 232). In response to these criticisms, CA-for-SLA researchers have responded on various occasions. In terms of whether CA is well equipped or not, Markee and Kasper (2004) claim that CA has the resources and tools to reveal learners' demonstrations of understanding, which is an important condition for language learning. Moreover, Kasper (2009) argues that CA does not need to be accompanied by external theory to explain L2 learning and development. Rather CA can stand on its own to explain language learning and development based on its view that cognition is socially shared and publicly observable. Based on this view, learning can be displayed in locally situated interactions, for instance, children making inferences when learning a new abstract concept and using it, or L2 learners' increasing participation in particular social activities (Young

& Miller, 2004). These can be seen as evidence for development of interactional competencies and by describing how these competencies advance or how interactional changes progress, CA can inform SLA with a rich illustration of how learning occurs.

Another consideration is how conversation analysts establish the ways in which learning or changes in practices occur. As Gardner (2013) states below, one of the keys to this question is to investigate interactional changes demonstrated by learners at different occasions across time.

CA, with its tools for analyzing and comparing sequences of interaction at different points of time, can be a powerful lens on engagement and participation, knowledge states and understanding. It may not ultimately be able to demonstrate how learning takes places, but it can document in a way that, for example, mainstream SLA studies cannot, what students are doing when they are engaged in a learning activity, and what they are doing at a later stage when they have, on the available evidence, learned to become accomplished users of certain linguistic resources in interaction. (p. 609)

One of the preliminary studies conducted by Brouwer and Wagner (2004) was a longitudinally designed study based on a corpus of Danish as a second language that was collected over several months. In that paper, they propose the usefulness of describing the learner's progress in relation to changes in the way they use interactional resources, e.g., initiation of repair, asking questions, and the use of another language, instead of describing changes in linguistic elements alone. The changes in the use of interactional resources can be evidenced through the emergence of complex structures and growing set of techniques that appear in the interaction over time. Similarly, Markee (2008) conducted an empirically based analysis of classroom interaction and demonstrated learners' behavioral changes by analyzing data obtained over several months. He attempts to respecify language learning in terms of learning behavioral changes and calls for a need to conduct longitudinally designed research to investigate L2 learning. Thus, systematically

gathering longitudinal data and closely observing L2 learners' behavioral changes and demonstrating the details of changes across time using the analytical tools provided by CA has been proposed as an effective approach.

### **3.3.1 Longitudinal CA Studies**

Within research on language learning, whether it is on first language or second language, longitudinal studies have been carried out to track learners' performance over stretches of time. For instance, taking a cognitive approach to language learning, Ortega and Byrnes (2008) introduced a collection of studies using a longitudinal framework to investigate advanced L2 capacities. Despite this tradition, Ortega and Iberri-Shea (2005) point out that the number of longitudinal studies in SLA has been small. Within the CA literature, researchers have shown interest in how members, especially young children, learn the rules of social interaction and display their competencies over time. Zimmerman (1999) recommends studies focusing on development, which he calls *vertical comparisons*, to examine the process and stages that emerge through verbal and nonverbal interactions displayed in talk.

In the past, some CA studies have adopted a longitudinal focus. One of the significant CA studies to empirically demonstrate the process of first language development was carried out by Anthony Wootton (1997), who investigated his daughter Amy's use and development of requests through collecting video-recordings of the child's interactions with her parents when Amy was between the ages of 12 and 37 months. Initially, Amy heavily used non-verbal resources, such as reaching and pointing, and combined these with verbal sounds to request things at 9 months of age. At 12 months, she shaped her requests by gazing towards the person she was addressing and produced gesture/sound combination in order to elicit a response from



the recipient. At 37 months, further development took place through the emergence of two new interrogative request forms, and Amy's repertoire for making requests expanded further. Based on the evidence in his study, Wootton argues that the understandings that enable children to learn how to produce systematic actions in sequence are local, public, and moral in nature (p. 196).

Although his study focused on child first language acquisition of request forms, Kasper (2009) acknowledges that "Wootton's study provides SLA researchers with an impressive model for applying CA to investigate how L2 learners' interactional competencies develop" (p.31). In other words, his study made it possible to trace the child's pragmatic development within situated interactions that unfold locally and publicly. Longitudinal studies like Wootton's which carefully attend to locally situated and publicly observable social interactions, providing fruitful ground to inform CA and SLA which advances our knowledge of L2 learning and development.

Over recent years, several CA studies have investigated the development of L2 learners' practices, in terms of two categories: *linguistic resources* and *interactional practices* (Kasper & Wagner, 2014). First, studies investigating the development of *linguistic resources* aims to track changes in the use of linguistic devices, i.e., lexical and grammatical forms, deployed by L2 learners in ordinary conversations. For instance, Ishida (2009) examined the use of a Japanese interactional particle "ne" by an adult L2 Japanese learner, comparing his use of the particle before and after 9 months of study abroad. The analysis revealed that the learner increased the sequential positions and functions of his use of the particle over time. Similarly, Kim (2009) conducted a cross-sectional study of the use of the Korean discourse markers "-nuntye" and "-kuntye" by L2 Korean learners at different proficiency levels and found a developmental order in the acquisition of these discourse markers by closely observing their usage. Hauser (2013) closely investigated the use of a specific grammatical form, i.e., negation, and demonstrated how

an L2 learner analyzed his own speech and used variations of formulaic speech over a seven-month period.

Secondly, studies on the development of *interactional practices* examine “how L2 speakers and novices to a professional setting change how they accomplish the practice over time” (Kasper & Wagner, 2014; p. 198). Analyzing pharmacist-patient consultations over time, Nguyen (2006) examined the process of a novice pharmacist becoming an expert at managing professional activities in the local context. Similarly, Nguyen (2008, 2012) uncovered the development of interactional competence as a part of the workplace socialization process and argues the importance of observing sequence organization as longitudinal achievement. Young and Miller (2004) explored an adult Vietnamese learner of English participating in weekly dyadic ESL writing conferences for four weeks and described how the student’s participation moved from peripheral to full participation through managing sequence and turn-taking with the instructor’s verbal and nonverbal assistance. Through analyzing classroom interaction, Hellermann (2008) investigated development of adult ESL students’ engagement in student-student dyadic talk over time, a theme that is of direct relevance to the current study. Adopting a CA perspective, he examined the change of student practices in conversational openings, storytellings, disengagements, and described how their change of participation and language development was constituted and situated in interaction. Moreover, Pekarek Doehler and Berger (2016) analyzed how an L2 user’s storytelling skills evolved over nine-month stay. They reported that the development of L2 interactional competence was observed in increased ability to design a talk for it to be understood by the recipients, and to deploy context-sensitive methods using sequential and linguistic resources. Thus, longitudinal CA studies have contributed

significantly to our understanding of learner development over recent years, yet at the same time, there are gaps that need to be filled as we pursue this approach.

### **3.3.2 Longitudinal Studies on Young L2 Learners**

A large portion of the CA-based longitudinal studies has been predominantly focused on adult language learners and little attempt has been made to address the interactional development of L2 learning among young children. Previous longitudinal studies that investigated young children's L2 learning have documented L2 development through learner participation in recurrent interactions. Kanagy (1999) conducted a ground-breaking study on how interactional routines functioned as a mechanism for socialization and L2 learning for young children who entered Japanese immersion school in the United States. She investigated how 5-year-old novice learners participated in recurrent classroom routines, such as greetings, attendance taking, and personal introductions, over the period of a school year. The study demonstrated that young learners developed interactional competence over time through repetition and following the teacher's verbal and nonverbal assistance. Children also learned appropriate nonverbal behavior by observing and imitating teacher's demonstrations, which reflected Japanese societal norms. Thus, this study pointed out the significance of how novice L2 learners developed their L2 and interactional skills through repeated participation in interactional routines over time.

Another study conducted by Palloti (2001) investigated how Fatma, a 5-year-old Moroccan girl in an Italian nursery school, developed her skills of turn-taking and increased participation in multi-party interaction. By closely analyzing Fatma's use of 'external appropriations' over the course of 8 months, the study described how she cultivated her ability to carry out self-selected turns in an interactionally timely and topically relevant manner, which

allowed her to receive ratification from other interlocutors and become an active participant in the micro-context of the nursery school. Of particular relevance for the current study is Cekaite's (2007) longitudinal research on a 7-year-old novice learner's turn-taking and participation practices in a Swedish immersion school. The study described how the focal student, Fusi, developed her interactional competence through taking self-selected turns in teacher-fronted multi-party classroom talk. Cekaite's detailed analysis of Fusi's self-selections revealed the significance of her mastery of interactional norms within the local institution when participating in situated classroom activities. Repeated participation enabled Fusi to learn how to design and produce self-selections that were accepted as interactionally appropriate, based on feedback from her interlocutors in the form of either uptake or lack of uptake. Over the course of the school year, she learned how to shape her initiatives in terms of timing, turn-design, and sequential position. In sum, these studies describe how young children learn to participate appropriately using L2 by following the norms of the target micro-context through repeated participation in multi-party interaction and receiving responses from the interactants.

### **3.3.3 Longitudinal Studies and Methodological Challenges**

Longitudinal CA studies have contributed significantly to our understanding of learner development over recent years, yet at the same time, there are also difficulties that need to be addressed when adopting this approach.

Two methodological challenges that longitudinal CA studies need to carefully consider are consistency and comparability. Firstly, Pekarek Doehler and Berger (2016) point out that 'warranting consistency of collections' is the central issue that needs to be addressed. Studies need to show that "a given action is accomplished differently at time X than at time X + 1, yet

still enough in the same way so that it can count as the same action” (p. 4). In addition, the sequential environments and interactional practices where these actions occur should be comparable. Secondly, Kasper and Wagner (2014) caution that “interactional competence development cannot be separated from the development of the participants’ social relations” (p. 199). Therefore, when analyzing naturally occurring interaction, it is important to keep in mind how the social relationship that developed over time is affecting the interaction at hand. In order to warrant the issue of consistency and comparability, Pekarek Doheler and Berger (2016) call for “a research design suitable for tracking specific conversational actions or practices over a period within specifiable and comparable (or, if possible, identical) sequential environments, speech exchange systems, and more generally social settings” (p. 4).

In sum, the above studies contribute to our understanding of the process of L2 use and how the development of linguistic and interactional practices take place in both ordinary and institutional conversations. Among developmental CA studies, there is an increasing number of studies that specifically focus on the development of L2 speakers’ interactional competence. In the following section, the concept and the literature on studies using the framework of interactional competence will be reviewed.

### **3.4 Interactional Competence**

Interactional competence (IC) has been a guiding theory for studies investigating socially grounded interactions and participants’ ability to accomplish social activities. Before going into details of it, IC should be differentiated from communicative competence, proposed by Hymes (1972) as the ability to acquire and use language appropriately. The notion of communicative

competence was formulated with the view that competence is multifaceted and includes both linguistic and sociocultural knowledge to communicate. Based on this concept, Canale and Swain (1980) later proposed four components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence. Although they provide a framework to distinguish various aspects of this notion, these concepts were still limited in the sense that they treated these competences as static and cognitive/individual properties, and failed to incorporate the dynamic aspect of interaction (Hall and Pekarek Doehler, 2011). First coined by Kramsch (1986), IC was concerned with context-specific language use, the co-constructive nature of interactions, utilization of interactional resources, and identification of the particular resources that shape interaction.

As the theory has developed, the components which constitute IC have been elaborated on by SLA researchers (including Hall, 1993; Young, 2000). For instance, Young (2000) introduced the following six components for IC: rhetorical scripts, specific register, strategies for taking turns, the management of topics, roles and patterns of participation in interaction, and signaling boundaries. Among these six components, strategies for turn-taking, topic management and signaling the boundaries are interactional micro-skills that can be empirically observed (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011). Focusing more on interactional actions, Pekarek Doehler and Berger (2016) posit L2 IC to involve “the development of ‘methods’ for action, ... that is, systematic procedures (of turn-taking, repairing, opening or closing a conversation, etc.) by which members of a social group organize their interactional conduct in mutually understandable and accountable ways” (p. 2). In recent years, more and more scholars have used the tools provided by conversation analysis to focus on publicly observable indicators that show interactional micro-skills that are carefully coordinated with the interlocutors, using the tools provided by

conversation analysis. Thus, studies focusing on how novice learners develop their interactional micro-skills have been of great interest to SLA researchers.

### 3.4.1 Studies on L2 Interactional Competence

The number of studies investigating the development of L2 interactional competence has been growing. Using CA as an analytic framework, previous studies focused on how novices develop their abilities to accomplish situated institutional activities while performing in a context-sensitive manner. Based on detailed micro-analysis of pharmacist-patient interactions, Nguyen (2012) explored how two novice pharmacists developed their IC in order to perform a task, i.e., patient consultations. Nguyen's view on interactional competence within institutional practices involves L2 users' ability to: manage the sequence of actions, manage topics, formulate referents and processes using appropriate resources, and co-construct the participation framework (Nguyen, 2011: p.5). The study demonstrated how the novice pharmacists became *more efficient in managing the consultations*, e.g., opening sequences, transitioning actions, as well as how their talk became *more recipient-designed*, and *more responsive to contingent demands in interaction*.

Within an educational setting, Hellermann (2011) conducted research on classroom interaction which investigated the interactional practice of *other-initiated* repair by adult learners of English. Based on data collected over fifty weeks, the dyadic talk of focal learners was transcribed and instances of repairs were analyzed. The study revealed L2 learners utilizing different methods to initiate repair at different points in time, which was taken as an evidence of the development of learners' IC.

One topic that is still to be tackled is the issue of what counts as valid evidence for the development of interactional competence. In their cross-sectional study, Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger (2011) explored disagreement sequences in French L2 classroom focusing on the different ‘methods’ L2 users deployed for accomplishing the action. By comparing how lower-intermediate and advanced learners formulate disagreements in terms of turn architecture (e.g., turn-initial vs. non-turn-initial), linguistic formatting, discursive thickness, and articulation to source-turn, their analysis indicated changes across the two groups in the ‘method’ of doing disagreements. They concluded that L2 interactional development is evidenced through “a diversification of participant’s methods” for accomplishing situated social actions, such as disagreements, “as it provides for the speakers the possibility to adapt to the local circumstances of talk” (p.237). Following these studies, this dissertation will adopt both Nguyen’s (2012) view of increasing efficiency in managing institutional tasks and Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger’s (2011) view on diversifying methods in accomplishing situated actions as evidence of development of L2 interactional competence.

Building on previous research on CA-for-SLA and longitudinal CA studies focusing on the development of L2 learners’ interactional competence, the dissertation aims to exhibit the development of young novice L2 users’ interactional competence through observing their engagement in classroom interaction over a period of three years. It aims to contribute to the existing research by demonstrating the methods with which the learner engages in the recurrent interactional event through episodic analysis (Nguyen, 2012) and how the methods of engagement change across different periods of time through longitudinal comparison (Nguyen, 2012). In addition, it describes how the development of interactional competence was demonstrated by members *in situ*.



## **Chapter 4**

### **Engaging in Interactional Routines**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter will explore the development of second language (L2) interactional competence (Hall, Hellermann, & Pekarek Doehler, 2011) by a young EFL learner. Using CA as a framework to analyze data, it aims to investigate how the learner engages in an interactional routine over time in order to identify changes in his methods of engagement. Over the past decade, a considerable number of studies have been conducted on L2 interactional competence and development (including Cekaite, 2007; Hellermann, 2008; Ishida, 2009, 2011; Nguyen, 2006, 2008, 2012; Young & Miller, 2004). Despite this growing interest, very few attempts have been made to investigate the development of EFL learners as competent users of interactional routines through accumulated participation in multiparty classroom interactions. By comparing excerpts taken over a span of four years, the study aims to demonstrate the individual's developing competence as observed through the increasing range of methods he uses to engage in a specific interactional routine that recurrently emerges in the teacher-centered classroom interaction.<sup>3</sup>

#### **4.2 Literature Review**

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<sup>3</sup> A version of this chapter also appeared as Watanabe (2016).

#### **4.2.1 Interactional Routines**

The importance of *interactional routines* in facilitating language learning has been highlighted by researchers of language socialization (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Peters and Boggs (1986) define the interactional routine as “a sequence of exchanges in which one speaker’s utterance, accompanied by appropriate nonverbal behavior, calls forth one of a limited set of responses by one or more other participants” (p.81). They argue that interactional routines promote language learning because they are predictable and repetitive, thereby providing a helpful participation structure for novice language learners. Interactional routines are meaningful, culturally formulated, and embedded in everyday interaction. They are predictable in nature but can vary in terms of its fixedness (Peters & Boggs, 1986). For example, a rather fixed interactional routine including a greeting sequence, such as ‘hello’ calls forth another set of greeting ‘hello’ or ‘hi’ as an appropriate response. Less formulaic interactional routines include empty slots to be filled in by the respondent, for instance, ‘what’s that?’ which calls forth ‘That’s a xxx’. Infants and young children acquire appropriate language through interacting with caretakers by first participating in a routine and gradually becoming expert through repeated interaction (Ohta, 1999). Nonetheless, a predictable pattern generates an interactive environment where learners are able to project upcoming components of the sequence, and the repetitive use provides dependable environments for input and reinforcement. As a result, interactional routines afford novices the chance to engage in interaction by repeated listening, responding, and practicing within the projected framework.

#### **4.2.2 Interactional Routines in Foreign Language Classroom**

Interactional routines are also found to be effective for foreign language learning. It has been acknowledged that foreign language teachers commonly employ interactional routines as part of their teaching practices (Ohta, 2001). Recurrent communicative events designed by the teacher, serve as “powerful organizers of student-teacher interaction” (Kanagy, 1999, p. 1468) and are generally seen as beneficial for foreign language teaching and learning. SLA researchers and language socialization researchers have investigated interactional routines and their effect on the process of language development in the foreign language classroom (Ohta, 1999, 2001; Kanagy, 1999). For instance, in her longitudinal study of adult learners of Japanese as a foreign language, Ohta (1999) focused on learners’ use of Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequences (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) and described how the students’ use of the third turn, especially making assessments on their peers’ response turns, increased over time thereby creating opportunities to actively participate.

Of particular interest for this study is Kanagy’s (1999) study, which investigated the socialization process of primary school children learning Japanese in an immersion program. She identified three daily classroom routines: greetings, attendance, and personal introductions, and examined how English speaking children learned to participate in the routines over the period of a school year. By analyzing naturally occurring classroom data in light of the target script (p.1470), her study demonstrated that novice learners developed L2 competence through repeating and following the teacher’s verbal and nonverbal assistance. Since the students gradually increased their independence in producing the target script, Kanagy concluded that interactional routines provided an opportunity for novice learners to develop their competence in L2 interaction.

Although studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of interactional routines as a method for teaching foreign languages, the aspect of interactional competence that learners display and demonstrate through co-constructing the interactional routines has not been investigated thoroughly from a CA perspective. Engaging in classroom interactional routines as a competent member is in fact a complex task for novice learners because one has to comprehend the current speaker's initiation of the routine produced in the target language and provide appropriate responses at an appropriate timing in their L2 by predicting and projecting upcoming sequences. In multiparty classroom interaction, a learner has to pay particularly close attention to the teacher's talk as well as to other peers talk in order to take turns that are relevant to the on-going interaction. Learners can show their engagement in interactional routines through various actions such as repeating the instructor's turn, obtaining the teacher's attention verbally and/or nonverbally, and initiating expected and unexpected responses in self-initiated turns. Thus, learners demonstrate their competence by actively engaging in the on-going interaction using various methods and such demonstrations of competencies can be observed as an essential part of their interactional competence (Young, 1999).

### **4.3 Data Analysis**



In the following analysis, I will demonstrate how a 5-year-old novice learner, Eisaku (pseudonym), engaged in the interactional routine, *what's the date today* sequence, on the very first day of his English class, and then again 21 months later, 27 months later, and 38 months later.

### 4.3.1 The First Day of English Class

The first extract comes from the very first day of the English class. The students and the teacher meet for the first time (seven of the nine students are familiar with each other since they attend the same kindergarten). The following excerpt is produced after the teacher and the students introduced their names and completed the *how are you* sequence. Eisaku is seated in the front nearby the teacher (T), as indicated with the circle below.

*Choral response to the teacher initiation*

#### Extract 1a: Choral repetition [T1: 04/17/06]

- 1 T: AH, AH, ↑look [here?  
2 [((pointing at the calendar))
- 
- 3 (.) ((students gaze at the calendar))  
4 [♪what's this, what's this, what's this?♪  
5 [((points at the numbers in the calendar))  
6 ♪it's a calendar, [it's a calendar, it's a calendar♪  
7 [((cups her LH<sup>4</sup> behind ear while  
8 RH pointing at the calendar))
- 
- 9 SS:→ calendar  
10 T: it's a Calendar(.) [now [today's date↑  
11  
12 [((handclap)) [((pointing at watch))  
13 (.)

---

<sup>4</sup> LH refers to the Left Hand and RH refers to the Right Hand. See Appendix for further transcription conventions.

14 T: HA(0.5) [↑AP↓RIL(.)]  
 15 [(RH:pointing at April in the calendar))  
 16 [everybody, [↑AP↓ril  
 17 [(inviting gesture [(cups her LH  
 18 with her LH)) behind her ear))



19 SS:→ [↑AP↓ril  
 20 T: ((claps her hand))SO, it's(.) April (0.5)  
 21 [♪April♪  
 22 [(writes 4/ on the whiteboard<sup>5</sup>))

At the initial stage, Eisaku's engagement in the classroom activity was very similar to that of the other learners. His verbal participation in the L2 was limited to choral repetitions when initiated by the teacher. Eisaku showed his attentiveness to the on-going activities through nonverbal actions, e.g., changing his posture, looking at the relevant artifact, and gazing at the teacher.

In the first line, T begins the sequence with a loud and stressed "AH" accompanied with a high pitch verbal utterance "↑look here" to draw the students' attention vocally. The verbal "here" combined with the nonverbal action of pointing (line 2), mutually enhance each other to elicit students' attention to the classroom artifact, the calendar, indexed as relevant for this activity. Goodwin (2003) treats pointing as "a situated interactive activity" (p.219) which is produced to establish a specific space to organize a shared focus, and requires recipients to find meaning by attending to both the action and the setting. The teacher's use of pointing directs the

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<sup>5</sup> Letters written on the whiteboard are indicated in Arial.

students' attention to the relevant artifact and establishes mutual attention with the recipients (line 3), which enables her to start expanding the collaborative activity (Cekaite, 2008b). Eisaku, seated in the front row, displays his attentiveness by gazing at the pointed calendar.

After gaining students' attention and while still pointing at the calendar, T sings a song to the tune of *Twinkle Twinkle Little Star*, with a variation in the lyrics that is hearably oriented to the task at hand; “♪ what's this, what's this, what's this ♪”. The demonstrative pronoun “this” is accompanied by a pointing gesture (line 5) to direct the students' attention to the numbers on the calendar. Then, T completes the tune with “it's a calendar, it's a calendar, it's a calendar” in the next turn. She uses a symbolic hand gesture, *cupping her left hand behind her ear* (Mortensen, 2016: Sert, 2015), to solicit the whole class utterance in line 7.

For the learners, it is their very first day of English class and considering their limited knowledge of L2 and experience in the classroom culture, to know *when* and *where* to appropriately take turns is a challenging task. However, the students, including Eisaku, orient to the teacher's hand gesture by chorally repeating the stressed word “calendar”. This turn displays the learners' attentiveness to the teachers' verbal and nonverbal actions and is evidence of their understanding of when to take a turn solicited with gesture.

In line 10 and 11, T initiates the next topic by first verbally indicating the transition by uttering “now” embodied with a handclap (line 11). The handclap serves as a request to gain the gaze of the listeners (Goodwin, 1986). T utilizes the handclap to move the students' gazes from the artifact to herself, which marks the transition to the next topic. After a micro pause, T directs their attention back to the calendar by pointing to the word April. T solicits the students' response using the verbal cue “everybody” combined with an inviting hand gesture and allocates a turn to the students, again using the symbolic hand gesture employed earlier. Orienting to the

repeated hand gesture, students verbally participate by taking the turn in L2 and chorally repeating the name of the month “↑AP↓ril”, imitating the teacher’s intonation (line 13). Hence, turn allocations were managed by the teacher using a combination of both verbal and nonverbal actions and Eisaku as well as his peers responded successfully by chorally repeating the teacher’s turn, which was indicated by marked prosodic features such as rising intonation and stress.

### *Initiating a turn in L1*

While Eisaku engages in choral repetition with his peers, he also takes the initiative in his L1 when a problem occurs. The following sequence is produced after the students have identified the name of the month and have moved on to counting numbers in English to find out the date. After counting together from one to fifteen, confusion occurs about whether the date is the fifteenth, sixteenth, or seventeenth.

#### **Extract 1b: Taking the turn in L1**

42 T: oh, it’s sixteenth today?

43 (.)

44 E:→ AH, juugo, juugo ((moves to the calendar and points))  
fifteen, fifteen



45 T: oh, fifteen today? (0.5) it’s fifteen today?

46 (.)

47 Ke: junana, junana, junana, junana, junana  
seventeen, seventeen, seventeen, seventeen, seventeen

48 T: >°alright°<[sixteen, and (0.7) seventeen.

49 [((pointing at the calendar))

50 T: wow, you can count? (.) [♪It’s seventeen, seventeen,



51                               [ ((writes 17 on the board))  
52       APril, seventeen♪ [everybody?  
53                               [ ((cups her LH behind her ear))  
54     T:   [♪APril seventeen♪  
55     SS:  [♪APril seventeen♪  
56     T:   it's April seventeen, very ↑good, ↑very ↑good

In line 1, T utters the change of state token “oh” (Heritage, 1984), which indicates receipt of information, accompanied by a yes/no question with a rising intonation. The rising intonation indicates that she is formulating a first pair part (a question), which means that on its completion there is a transition relevant place (TRP) (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), allowing for speakership to change. Moreover, the initiation of the question makes the second pair part of the adjacency pair, i.e. an answer, conditionally relevant (Schegloff, 1992). Following a micro pause, Eisaku produces a loud “AH” token, then stands up from his seat and physically moves over to the calendar. He then takes the next turn in Japanese with the embodied action of pointing and jumping at the calendar. The teacher responds to his L1 “juugo, juugo” with the change of state token “oh” and rephrases the turn in L2 by asking a question marked with a rising intonation (line 45). Following the micro pause, another student, Ke, takes the next turn by uttering “seventeen” in his L1. Thus, Eisaku and Ke display their existing interactional competence with regard to turn-taking by responding to the teacher-initiated question at a TRP; however, each uses their L1 due to their lack of L2 competence. The interactive activity of finding out the date is closed when the teacher provides positive assessments to the students’ choral response in line 55.

In sum, in the initial stage, despite their lack of L2 knowledge and shared experience of the classroom culture, the excerpts show that the novice learners of English, including Eisaku,

actively engaged in the interaction through attentive observation and use of available interactional resources. In order to compensate for their lack of L2 and shared knowledge, almost all of the teacher utterances were accompanied with nonverbal actions. Vocal paralinguistic features, such as prosodic design, songs, and artifacts were deployed to establish common resources with the students. Pointing enabled the teacher to specifically organize central components of her current action with reference to the students' visual orientation (Goodwin, 2000) and hand gestures allowed her to organize the turn-taking and turn allocations. Thus, the teacher's frequent use of nonverbal actions required students to stay engaged in the interaction through careful observations.

As Sacks *et al* (1974) claim, participating in orderly turn-taking brings about "an intrinsic motivation for listening" to what the speaker is saying. In this initial stage, Eisaku and the learners displayed their existing interactional competence by responding to the teacher's solicitation through repeating and imitating teacher-highlighted key-words in L2. Their display of understanding and attentiveness to what is happening in the on-going interaction was presented both chorally and individually. Eisaku demonstrated strategies for taking turns by getting the teacher's attention verbally and nonverbally, self-selecting to take a turn, and claiming knowledge in L1. Thus, by monitoring the teacher's talk, responding to teacher solicitation, and taking turns in L1, Eisaku displayed his existing interactional competence to engage in the first day of classroom interaction.

#### **4.3.2 Twenty-one Months Later**

The following extracts come from a lesson video-recorded 21 months after the previous extract. Here the teacher and the students meet each other for the first time after the New Year's

holiday. After completing the hello song and *how are you* sequence, some chatting about how to greet people in New Year's takes place and the interactional routine begins.

**Extract 2: Opening [T4: 01/07/08]**

```
1  T:  SO um(.)look at the calendar,  
2      where's the new calendar?  
3      (0.5)  
4  T:  WHERE? where's the new calendar?  
5      (0.7)  
6  T:  the[y ↑are ((pointing at the calendar))  
7  SS:→ [they are (.) on the wall
```

Marking the transition with a loud “SO” followed by a hesitation token “um”, T directs students’ attention to the calendar verbally then initiates the generally solicited question “where’s the new calendar”. Although this question makes relevant a second pair part from the recipients, the next turn is missing as indicated by a 0.5 second gap of silence. Unable to obtain an immediate answer, T’s second attempt is carried out with increased volume produced with rising intonation “WHERE?” and a repetition of the same question in the same form (line 4). The second attempt again fails to obtain a response from the students. Following the 0.7 second gap, T pursues a response by starting to model the answer verbally “they ↑are” (line 6) accompanied with pointing. Overlapping in the middle of the teacher’s utterance, the students chorally respond to the prior question and complete the sentence on their own by saying “they are (.) on the wall”. This collective response reveals that the students are familiar with the initiated question. It serves as evidence for the routine nature of this particular question and answer sequence, and the student production of an appropriate response shows their socialization into this routine. Thus, in

this sequence, students bring their previously shared interactional experience and display their competence by chorally responding to the question with an appropriate answer.

### *Collaborative action completions*

The following extract is produced 3 minutes after the previous extract.

#### **Extract 3a: Collaborative singing**

```
1   T:           [NOW], what's the date today, everybody?
2           [ ((clap hand)) ]
3       ♪what's the date today♪((tune:♪twinkle twinkle♪))
4   SS:→ ♪what's the date today♪((tune:♪little star♪))
```

In line 1, T indicates a shift of topic by producing a turn with a loud, “NOW” accompanied with a handclap to gain the students attention. This topic-initiating turn (Heath, 1984, p. 248) marks a shift of topic moving to the task of interest, i.e., “what’s the date today”, followed by verbal solicitation of student response “everybody” (line 1). After the solicitation, T starts to sing a song “♪what’s the date today♪” in line 3 again with the tune from *Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star*. Rather than responding to the first pair part in line 1, the students orient to this song and chorally join to sing the latter half of the tune in the following turn, and collaboratively produce the song together (line 4).

The use of songs and gestures are particularly noteworthy in this sequence. Hellermann (2008) introduces the notion of “shared repertoire”, which is one of the most important aspects of community of practice (Wenger, 1998) and includes “routines, words, tools, ways of doing things, stories, gestures, symbols, genres, actions, or concepts” (Wenger, 1998: 83). Hellermann points out the “there is a particularly strong reflexive relationship between language use and participation in the development of a shared repertoire of language for communication in the

classroom community of practice” (p.11). In the above extract, we can observe three recurrent teacher practices observed repetitively across lessons. The first is the use of “Now + handclap” combination (line 1) to indicate topic transition to move students’ attention and mark transition and the second is the use of “everybody” combined with a gesture to verbally solicit the whole class’s response. A third recurrent teacher practice is singing to the tune of a song, *Twinkle Twinkle Little Star*, which was also observed previously in Extract 1a.

Due to its repetitive nature, these recurrent teacher practices serve as a shared repertoire for this community of EFL learners and become resources for the students to understand what is happening as well as to anticipate what is expected and what the relevant and appropriate actions are for the next turn. Therefore, these repertoires provide an opportunity for students to predict the course of action and participate in the current activity.

The evidence of interactional routines and shared repertoire as resources for student participation is revealed in the collaborative action of producing a single action of singing (lines 3 & 4). Here, it is observed that both the teacher and the students work jointly to produce a single action. The accomplishment of the collaborative singing requires students to anticipate what is going to happen and what is happening, so that they can perform the relevant action in a particular moment. Thus, to make this collaborative work possible, students not only need to “hear what has already been said, but also see what is about to be said” (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2004, p.226). As argued earlier, the repetitive nature of the teacher’s use of shared repertoire enables students to anticipate how the course of interaction unfolds, thus leading to active engagement and co-construction.

### **Extract 3b: Collaboratively completing the sentence**

5 T: what’s the date today? everybody?

6            what's the date today, it's?=  
 7    SS:    =January  
 8    T:    oh, [<January>  
 9            [((pointing at the calendar))



10            (2.0)  
 11    SS:    seventh  
 12    T:    seventh, good. [January, seventh]  
 13            [((writes 1/7 on the board))

After the collaborative singing, T initiates the same question “what’s the date today?” produced earlier (line 1), followed by the whole class response solicitation, “everybody”, this time without singing. In line 6, the teacher pursues the students’ response further by producing, “it’s”, a *designedly incomplete utterance* (DIU: Koshik, 2002), i.e., utterances which are designedly incomplete to invite recipients’ to fill in and complete. Immediately after this teacher prompt, the whole class completes the utterance, thereby orienting to the DIU and providing the answer for the first pair part. In Koshik’s (2002) study, which focused on error correction sequences in writing conferences, DIUs functioned to elicit students’ self-correction. In this context, DIUs serve as a powerful elicitation for student participation and provides support for them to display their understanding of the on-going activity.

In line 8, the change of state token “oh” is deployed to acknowledge a response (Heritage, 2005) and is coupled with a repetition of the previous turn accompanied with pointing. After a rather long silence (2.0 seconds), students chorally produce the correct date, which not only indicates their understanding that a response is required from them but also that the answer to the question “what’s the date today?” requires both the month and the day to be complete.

This is something that was not observed in the prior extract. Acknowledging their turn by repeating it, the response was positively evaluated by the teacher in line 12 with an emphasized “good”.

In sum, the interaction in the second phase revealed that Eisaku, together with other students, engages in the interactional routine by being attentive observers who project what is going to happen based on previous experiences and the recurrent framework. For instance, students are able to display their L2 interactional competence by responding to the teacher’s oral prompt (line 7) and collaboratively completing the DIU produced by the teacher. In this stage, students are aware of the appropriate answers to the teacher-initiated questions; for example, they know that the answer for “what’s the date today?” must consist of the name of the current month, January, and the day, the seventh.


Eisaku does not self-select at this stage, but instead shows his competence through answering appropriately with the right timing and in the appropriate language, which is a change from the previous extract. Although the learners demonstrate their ability by jointly completing turns, their English skills are still limited in the sense that they take turns only when solicited by the teacher where a response is required. Therefore, after 21 months, Eisaku and his peers show active engagement and display the ability to anticipate how the routine unfolds.

#### **4.3.3 Twenty-seven Months Later**

The following extract comes from a lesson 27 months after the first extract. The sequence below is initiated after the *how are you* sequence.

*Private speech: active language learning*

#### Extract 4: What's the date today sequence [T6: 07/28/08]

- 1 T: [where's the calendar?=  
2 [((searching gesture))
- 
- 3 S: =<they are>  
4 T: they are  
5 S: on the wall  
6 T: right [♪what's the date today,  
7 SS: [♪what's the date today  
((tune: ♪twinkle twinkle♪))  
8 T: [♪What's the date today♪  
9 SS: [♪What's the date today♪  
((tune: ♪little star♪))  
10 T: What's the date today=  
11 E:→ =it's July, July=  
12 T: =it's[<July>  
13 E:→ [<↑July> twenty-eighth,  
14 T: EighTH.  
15 E:→°eighth°  
16 T: wow who wrote this? ((pointing at the board))

The teacher initiates the interactional routine by asking a question in line 1 accompanied with a hand gesture. Immediately after the initiation, the unidentified student S responds slowly in the next turn. T produces a DIU, “they are”, to prompt a sentence completion and S collaborates by supplying the missing part of the utterance. T acknowledges the prior turn in line 6, and starts singing the routine song together with the students. In line 10, T asks the routine question “what’s the date today” and Eisaku provides the name of the month in a sentence, “it’s July”, followed by the teacher’s repetition of E’s utterance. Overlapping with T, Eisaku provides



the name of the month and the day, which gets taken up by T by repeating part of Eisaku's utterance with exaggerated prosodic stress "EighTH". Eisaku treats T's repetition as other-initiated repair by repeating T's utterance and producing self-repair "°eighth°" in a rather smaller voice (line 15).

The type of repetition that Eisaku produces in line 15 is noteworthy. This utterance can be classified as "private speech" (Ohta, 2001; Hellermann, 2008) which is addressed extensively in other studies to investigate its relation to the process of language development. According to Ohta (2001), private speech is identified by its a) reduced volume, b) not being a response to a question directed to the individual, and c) not taken up by the teacher or a classmate (p.38). In this sequence, E's turn fulfills all the characteristics above and it acts as a self-repair that is not addressed to anyone other than self. The covert repetition can be claimed to reveal E's focus on the pronunciation of the word *eighth* with the emphasis on the phoneme /θ/. Although the teacher's pedagogical focus of the task is to carry out the interactional routine, Eisaku turns this sequence into his own learning opportunity by engaging with his own language use through producing private speech and being an active language learner. Thus, Eisaku's use of private speech shows that "the learner tailors the language class or social situation to personal learning needs" (Ohta, 2001, p.72) and reveals an important aspect of legitimate participation in the language classroom (Hellermann, 2008).

In sum, the analysis shows Eisaku displaying his knowledge and abilities to engage in interaction using L2 by constructing turns in full sentences. He has also developed different ways of participating in the interactional routine to meet his own needs, which can be observed through his production of private speech. This is a type of participation framework that was not

present in the previous extracts where learners were participating mainly by being attentive and responsive to the teacher's actions.

#### 4.3.4 Thirty-eight Months Later

The following extract comes from a lesson 38 months after the first extract. It occurs after the *how are you* sequence.

*Taking the role of a questioner*

##### Extract 5: Opening [T9: 06/29/09]

```
1  T:  okay, that's alright, now [look at the calendar
2                                     [((searching gesture))
3      (.)
4  SS:  they are on the [wall
5  T:   [((Claps hands))
6      oh, [Eisaku ask everybody the date today,
7      [((draws a circle in the air with index finger))
8      [one two three,
9  E:→ [what day-
10     [♪what the date today, what the date today♪
11  T:  [((clapping hands while Eisaku is singing))
12     everybody=
13  SS:  =it's June ((students look at the whiteboard))
14     (0.7)
15  T:  it's-
16  SS:  Ju:ne twenty:: ni::nth:
17  T:  ((teacher points at the whiteboard))
18     Oh-oh, some part is missing [here, go↑od
19                                     [((Adds a line to h))
20     oh(.) [how do you spell June?
21     [((covering the word June on the board))
22     (0.5)
23  SS:  jay ju en i:
24  T:  Oh JUNE
```

In line 1, T marks the transition by producing “now”, which is a recurrent teacher practice observed and discussed earlier in Extract 3. T verbally and nonverbally marks the opening of the classroom routine with an embodied action to direct the students’ attention to the calendar. After a micro pause, students take the turn and respond to the teacher’s topic initiation, treating it as a question-answer sequence by responding “they are on the wall” (line 4). The students’ answer shows evidence of this sequence being an interactional routine, where the usual routine question is “where’s the calendar?” and the correct answer is “they are on the wall” (as observed in earlier phases: Extract 2 & 4). This can be a possible pitfall of using classroom interactional routines, where the members, in this case the students, do not orient to the local production but rather orient to the question that has been routinely produced in prior interactions.

In line 6, T calls on Eisaku by directly addressing his name, and administers the right to ask the routine question to the whole class, which is reinforced with the hand gesture in line 7. T produces “one two three” to solicit a response which overlaps with E’s utterance. This overlap displays Eisaku’s understanding of the teacher’s selection in line 6 as an assignment. He self-repairs his utterance in line 9 by cutting off his sentence, “what day-”, and restarts the song in line 10. By producing this self-repair, E demonstrates his awareness and understanding that T initiated a routine sequence and displays his competence in managing the assigned role of questioner. Simultaneously, T joins E’s singing by clapping her hands. When the song is finished, T solicits the whole class to respond to E’s question by producing “everybody” (a recurrent teacher practice observed and discussed in Extract 1 and 3). Students chorally respond without any gaps, using the complete sentence “it’s June.” After a short pause, T prompts the

students with a DIU and the students complete the utterance by adding the date “Ju:ne twenty::: ni::nth:” (line 16) with vowel elongation.

Starting her turn with an affective stance token “oh-oh” in line 18, the teacher points to the whiteboard, where information has already been written by one of the students, and makes a correction on the “missing part.” Here, the teacher is doing being a teacher by making corrections and providing explicit positive assessments like “good” in line 18 (Wong & Waring, 2009). Another teacher-initiated routine begins in the following line “how do you spell June” which is responded to by the students loudly in chorus, showing their understanding and orientation to the activity of spelling. T acknowledges this response by producing a change of state token “oh” and repeating the response again.

In this sequence, Eisaku engages in the routine interaction by anticipating and chorally responding to the teacher solicitation in complete sentences (lines 3 and 4) and taking on the assigned role as a questioner (line 10). In comparison with the earlier phases where Eisaku used to produce only one word or phrase in L2, he is now able to produce responses in full sentences, such as “they are on the wall” and “It’s June”, without any assistance. Moreover, taking on the assigned role of questioner displays his competence to understand what the teacher wants him to do and perform appropriately using different discourse identity, i.e. a questioner (Zimmerman, 1998).

#### *“Doing being a Teacher”: taking the role of the teacher*

During this lesson, the teacher notices the student’s writing on the whiteboard and initiates a question to the whole class. In the analysis of the following excerpt, I will demonstrate how Eisaku spontaneously initiated a sequence in the interaction by reversing the institutional

identity through taking the role of being a teacher by correcting his classmate's misspelling on the whiteboard.

### Extract 6a: Getting teacher's attention

- 1 T: OH ↑who wrote this?  
2 (2.0)  
3 T: I did ((raising hand))  
4 M: ((raises her hand))  
5 E:→ keshita ((raising his hand))  
    *erased*  
6 T: Oh, Miku did! Thank you Miku.  
7 E:→ [I- I erased (.) erased  
8 ((raising his hand high))  
9 T: You erased  
10 E: yes,  
11 (.) ((students laugh))



T's change of state token "OH" (Heritage, 1984) produced in a rather loud voice works to; a) display her noticing of the written work on the whiteboard, therefore making it into a relevant topic, and b) elicit the subsequent question "who wrote this?" based on the demonstration of noticing. Followed by a rather long (2.0 second) gap of silence and the lack of second pair-part to the initiated question, T models the expected answer verbally and nonverbally (line 3). The nonverbal model was taken up by M in her response, which was acknowledged and appreciated by the teacher in line 6 with another change-of-state token "oh" to "mark the receipt of the informing delivered in the preceding turn" (Heritage, 1984, p. 301).

In the midst of this teacher-student interaction, Eisaku spontaneously responds to the teacher-initiated question in line 1, using Japanese and embodied action by raising his hand in line 5. However, his action receives no uptake from the teacher, thus failing to solicit teacher attention (Cekaite, 2008a). He then makes a second attempt to call for teacher's attention in line

7, this time code-switching to the appropriate language, English, “I erased (.) erased” combined with the upgraded nonverbal action of raising his hand even higher. In this classroom, in order to take up the turn and be fully recognized by the teacher, the students must discover and adapt to the expectation of using appropriate language (Björk-Willén, 2008). By doing a self-repair on his previous production in L1, i.e., changing “keshita” into the English “I erased”, E displays his understanding of the norm that the students are expected to participate in the classroom interaction using English and makes the appropriate choice of language. Thus, E demonstrates his L2 competence by legitimately participating in this classroom interaction through rephrasing his Japanese utterance into English, which is followed by teacher recognition in line 9.

T’s uptake on E’s utterance was taken as a confirmation question and was answered by E in the following turn. The students’ laughter in line 11 indicates other students’ participation in this interaction through being attentive listeners who follow what is going on.

#### Extract 6b: “Doing being a Teacher”

- 12 T: wha- what did you erase  
 13 E: Ah:: ((Eisaku comes to the whiteboard))  
 14 T: >what did you erase<  
 15 E:→ ah:: (1.0) monday,uh ↑ou, ((pointing at **Monday**))



- 16 T: o (.) yes (1.5) ((passes the marker to Eisaku))  
 17 Miku wrote-  
 18 E: [Miku wrote (.) EI  
 19 [((Eisaku writes **a** on the whiteboard))



20 ((laughter))  
 21 T: Ah↑, MANDAY, so you erased ↑EI  
 22 →((Eisaku erases a on the whiteboard))  
 23 (.)  
 24 E: yes  
 25 T: and you wrote ↓OU  
 26 (0.5)  
 27 E:→ yes ((Eisaku writes o))  
 28 (2.5) ((Eisaku moves back to his seat))  
 29 T: thank you, thank you, thank you teacher, (0.5)  
 30 SS: ((laughter))  
 31 T: Eh? is he a teacher? ((looks at the students))



32 ((laughs)) (.) okay, so monday.

Eisaku's spontaneous participation leads to the development of a further sequence of E being accountable for his action of "erasing" something on the whiteboard. In line 12, T initiates a question and solicits a response from E to account for his previous utterance, thereby giving him the chance to participate in this interaction. He delays his response by starting his turn with an elongated hesitation marker "Ah::" combined with a change of position by moving his body from his seat to the whiteboard. Unable to obtain an answer to the question, T deals with the absence of an account by pursuing the same question at a faster speed in the following turn.

In response to this repeated question, E produces his turn starting with a stretched hesitation marker, followed by an intra-turn pause (Hauser, 2009), and two key-words, which show his difficulty in expressing the sentence using his L2. The turn is accompanied with an embodied action which serves to index the relevant words "Monday" and "↑ou". To solve this

difficulty, he utilizes the nonverbal resource of pointing to articulate and illustrate his action of erasing. This use of embodied action can be seen as compensating for his difficulties in using the L2 (Gullberg, 2006) which serves to elaborate his response without constructing sentences.

Obtaining a response from E, T provides acknowledgement by repeating the letter “o” and the continuer “yes” followed by a 1.5 second pause to encouraging E to continue speaking. She provides assistance by handing him a whiteboard marker, and utters a DIU, “Miku wrote”, to prompt further explanation. This prompting action displays the teacher’s understanding of what E has produced in line 15 and treats this turn as a request for assistance. By E reiterating the teacher’s prompt and completing the DIU, he also invokes their respective classroom roles as L2 novice and expert; a novice needing assistance in his L2 and an expert providing the assistance. The audience, i.e., the other students, displays their attentiveness to the teacher-student interaction by laughing after E writes the original word that was on the whiteboard. The full use of artifacts such as the whiteboard and the marker, the change of physical orientation, and the employment of pointing all work together to reveal the dynamic and multimodal participation framework in which the members are engaged.

In line 21, T’s high-pitch acknowledgement “Ah↑” coupled with emphasis on “MANDAY”, and the summary sentence “so you erased ↑ei and you wrote ↓ou” make public T’s understanding of E’s verbal and nonverbal account. During this summary, E provides the confirmation token “yes” at the end of the TRP indicated by silence (lines 23 & 26). Here, E’s physical movements are noteworthy. In lines 22 and 27, E demonstrates how he corrected the misspelling of “MANDAY” while the teacher provides a summary of his actions. This demonstration indicates that E is able to comprehend T’s explanation.



After E moves back to his seat in line 28, T repeatedly offers him gratitude, then addresses the class by asking “is he a teacher?” and laughing. This question reveals T is invoking the membership category (Sacks, 1995; Hester & Eglin, 1997) of “teacher” and the category bound activities (CBA) related to being a teacher, e.g., standing in front of the class, writing on the whiteboard, and correcting student writing. E’s actions are unlike the category bound activity of being a student, i.e., sitting on the chair, being corrected when making mistakes, and responding when solicited. Thus, the teacher’s question invokes the standard relational pair (SRP) of “teacher” and “student” and the category bound activities related to each pair. The question “is he a teacher” is made laughable by T based on the understanding that E is not a teacher. However, E’s demonstration earlier crosses the boundaries of the category bound activity of being a student. Therefore, it can be concluded that T treats E’s earlier action as doing being a teacher by fulfilling the activities that the teacher normally does. The membership categories of “teacher” and “student” are therefore oriented to by the participants and the institutional identities are made procedurally consequential (Schegloff, 1992) in this interaction.

In sum, this sequence reveals the enthusiastic and spontaneous participation of Eisaku in routine classroom interaction. Eisaku displayed his L2 interactional competence 1) by taking initiative in the routine activity to participate orally, and 2) by actively taking the role of doing being a teacher by correcting a classmate’s misspelling. As a result, the institutional role of being a teacher and a student are reversed. Compared with earlier phases, Eisaku showed deeper involvement in participating in the routine activity by taking different institutional roles and putting the routine to their own use without being told to do so. Thus, after 38 months, Eisaku used the interactional routine as a resource to actively engage in the classroom discourse and demonstrates himself as a competent member of the classroom.

#### 4.4 Conclusion

This chapter demonstrated how one novice learner became a competent participant in teacher-fronted classroom interactions over a period of 4 years. The analysis focused on how the learner engaged in the recurrent interactional routine, i.e., *what's the date today*, and how changes in these interactions could be observed over time. The findings revealed that the learner's method of engagement gradually developed in terms of turn-taking strategies and roles and patterns of involvement. In the initial stage, Eisaku actively participated by being an attentive observer and respondent by repeating previous teacher utterances and taking turns in L1. He successfully used verbal and nonverbal resources to obtain the teacher's attention and claim knowledge, however, failed to make an appropriate language choice, presumably due to his lack of L2 competence. Twenty-one months later, his engagement seemed restricted to the response sequence initiated by the teacher; nevertheless, he displayed his L2 interactional competence by anticipating and producing the expected response in L2 when prompted. Twenty-eight months later, Eisaku's methods for engaging in the routine changed to meet his own learning needs as displayed in his private speech, while pursuing the activity at hand. This showed further development of his L2 competence to resourcefully participate and expand his involvement in the activity to generate learning opportunities. In the final extract, Eisaku spontaneously initiated a turn by self-repairing his L1 into L2 and thus demonstrated his ability to make appropriate language choice as a competent member. Furthermore, he skillfully performed a sequence to go beyond the assigned role of being a student by *doing being a teacher* through making corrections to his classmate's misspelling on the whiteboard and accounting for his action in L2.

As a result of his increase in abilities, Eisaku became a competent member by offering knowledge and contributing to his peer's learning outside of the teacher's interactional agenda. Diversifying methods to engage in the interactional routine as described above, shows the learner's increased competence as an L2 user in the classroom.

These findings resonate with previous research on interactional routines in the foreign language classroom. First, this study provides further evidence for the significant role of interactional routine as a mechanism for foreign language learning among young children (Kanagy, 1999). The accumulation of a shared interactional history and repertoire in the recurrent sequence helped students to develop their interactional competence and allowed them to engage in the activity appropriately and spontaneously in the later stages. Second, the sequential analysis revealed the nature of interactional routine as a local achievement in each phase (Schegloff, 1986). The participation structure is not always fixed but is flexibly negotiated by both parties showing their understanding and agency by taking the initiative to co-construct the activity. Third, the close analysis of interaction added further understanding to the important use of verbal and nonverbal actions as interactional resources, which the teacher and the students frequently employ in order to participate (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2004) in the interactional routine.

Furthermore, the study contributes to our understanding of how L2 interactional competence develops over time. When engaging in classroom interactions, novice learners rely immensely on the teacher's verbal and nonverbal support to interpret and take part in the on-going activity. Moreover, L2 interactional competence developed under the recurrent framework and shared repertoire of the classroom that developed over time but created opportunities for learners to engage differently in each interaction. The diversification of methods in how the

learner engaged in the interactional routine emerged under the learner's careful observation and projection of the on-going interaction, as well as shared understanding of what is appropriate and relevant in that particular classroom culture. Thus, the ability to foreshadow upcoming actions through projections is one of the central components of interactional competence (Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2011) that was observed in this study.

What we see from the data and the findings is the active involvement of a young learner using his L2 to engage in routine activities. These findings might provide useful insights into similar classroom contexts, such as EFL classrooms or an immersion program for young or beginning learners. Mori (2007) suggests that classroom CA's pedagogical implication for foreign language pedagogy is to "raise teachers' awareness and reflect on classroom interaction" (p. 858). Thus, by observing teachers' actual classroom practices and following the shared repertoire being expanded, the data provides further understandings of how classroom interactional routines are achieved and developed over time based on previously shared interactional histories among participants. Therefore, the use of interactional routines and continued use of shared repertoires even in once a week lessons is found to be useful for supporting L2 development which leads to an increase of participation as well as diversification of interactional methods for young learners.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Increasing Participation in News-telling Post-expansion Sequences**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter will explore the development of L2 interactional competence through closely observing an EFL learner's ways of participation in a recurrent conversational practice over a period of time. The analysis focuses on a specific interactional sequence, post-expansion sequences (Schegloff, 2007), and specifically post-expansions that occur after a news-telling, which is recurrently produced and co-constructed by the teacher and a group of students. The chapter aims to uncover the process of how a young L2 learner displays his verbal and nonverbal methods to engage in this interactional activity differently over time. The analysis will focus on the shifts of participation frameworks as well as methods of participation and self-selected turns in order to explicate the member's practices to accomplish multi-party classroom interaction.<sup>6</sup>

#### **5.2 Literature Review**

##### **5.2.1 Participation and Participation Framework**

Participating in a multi-party teacher-fronted classroom interaction is a complicated social activity where all interactants are required to constantly monitor verbal and nonverbal behaviors, such as posture, gaze, and gestures, as well as coordinate their own. Goodwin (2000)

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<sup>6</sup> A version of this chapter also appeared as Watanabe (2017).

refers to participation as “actions demonstrating forms of involvement performed by parties within evolving structures of talk” (p. 177). In a classroom, parties mainly consist of the teacher and multiple students, and there are constant changes in their participation roles, such as being a speaker, hearer, or bystanders (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2004). The teacher’s concern is not only to manage the speaker shifts but also making the on-going interaction relevant and meaningful for the bystanders (Schwab, 2011). Participation structure can shift from teacher-led dyadic talk to whole-class interaction which consists of interaction between the teacher and “a collectively established participant” (Solem, 2016: p. 2). Participation roles and structures change on a moment-by-moment basis and “the combined participation status of all participants in a gathering at a particular moment constitutes a participation framework” (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2004: p. 223). Analyzing the interaction in terms of participation roles and structure shifts will enable us to observe students as active participants involved in the process of co-constructing the context. Thus, in the following analysis, I would like to focus on the dynamic shifts and changes the participants bring in to build the participation framework.

### **5.2.2 Post-expansion Sequence**

Conversations are often structured around utterances that are dependent on each other. The basic minimal two-turn form that constitutes a sequence is called an adjacency pair (Schegloff, 2007). Adjacency pairs can be formulaic such as greetings (“hi”-“hi”) and ‘how are you’ sequences, or non-formulaic such as ‘question-answer’, ‘request-response’ and ‘invitation-acceptance/rejection’. Adjacency pairs are initiated by one speaker through producing the first pair part and another speaker responding with the second pair part. Thus, speaker shifts are expected to occur and the absence of second pair part will be noticed and seen as a cause of

‘trouble’ in interaction. This minimal two-turn form of sequence can be expanded before the base pair occurs (pre-expansion sequences), during it occurs (insert-expansion sequences) and after it occurs (post-expansion sequences). In this study, we will specifically be focusing on post-expansion sequences.

Schegloff (2007) identifies two types of post-expansions: minimal and non-minimal. Minimal post-expansions are also known as sequence-closing thirds (SCT) and they are designed to close the sequence and positioned after the second pair part. It terminates the talk by not projecting any further talk and common forms are *Oh*, *Okay*, and assessments, or combinations of these three. Non-minimal post-expansions are essentially different from the previous one because it projects a further talk rather than terminating it. They are stretch of talk that occur after a second pair part of an adjacency pair, and are carried out, for instance, by the speaker of the first pair part initiating a repair due to a trouble in the second turn, or through topicalizing what has been responded in the second pair part, or rejecting/challenging/disagreeing with the second pair part. In this study, the type of post-expansion sequences we will be closely observing are non-minimal post-expansions that was prompted by a news-telling. News-telling sequences are sequences that occur when the speaker reports on something that recipients are not familiar with or have no knowledge of. Thus, often reacted with a news receipt ‘*oh*’ that could close the sequence, or surprise tokens like ‘*really*’, ‘*wow*’ or questions which can prompt further talk. In this study, we will be closely observing the post-expansion sequences that occurred after the news-telling sequence.

Commonly glossed as follow-up talk, post-expansion sequences<sup>7</sup> require participants to pay close attention to the answer provided as the second pair part, e.g., question, and are occasioned by prior turns, and thus serve as a rich locus for displaying learners' attentiveness and understanding of the on-going interaction, as well as for observing the employment of interactional competence in terms of lexical choice, grammatical formatting, sequential timing, and sequence positioning accomplished both verbally and nonverbally. Thus, the present study will focus on one particular learner and the ways he co-participates in the production of post-expansion sequences over time.

### 5.3 Data Analysis

In this section, I will adopt a longitudinal CA approach to track how a particular learner, Eisaku, engages in post-expansion sequences prompted by the teacher through analyzing five successive comparable interactional episodes that recurrently take place in this classroom over the period of a year. Pekarek Doehler (2010) points out that learning a language “involves the routinization of patterns of language-use-for-action through repeated participation in social activities” (p. 106). By tracking the routinized practices across episodes, this study aims to bring to light the L2 user's *diversification of methods* for interaction and *increased capacity* to monitor and use linguistic resources over time (Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2016). In doing so, the study aims to

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<sup>7</sup> Although in this study the primary focus is on post-expansions as question-answer sequences, this is not always the case. Sequences need not be accomplished via questions, for example, when a greeting occasions a second greeting or a compliment is met with either an acceptance or a rejection. Moreover, sequences (including post-expansion sequences) frequently use the question-answer format to achieve other pragmatic actions such as invitations, requests or offers.



provide an example case of the evolution of language use and language learning observed through Eisaku's evolving engagement in the post-expansion sequences.

### 5.3.1. The Recurrent Post-expansion Sequence

At the beginning of each weekly lesson, the teacher routinely initiated the question, *what did you do over the weekend?*, and every student was required to answer by reporting on their activities to the whole class. The first excerpt offers a typical example of a dyadic interaction of this recurrent practice in the first half of the excerpt (lines 1-25). After that, a post-expansion sequence is prompted by the teacher with the floor being opened to the whole class. This type of post-expansion sequence was repeatedly observed after the teacher-initiated routine question answered by a student involved a report or news-telling of some type of sports competition or game. Transcription of the audio-visual data is based on the transcription conventions developed by Gail Jefferson (see Appendix 1 for details).

The segment starts right after Kenta reported his weekend activity and the speaker shift occurs as a student sitting next to him, Takuya, was nominated as the next speaker to provide an answer to the routine question.

### Extract 1.1 Soccer game

1       T:           |you finished English homework before the weekend.  
2                   |((shakes Ke's hand, Ta is holding Ke's shoulder))  
3       T:           Yes takuya what did you |do? (.) what did you do.  
4       Ta:   |((raise his RH))  
5                   (1.0)  
      ((Lines 6-13 Insertion-sequence omitted.))  
14      Ta:           on sataday  
15      T:           on Saturday,  
16      Ta:           I went to: practice soccer  
17                   (0.5)

18 T: oh you went to practice, >↑soccer practice.<  
19 (0.4)  
20 T: you went to ↑soccer practice,  
21 very ↓good. and?  
22 (0.7)  
23 T: yesterday,  
24 Ta: yesterday, (1.7) <I: play,>  
25 T: you ↑playeded?  
26 Ta: soccer ga(h)me.  
27 T: you played soccer games,

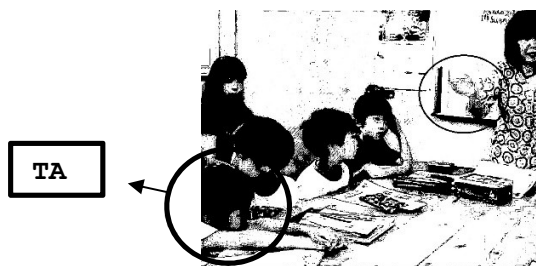
The speaker shift occurred through a nomination sequence (Kääntä, 2012) where next turn nomination was triggered by Takuya's "embodied displays of availability" to respond (Lauzon & Berger, 2015: p. 27), i.e., holding the previous speaker's shoulder (line 2) and raising his right hand (line 4). The turn was allocated as the teacher gazed at Takuya and recognizes his availability as a respondent and calls his name to specifically nominate him as the next speaker (line 3).

The story-telling episode begins by Takuya (Ta) marking the time locator in line 14. The teacher (T) repeats Ta's utterance with a rather loud emphasis on the first syllable of "Saturday" and Ta continues his reporting in line 16 formulating it in a past tense. After a 0.5-sec gap of silence that suggests Ta is not going to provide any further information, T receives this as a news receipt with the change of state token "oh" (Heritage, 1984) and repeats Ta's utterance stressing "soccer practice." After adding a positive assessment in line 21, T encourages Ta to provide further information with the conjunction "and", delivered with a rising intonation. When Ta does not immediately continue, T adds the prompt word "yesterday," which is hearable as the first

word in the sort of response T is expecting from Ta, and in this context indicates Sunday.<sup>8</sup> This encouragement prompts Ta to repeat T's utterance and after a rather long gap of silence, he continues the next phrase and completes the sentence with a slight laughter token inserted in the middle of the word *ga(h)me*. T repeats Ta's utterance by reformulating his answer using the correct tense and stressing the past tense morpheme, *↑played?*; however, this receives no uptake from Ta so T then reformulates Ta's answer in a full sentence in the next turn.

### Extract 1.2 (continued)

27 T: you played soccer games,  
28 → |everybody let's ask,  
|((gaze shift + inviting hand gesture))




29 one two three,=  
30 Ta: = >lost<  
31 T: → [you: (.) won or [lost,  
32 |((thumbs up)) |((thumbs down))  
33 |((Gazing at Ta))



34 Ss: [you won or [lost,  
35 |((Ko, D, Ke, E, Sh and R imitate the gesture))  
36 Ta: [>lost<]=

<sup>8</sup> The lesson is held every Monday.

37 E: → [ your ] [lost.  
 38 T: =[lost?  
 39 (1.2)  
 40 T: ((hand gesture and sad face with unvoiced "too bad"))



41 Ss: ↑too ↓ba:::d.  
 42 T: ↑too ↓bad. |good luck next time. too bad, ya,=  
 43 |((thumb up))  
 44 Ta: =and,  
 45 T: and, more.

After rephrasing Takuya's answer in a grammatically correct sentence, T opens the turn to the whole class by shifting her gaze from Ta along with an inviting open-palm hand gesture accompanied with the verbal invitation *everybody let's ask*, (line 28). Here, it is important to note that T manages a shift in participation structure from dyadic to multi-party interaction by combining verbal and nonverbal actions. In classroom talk, it is often the case that the teacher has the authority to nominate the next speaker or choose to keep talking (Kääntä, 2012). By shifting her eye gaze from the previously assigned individual student to the whole class, T quickly establishes a clear change in speaker roles from overhearing audience or bystanders to ratified speakers. Through the combined hand gesture and verbal invitation, joint production of the question and answer sequence is accomplished and carried out with the teacher prompting the reminder of the students to ask a follow-up question and timing the choral production (line 29).

The joint production of the post-expansion sequence, which consists of a question and an answer, is performed by simplified question with iconic hand gestures of 'thumbs up' and 'thumbs down' (line 32). Her gaze then shifts back to Ta which silently indicates the nomination

of who is responsible for answering the question. However, before the whole class even asks the question as prompted by T, Ta already provides an answer to an unasked question without a gap. Here, this quick answer to an unasked question displays the routineness of this question<sup>9</sup> as well as Ta's ability to foresee the post-expansion sequence and display his capability to orient to the task by performing the expected role of an answerer (even before being gaze-selected). Despite the fact that the unasked question has already been answered, T and the rest of the class chorally produce the question using both verbal and nonverbal resources (lines 31-35).

The formulation of the question: *you won or lost* is also noteworthy. Compared to asking the question in another way, e.g., *Did you win or lose?, you won or lost?* is a grammatically simplified way of formulating an interrogative which caters to the students' linguistic abilities at this state. As we observed from the dyadic talk between T and Ta earlier, it may be fair to assume that these particular students might be aware of the concept of past tense verbs, however, they are not yet completely capable of using tense appropriately in talk (lines 16, 24). Thus, if the interrogative sentence were to be formulated using "did + present tense" form, the grammatically appropriate way to answer this question would be to change the present tense verb *win* to past tense *won*. Formulating the question with a rising intonation using a simplified question format therefore, makes it easier for students to answer the question by using the verb as it is.

In line 36, Ta provides the second pair part once again using the past tense, *lost*, very quickly as he did earlier in line 30. However, overlapped with Takuya's response, Eisaku (E) utters *your lost* even though he was not nominated as the next speaker. Here, E's self-selected turn is a form of learner initiative (Waring, 2011), providing an answer to the question based on

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<sup>9</sup> Note that this is their second year attending this after-school program.

Ta's answer in line 30 on behalf of Ta. However, this initiative was sequentially inappropriate in the sense that it was an overlap and was a turn assigned for Takuya to answer. Eisaku's turn was not acknowledged by the teacher. Instead, right after Takuya produces the answer, she quickly repeats the answer (line 38) overlapping it with E's utterance.

During the rather long gap of silence, T uses a hand gesture and facial expression along with an unvoiced "too bad," which she lip synchs in a way that appears to be designed for the rest of students to see. After they watch T's gesture, facial expression, and lip movement, the students produce a choral version of the prompted phrase *too ba:::d* (line 41) which is hearable as an assessment receipt of Ta reported game result. T's repetition and the similar way she produces the phrase indicates that the students' choral production was acceptable. T wraps up the post-expansion sequence by wishing Ta good luck for the next game and repeats the response once again. In other words, T has modeled the sort of follow-up talk that normatively occurs in this particular slot and prompted the students to use that talk in a way that is purportedly aimed at Ta, but is in fact mediated via the teacher herself. A standard post-expansion to a news-telling could be schematized as shown in Figure 1.

*Base sequence*

Turn 1 Speaker A: Sequence-initiating action (requesting news)

Turn 2 Speaker B: Sequence-responding action (a news-telling)

(Turn 3) Speaker A: Optional sequence-closing action (a receipt of the news)

*Post-expansion sequence*

Turn 4<sub>P</sub> Speaker A: Sequence-initiating action<sub>1</sub> (requesting further information)

Turn 5<sub>P</sub> Speaker B: Sequence-responding action (specifying details)

(Turn 6<sub>P</sub>)      Speaker A:    Optional sequence-closing action (a receipt)

*Figure 1: A post-expansion sequence*

In its most basic form, talk happens between two people (dyadic interaction), and follow-up sequences are initiated by the recipient of a news-telling, such as by requesting further details. However, the talk that we have examined is more complex because it involves a side-sequence prior the post-expansion in which, as we have noted, the teacher prompts the students to initiate the follow-up talk, as outlined in Figure 2 below.

*Base sequence*

Turn 1<sub>B</sub>      Speaker A:    Sequence-initiating action (requesting news)

Turn 2<sub>B</sub>      Speaker B:    Sequence-responding action (a news-telling)

(Turn 3<sub>B</sub>)      Speaker A:    Optional sequence-closing action (a receipt of the news)

*Side sequence*

Turn 4<sub>S</sub>      Speaker A:    Invites C to initiate post-expansion

Turn 5<sub>S</sub>      Speaker C:    Optional sequence-responding action (acknowledgement)

*Post-expansion sequence*

Turn 6<sub>P</sub>      Speaker A&C:    Sequence-initiating action (co-requesting further information)

Turn 7<sub>P</sub>      Speaker B:    Sequence-responding action (specifying details)

(Turn 10<sub>P</sub>) Speaker A&C:    Optional sequence-closing action (receipt)

*Figure 2: A post-expansion prompted by an intermediary*

The main difference between Figures 1 and 2 then is that the latter involves a side sequence in which A selects C (where C represents a party of participants rather than a single speaker) to initiate the follow-up inquiry, which is then performed chorally. The side-sequence therefore is accomplished via a shift in the participant constellation in which the questioner and primary addressee momentarily change in order to animate a set of participants who were up until that point in the participant role of ratified overhearers. Inviting them to co-initiate the post-expansion sequence becomes a means of actively involving them in the talk: rather than merely modeling follow-up talk, the teacher uses a suite of verbal and non-verbal prompts to have the students do the routinized post-expansion with her.

Producing an appropriate reaction to close the post-expansion sequence is something that is made learnable in this classroom. In ordinary interaction, it is often appropriate to ask a follow-up question when a sports game or competition becomes the topic of the talk. After the question is answered, one normative direction for the talk is to respond and react to the answer by giving assessments. The appropriate reaction to the answer for the follow-up question depends on the answer. Therefore, students participating in this sequence need to be attentive to their classmate's answer as well as the teacher's nonverbal guidance in order to successfully participate in this sequence.

In summary, this segment has shown how the teacher prompted the post-expansion sequence by shifting the participation framework using verbal and nonverbal cues. By doing this, the teacher is making the post-expansion sequence production a teachable moment for all students to participate in. The use of symbolic hand gestures and facial expressions are effective interactional resources used by the teacher to guide the students to initiate the sequence. Although Takuya is the most active learner at this point in the lesson, the focal student, Eisaku,



in this excerpt is attentive to the on-going interaction demonstrating his attentiveness by producing a self-selected turn and joining the choral production in the whole-class interaction.

### 5.3.2 Interactionally Inapposite Self-selected Turns

Excerpt 2 is taken from a lesson, two weeks after the previous excerpt. The teacher opens the class with the routine news-telling initiation, *what did you do last week?* Kota (Ko) indicates his availability by raising his hand and T nominates him by acknowledging the hand raise with “yes” and specifying the intended addressee via gaze and pointing. Ko begins to produce the required second pair part, a response to the question, a full sentence formulated in past tense. The dyadic interaction continues from lines 5 to 19 with the teacher initiating follow-up questions to specify the time frame of the activity. Ko responds to the teacher-initiated questions by following the teacher’s lead. In line 16, T summarizes the information provided by Ko and initiates another question to specify the activity he engaged in and receives an immediate response.

#### Extract 2.1 Karate tournament

- 1 T: something very special, what did you do last week?  
2 Ko: ((raising his hand))  
3 T: yes ((gazes and points at Ko))  
4 Ko: °i went to yamanashi°  
5 T: you >wen to< yamaNashi (.)↑when? (.) when?  
((Lines 6-15 follow-up question and answer sequence omitted.))  
16 T: ah saturday and yesterday (.) over the weekend,  
17 wow what did you do? =  
18 Ko: =karate tournament.  
19 T: oh you went to (.) karate tournament, that’s right,  
20 °so° ((starts thumbs up gesture))



21 E: → you win, you win.  
 22 T: oh okay |>everybody< you |won or [|lost  
 23 |((inviting hand)) |(thumbs up [|((down))  
 24 E: → eh [won, won,  
 25 won, won. won da yo. [won, won.  
 CO IP  
 26 T: [|you >won or lost<  
 27 |((gazes at Ko with gesture))  
 28 E: *mou kiichatta*  
 already hear-complete-PST  
 I already heard.

In line 18 Ko provides an answer immediately after a teacher-initiated question, the third turn is composed of a news receipt, “oh”, and a reformulation followed by the epistemic claim, *that’s right*, which indexes prior knowledge to the information (Heritage, 1984). As she produces this claim in line 20, T starts to initiate a follow-up sequence verbally (via the word “so”, which projects further related talk) and nonverbally (via the ‘thumbs-up’ hand gesture). Without being nominated by the teacher, Eisaku then selects himself as the next speaker to join the dyadic interaction with the repeated phrase, *you win, you win*. This self-selection seems rather abrupt and is not formulated as a question, but rather as a statement due to its falling intonation. In the next turn, T gazes at E who is sitting across from her (see Appendix 1 for seating arrangements) and responds to the self-selected turn, by noticing it with *oh* and accepting it with *okay*, which is a minimal post-expansion (Schegloff, 2007). Rather than sanctioning E’s sudden interruption, T accepts it and opens up the floor to the whole class by shifting the participation structure using her gesture, gaze, and posture. She uses the same question formulation as in the previous excerpt along with the iconic gestures.

In overlap with T’s question, E again self-selects to assert his knowledge by multiple repetition of the word *won* and by code-switching to Japanese, *won dayo*. This code-switching is

noteworthy. Hayano (2011) argues that *yo*-marked assessments are often claims for ‘epistemic primacy’ (Raymond & Heritage, 2006), and here, the series of answer repetitions as well as the turn-final code-switching, *won dayo*, show Eisaku indicating that he had access to the information prior to the lesson, thus making him eligible to answer this question on behalf of the nominated speaker. The timing of his self-selection, reveals Eisaku is not following the teacher’s initiation but choosing his own timing to take the turn. There is no uptake from the teacher and she continues to repeat the same question and gazes at Ko, which is a clear indication of who her intended recipient of the question is (line 26, 27). However, she receives no answer from Ko. In the next turn, E again uses L1 to provide an account for his epistemic primacy by claiming prior access to the information, saying *I already heard* in an audible manner. This account matches the knowledge claim he made earlier in line 25 using the particle *yo*.

### Extract 2.2 (continued)

29 T: |I /((microphone gesture to Ko))



30 (2.0)

31 E: → wu::↑wa::n.

32 (3.7)

33 T: Kota you can say, I won, ((thumbs up))

34 (1.7) /((Kota looks at mom))

35 Ko: in japanese?

36 T: yes,

37 Ko: *san'i*=  
third prize

38 T: =right so, I |won (.) third.

39 |((thumbs up & microphone gesture to Ko

40 Ko: I w-  
 41 T: I won,  
 42 Ko: I won  
 43 T: |third  
 44 |((microphone gesture and gaze to Ko))  
 45 Ko: °third°  
 46 T: wow everybody, congratulate him,= ((gaze toward class))  
 47 E: → [=congratulation::n/((clapping))  
 48 T: [he won third,  
 49 one two three, [congratulation/((clapping))  
 50 Ss: [congratulation/((clapping))

T then pursues Ko's response in a more obvious manner by using a microphone gesture to specifically select the next speaker and modeling the answer by uttering the subject of the sentence to prompt him to complete the sentence. Also known as a *designedly incomplete utterance* or DIU (Koshik, 2002), this practice is often used as a pedagogical and interactional resource to elicit knowledge displays from a recipient. However, T still fails to obtain an answer from Ko as evidenced by the 2.0 second gap in line 30. Instead, Eisaku again self-selects for the third time and provides an answer on behalf of Ko produced with a combination of elongation and upward pitch. The teacher again does not respond to this turn and another long silence follows, while the teacher continues to gaze at Ko.

After the rather long gap of silence in line 32, T calls Ko by name and goes on to model the full answer with a gesture by explicitly explaining what should be done. Kota turns back to his mother who is sitting behind him. This choice of shift in posture and refusal to fulfill the role of answerer indicates that there might be some kind of trouble or a reason why Ko is unable to provide the expected action right away. Kota initiates an insertion sequence by asking for a permission to use his L1, saying *in japanese?* with upward intonation and receives approval right

away (line 36). He then says “third place” in L1, indicating that he recognizes “won” as problematic, and this leads the teacher to revise the target phrase Ko was trying to produce (line 37) and also serves as an evidence to account for Kota’s delayed uptake in the previous turns. The insertion sequence shows that it was not that Kota did not know the word *won*, but that he chose not to say it because it did not reflect the reality of his knowledge.

In line 38, the teacher receipts the L1 and rephrases it in L2. She has Kota repeat the target phrase in L2 by guiding him (lines 42, 45) in order to provide practice for Kota as well as give the rest of the class a chance to hear the phrase twice and therefore extend the learning opportunity to the other students. As Solem (2016) points out, what is being discussed in class, whether dyadic or triadic, is always topically relevant for everyone present in the room. Teachers orient to the other students as ‘an overhearing audience’ and are always conscious of having the whole class involved in the on-going interaction. The participation framework shifts as the teacher gives positive acknowledgement and prompts the rest of the class to make assessments based on Kota’s result of the *Karate tournament*. Immediately latched to the teacher’s prompt, E utters the reaction on his own along while clapping his hands. Without acknowledging this, T repeats Ko’s result once again and gives a 3-count which prompts the others to chorally produce the verbal and nonverbal assessment.

On one hand, in this excerpt Eisaku displays his ability to distinguish between grammatical resources, such as present tense (line 21) and past tense (line 24) of the word *win* and use them in a sequentially appropriate way. He is also able to make verbal assessments based on the result of the answer, by congratulating his classmate. However, E also displays sequentially inappropriate ways of participating in the post-expansion sequence by self-selecting during transition spaces designated for another student, and by responding to questions assigned

for others. In addition, we see other evidence of sanctionable actions, including code-switching to L1 without asking for permission, overlapping with the teacher's talk, and interrupting the sequence. Since she has the "institutional right to decide when the student's knowledge displays are sequentially or topically relevant" (Solem, 2016: p. 9), the teacher does not approve Eisaku's knowledge displays as relevant to the ongoing talk, and thus ignores them. In this sequence, Eisaku's participation can be described as being disruptive and the teacher's non-acknowledgements provide him with subtle clues to their inappropriate nature.

### 5.3.3 Introduction of a New Word: Self-directed Embodied Speech

The next segment comes from data taken about a year after the previous excerpts. As noted earlier, even though it involves the same routine inquiry, the turn allocation is managed differently. Instead of the teacher initiating the routine question, she prompts Eisaku, who had given his weekend report prior to this segment, by gazing at him and making a request verbally and nonverbally (line 2).

#### Extract 3 Brother's basketball game

1        T:        good, so you had a goo:d weekend. >very good<  
2                can you ask Kota, /((gazes at E and points to Ko))  
3        E:        ah:::  
4        T:        °what did you°  
5        E:        what did you over the weekend, /((gazing at Ko))  
6        T:        uh-huh  
7                (1.0)  
8        Ko:        sunday,=  
9        T:        =yesterday,  
10       Ko:       yesterday,  
11       T:        uh-huh  
12                (1.5)  
13       Ko:        brother's, (2.0) in japanese, /((gazes at T))

14 T: uh-huh  
 ((Lines 15-33 Insertion-sequence omitted.))  
 34 Ko: brother's basketball game.  
 35 T: oh, so, after the test, Kazuki played  
 36 basketball (0.5) game, his team, >everybody,<  
 37 his team [won or lost /((thumbs up and down))  
 38 SS: [won or lost  
 39 E: → or lost /((thumbs down))  
 40 T: or |drew  
 41 |((pulls fists apart))



42 E: → |°or drew°  
 43 |((pulls fists apart))



44 (3.0)  
 45 T: his team?  
 46 Ko: his team, /((looks at his mother))  
 47 T: (.) won?  
 48 Ko: ((thumbs down gesture))  
 49 T: lost? |lost everybody,  
 50 |((thumbs down))  
 51 too /((thumbs down))  
 52 Ss: too [bad

Eisaku's utterance in line 3 shows delay in providing an acceptance or rejection for the requested action with elongated utterance. After this hearable delay, T quietly models the first half of the requested question which is taken up by E (line 5) and accepted by T. In response to the routine question posed by E, Ko (who was nominated as the next speaker by T in line 2)

begins to report his weekend activities (lines 8-34). T summarizes Ko's report in a full sentence, *oh, so, after the test, Kazuki played basketball (0.5) game*, and shifts the participation framework to include the whole class and expands the sequence by verbally prompting everyone to ask a follow-up question by collectively selecting them with the preterm "everybody". After T provides the subject of the question, the students chorally produce *won or lost*. E also utters *or lost* with the symbolic hand gesture after the choral version of the question.

The teacher then introduces a new word, along with a hand gesture in which she pulls her fists apart (line 41). E gazes at T and repeats the word quietly (although he has not been nominated as a next speaker) and also imitates T's symbolic hand gesture (lines 42-43). Kohler and Thorne (2011) note that "(s)elf-directed talk and its social functions are part of the resources that language learners use to establish and maintain intersubjectivity, display and ascribe current foci of attention, and to organize their individual and collective actions in mutually recognizable ways" (p. 88). E's self-directed embodied talk does not get taken up in this sequence but indicates his attentiveness to noticing this word and the gesture that accompanies it. After this, the expanded sequence is closed when Ko answers the question nonverbally (line 48) and after the teacher's prompt, the whole class reacts to it.

In summary, this excerpt shows the evolving nature of the initiation of routine question managed by the teacher as well as how a new lexical item is introduced and taken up by the focal learner. The embodiment of the word *drew* designed to be seen in relation to two other gestures, *thumbs up* and *thumbs down*. E treats this word as something learnable by repeating it verbally and nonverbally and thus, E shows a strong orientation toward the introduction of this word as developmentally significant. Furthermore, the way Eisaku's self-selected turns are produced is quite different compared to those in the previous excerpt. The turns were not disruptive in the



sense that they were not produced in a sequentially inapposite positions or manners but rather quietly in a self-directed manner. In the next segment, we will see how Eisaku utilizes the word *drew* in his own way.

### 5.3.4 Experimenting with the Word: Drew

We now move on to data from a week after that in Excerpt 3, where the word *drew* was introduced. Excerpt 4 is a post-expansion sequence not produced chorally but by the teacher during Eisaku's news-telling. In this segment, Eisaku reports on his weekend activity of playing tennis with his family on Sunday. After that, the teacher initiates a follow-up question, '*Who is the best tennis player in your family?*'

#### Extract 4 Me drew?

- 1 T: who is the |best tennis player in your family?  
2 | ((thumbs up))  
3 E: hm: father.  
4 T: your father=  
5 E: =father best.  
6 T: who is the |second best  
7 | ((thumbs up))  
8 (1.5)  
9 ((laughter from other students and T))  
10 E: big, karo-, |kaoru and (0.7) ah (0.5)  
11 | ((starts to bring up his hands))  
12 → me, |drew? drew?=  
13 → | ((pulls fists apart))



- 14 T: =|ka- ka- kaoru and mom, (.) about [the same

15 | ((uses fists as kaoru and mom)) | ((waves hands))  
 16 E: |ah no  
 17 (0.3)  
 18 T: |kaoru and you=  
 19 | ((uses one fist to show kaoru and another as E))  
 20 E: =yes / ((nods))  
 21 T: |about the same  
 22 | ((waves hands))



23 E: un / ((nods))  
 24 T: oh (.) how about |mom?

The teacher's follow-up question is accompanied with the *thumbs up* gesture recurrently used in this particular classroom. In the next turn, Eisaku, who is entitled to answer this question, provides an answer with a turn-initial delay *hm:* and an answer *father*. T repeats his response and without a gap Eisaku reformulates it with falling intonation, saying *father best*. The teacher continues to ask a second follow-up question, *who is the second best*, accompanied with the same gesture. During the noticeably long gap of silence, other students display their attentiveness to this dyadic interaction by joining in with laughter in line 9. E provides an answer composed of cut-offs and intra-turn pauses which indicates hesitation in his response; however, in the next turn he produces an answer, *kaoru and (0.7) ah (0.5) me, drew? drew?*, with an embodied gesture (*pulls fists apart*) and upward intonation to indicate that it is a question. In the next line, T recycles the gesture and restates E's answer reformulating the word *drew* to *about the same*. E negates this restatement and T reformulates the statement by changing the subject from *mom* to *you*, leading E to acknowledge and agree with this change.

In sum, this excerpt took place a week after the previous excerpt when the word *drew* was introduced with the symbolic gesture, *pulling fists* or *hands apart*. When asked to rank his family members' ability to play tennis, Eisaku took the chance to use the word with the gesture to express the similar level of ability between him and his brother. The lexical choice and the embodiment are worth noting. The use of the word, *drew*, which E treated as learnable in the lesson a week before, is utilized to answer a follow-up question that was directed to him, and was something unpredictable, compared to the *you won or lost* sequences. Eisaku manages to respond to an individualized post-expansion sequence by experimenting with how to use the word to indicate that the level of tennis skills he and his brother possess is about the same. The way he uses this word is distinctive in the sense that it is a different use of the word compared to when it was introduced. Thus, this can be seen as evidence of learner autonomy in action in that E actively uses the new word to manage a question in a different context.

### 5.3.5 Contributing to the Post-expansion Sequence

The next segment comes from a lesson a week after Excerpt 4 (and therefore two weeks after Excerpt 3) and likewise involves the routine classroom activity of telling news. After the nomination sequence, Kota begins to report on his weekend activities.

#### Extract 5.1 Brother's basketball game 2

1        T:        so kenta went shopping, and he bought a ball  
2                    at bell |shopping mall, okay?  
3        Ko:                    | ((Ko gazes at T and raises his hand up))  
4        T:        oh, |Kota, what did you do?  
5                    | ((gazes at Ko and points at him))  
6        Ko:        sunday,  
7                    (0.5)

8 T: yesterday,  
9 (0.7)  
10 T: yesterday? un  
11 (1.5)  
12 Ko: brother's basket-  
13 T: I went to see,  
14 Ko: I went to see, brother's basketball ga[me  
15 T: [game,  
16 T: → OH, (.) did his team |win? or |lose?  
17 |((thumbs up)) |((thumbs down))  
18 E: |((thumbs down))  
19 (1.0)  
20 E: → |or drew  
21 |((stretches hands with thumbs facing each other ))



22 T: → → or |drew, yes thank you=  
23 |((pulls fists apart))



Kota responds to the routine question *what did you do?* by indicating when (line 6) and what he did (lines 12-13). The teacher receipts this news-telling with a loud *OH*, which indicates a news receipt, and then initiates a post-expansion by asking a follow-up question in line 16, *did his team win? or lose?* accompanied by the hand gesture. Note that the question formulation is very different compared to the previous ones, e.g., *you won or lost?* (Excerpts 1-3). The answer

should be formulated in present tense, which requires the respondent to use grammatical knowledge rather than automatically replying by repeating the verb as it is.

As the teacher poses the question, Eisaku joins T in producing the gesture (line 18) and after a 1.0 second silence at a transition relevant place, he formulates an increment to the turn to add a third option *or drew* along with the nonverbal action. T then repeats E's additional option with the gesture and thanks E for the contribution. This provides evidence to suggest that E has acquired the expanded version of the routine follow-up question and is able to use it in a relevant slot.

### Extract 5.2 (continued)

24 Ko: = >°they win°< ((thumbs up))  
25 T: |won.  
26 |((thumbs up))  
27 E: ((ready to clap his hands))  
28 T: |his team won.  
29 |((microphone gesture to Ko))  
30 (1.5)  
31 T: his team won. ((microphone towards Ko))  
32 Ko: °his team won°  
33 T: won. |(. )  
34 |((thumbs up))  
35 E: |congratuleit[ion ((gazing at T))  
36 |((clapping his hands))



37 T: [congratulation,  
38 >everybody,< ((gazing at everyone))  
39 |congratulations

40                    | ((clapping))  
 41    SS:            | ((clapping))  
 42    T:            very good. so >kota<, were you happy?

Kota provides a present-tense response to the question, along with a gesture, but the teacher reformulates his answer to the past-tense *won*. Hearing Kota's response, Eisaku has his hand ready to clap; however, T is making this a learnable moment for Kota and the other students by having him repeat the answer in full sentence using the past tense *his team won* with a microphone gesture to indicate a repetition (also used in Excerpt 2). After a 1.5 gap of silence which she does not receive any repetition, T insists on Ko repeating the sentence again, using the microphone gesture to elicit repetition from Ko. Ko finally repeats the sentence in a rather quiet voice and T repeats the past-tense verb once again.

Attentively observing the dyadic interaction between T and Ko, Eisaku self-selects to react to the answer both verbally and nonverbally (lines 35-36). Although E is congratulating Ko's brother for winning the basketball game, E is gazing at T the whole time. In the middle of E's congratulatory turn, T also utters congratulation and thus opens the floor to the whole class by shifting the participation framework with her gaze and verbal elicitation, *everybody* (line 38). In the next turn, the whole class applauds to jointly construct as reaction to the answer of the post-expansion. T closes this sequence with a positive assessment and moves on to ask another question to Kota.

In summary, in this segment, Eisaku's self-selected turns were treated as a relevant contribution to the post-expansion sequence by the teacher acknowledging them as such. The timing of sequential positioning of Eisaku's production of self-selected turns was appropriate, with no overlaps and produced at a transition relevant place (after a gap indicating possible

speaker change). Moreover, he projects the appropriate actions that should be followed after Ko provides his answer, but holds his action (line 27) by closely monitoring the sequential development of the on-going interaction. Compared to the previous excerpts, Eisaku shows maturity and sophistication in the management of self-selected turns and displays his L2 interactional competence through his increased capacity to monitor details of prior turns and the course of action that follows (Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2016).

## **5.4 Conclusion**

This study has demonstrated how a young novice EFL learner participated in multi-party teacher-fronted classroom interaction during his second and third year of attending an after-school English program in Japan. The focal student's methods of participation were tracked and his interactional practices at different time periods were analyzed and compared. By focusing on how he engaged in the post-expansions of news-telling sequences in teacher-fronted classroom interactions over time, the analysis revealed that Eisaku's methods of participation developed in terms of turn-taking strategies (choral or self-selected talk, and sequential timing), sequence and timing (deploying the follow-up question at an appropriate slot in the talk), increasing use of linguistic resources (first language and L2, additional lexical items), as well as non-linguistic resources (gestures and gaze), and display of relevancy and appropriateness of his turns observed in the interaction diversified over time.

In the earlier excerpts (Excerpt 1 & 2) recorded in 2008, Eisaku's participation in the recurrent post-expansion sequence was limited to choral responses or self-selected turns that were not sequentially positioned appropriately, as evidenced by the way they overlapped with the

teacher's talk. Not only were the self-selected turns sequentially inapposite but also interactionally inapposite in the sense that Eisaku used the turns to answer a question assigned to other students. His persistence in doing this received no uptake from the teacher, and this suggests she was ignoring the contribution due to its sequential placement. In contrast, the later excerpts (Excerpt 3-5) recorded in 2009 show a more sophisticated way of taking self-selected turns. We witnessed Eisaku repeating important vocabulary at a lower volume and without an overlap and producing the word at sequentially and topically relevant slot after a transition relevant place, which indicates a significant change in this interactional participation.

Secondly, there was an increased capacity to attend to linguistic and non-linguistic details and utilize them while participating in the post-expansion sequence. In the earlier stage, code-switching to his first language to account for his actions was performed without asking for permission from the teacher, as others did. However, in the later stage, Eisaku shows his attentiveness to the introduction of the new vocabulary item by repeating it through self-directed talk along with his parallel use of the teacher's hand gesture. He experiments with the new word to answer a follow-up question and checks with the teacher whether she understood what he meant by effectively using gesture and eye gaze. In the final excerpt, the analysis showed that Eisaku carefully monitored the interactional flow and self-selected turns at appropriate places, and as a result, was able to successfully make a relevant contribution.

Eisaku's turn-taking strategies and utilization of linguistic resources show his increased ability to adapt to the interactional development at the moment and increased capacity to appropriately participate in the post-expansion sequence using L2. His self-selected turns changed from inappropriate to appropriate, in terms of their sequential positioning, timing, and relevance. The results of this study resonate with the findings by Cekaite (2007), who studied the



development of L2 interactional competence of a young learner in a Swedish L2 classroom. She reported on how a novice L2 learner, Fusi, self-selected turns over time developed to fit the institutional norms as well as become more sequentially normative. Thus, L2 learning, method of participation and interactional skills of learners all develop over time. This study has shown some of the ways in which this development takes place by and through classroom interaction, but more longitudinal CA work on how such participation changes occur is needed.

It is also important to observe changes in how the participation was prompted or encouraged by the teacher over time. Analysis of the data shows how the teacher turns a post-expansion sequence into a teachable moment by making a shift in the participation framework and prompting the whole class to co-engage in the follow-up talk. This shift in the participation framework leads to the creation of a specific sequence to be focused on as a learnable moment, highlighting the interactional activity and differentiating it from others, and providing opportunities for bystanders to participate in the learnable moment. In his research on learner-initiated follow-up questions in survey interviews, Greer (2016) points out the importance of providing opportunity for students, especially beginners, to prepare them for post-expansion sequences. Thus, when and how to initiate post-expansion sequences or follow-up questions could be taught to novices in multi-party classroom interaction by effectively using shifts in the participation framework. Language teachers therefore need to be aware of what it is they are doing when they call other students into the talk, or ask them to co-produce a question, since reflecting on such interactional moments may lead an understanding of how better to manage the talk that goes on in their classes.

Finally, another pedagogical implication is the importance of making the recurrent interactional sequences meaningful in classrooms so that the learners can expand and explore

ways to participating and engaging in them differently every time. Routine interactions or routine sequences in classrooms have been reported as effective tools for helping novice learners to develop L2 competence (Kanagy, 1999). Such recurrent interactional sequences encourage learners to adapt and to be context-sensitive, as well as to project the next sequence. Future studies should continue to investigate classroom routines and track how learners manage to participate in them and how this helps develop L2 interactional competence and L2 learning (Waring, 2013).

## **Chapter 6**

### **Developing Classroom Turn-taking Competence Over Time:**

#### **Responding to a Turn-moderating Microphone Gesture**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter will examine the teacher's systematic use of a specific multimodal practice and the development of students' L2 interactional competence through closely observing changes in the practice over a period of time. The analysis focuses on a recurrent hand gesture, which I will term a microphone gesture, that is utilized mainly as an interactional resource to allocate turns and moderate speaker shifts. Despite the growing interest in multimodal practices in interaction, not many studies have been conducted on tracking down a specific gesture utilized in an educational setting by a teacher over time and how students orient to it. Thus, the aim of the chapter is twofold: a) to describe the orderliness of the embodied practice employed by the teacher and b) to uncover the process of how young L2 learners display their understandings of the gesture, thus illustrating their development of interactional competence, especially the ability to monitor the prior turns produced by the teacher (Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2016) and to deploy and recognize context-specific patterns of the actions being organized (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011).

### **6.2 Literature Review**

#### **6.2.1 The Human Body as a Resource: The Microphone Gesture**

When humans interact with one another, they coordinate not only talk but also their body movements in conjunction with their utterances, and these play an important role as key interactional resources with which participants make sense of each other. How embodied actions, such as visual orientation, gaze direction, posture, gesture, and other bodily conducts, act as interactional resources to achieve social activities remains a relevant topic of investigation among scholars who are interested in analyzing multimodality in human interaction (Deppermann, 2013; Heath & Luff, 2013; Streeck, Goodwin, & LeBaron, 2011). Previous studies have revealed that bodily actions are organized in an orderly manner to achieve specific interactional goals (Sacks & Schegloff, 2002). Determining whether or not these embodied actions are made relevant in the context by the participants, is purely an analytical question. In contrast, describing how this bodily conduct gets employed in a systematic and recognizable way to achieve certain interactional aims is still an open-ended question that poses issues such as the following. How does a specific embodied action get formulated and utilized as an interactional resource? When is it utilized and what does it achieve? How do the participants recognize and display or not display their understanding of the embodied action in the subsequent turn?

This chapter analyzes how an experienced instructor in EFL classroom employs a specific embodied practice as a method to allocate turns and manage turn-takings in multi-party classroom interaction with nine young EFL learners and how her use of that practice changes over time. It focuses on a recurrently observed hand gesture that I will refer to as the microphone gesture (see figure 3).<sup>10</sup> The microphone gesture gets deployed and developed through a series

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<sup>10</sup> Here it is important to point out the idiosyncratic use of the microphone gesture by this particular teacher. In this study, I am not trying to generalize the use of the microphone gesture in all EFL classrooms, but to reveal the systematic use of the gesture in this classroom through analyzing how it is treated and oriented to in the interaction by the participants.

of stages: a) the preparation stage – making a fist with either the right or left hand, departing from the original position, b) the peak – placing the fist in front of a specific student, and c) the retraction – withdrawing the fist back to the original “home position” (Sacks & Schegloff, 2002). Previous studies have documented how gestures often get deployed and developed over turns with temporal progressivity (Kendon, 2004; Mondada, 2007; Sikveland & Ogden, 2012) and it has also been reported that a “very large number of moves and sequences of moves in interaction end where they begin” (Sacks & Schegloff, 2002: p. 137). Therefore, it is important to pay attention to the timing of when and where the gesture begins and ends, as well as how these stages develop in coordination with the talk. Moreover, the microphone gesture often co-occurred with the teacher’s gaze towards a specific participant. Thus, the coordination of gaze direction, the temporal development, and the verbal production should be taken into account when the gesture is being analyzed.



*Figure 3.* The microphone gesture being used in the focal classroom.

Microphone gestures are not commonly seen or used in our daily lives; however, the use of a microphone as a tool to address public audience at large events, such as concert halls, to record sounds electronically at musical or political gatherings, or to interview people for a television show (Ponomareva, 2011) is commonly observed. For instance, in Japan and in other countries, the media frequently display images of sports players being interviewed with microphones after games (Figure 4).



*Figure 4.* An interviewer uses a microphone to interview David Buchanan from the Japanese pro baseball team, the Tokyo Yakult Swallows, after a game. Photograph by Sports Nippon. 2017.6.12 <sup>11</sup>

It is probably safe to say that ordinary people are familiar enough with this technology to recognize what the microphone is and what it does when they see it being used. Then, the next question is, what action does the microphone achieve and what effect does it have on interaction? Day and Wagner (2014) report on how interactants utilize physical objects as transactional resources to organize and distribute turn-taking in multiparty interactions. Their study revealed that displaying possession of an object through touching, holding, and moving, may indicate a transitional state and could be recognized and understood as claiming to take a turn by participants. Furthermore, according to Ponomareva (2011), who conducted a study on the use of a microphone in dyadic television interviews, the microphone served as a transmission device and fulfilled the role to determine the turn-taking through turn-initiation, continuation of the turn, and turn ending. Thus, possessing the microphone could signal such a transactional state and have an impact on the way interactants organize institutional talk. Furthermore, who possesses the microphone and who is being addressed (and who the possible overhearers could be) becomes an interactional concern for all participants.

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<sup>11</sup> ヒーローインタビューを受けるブキャナン（左）に「バナナマイク」を向けるつば九郎  
<http://www.sponichi.co.jp/baseball/news/2017/06/12/gazo/20170611s00001173533000p.html>

When a microphone itself is absent from the context and is substituted by a hand gesture, and if the gesture is recognized by participants as a representation of a microphone, the gesture can serve similar interactional functions as the microphone, e.g., signaling a transactional state and, therefore, becoming a turn organizational resource. Gestures that substitute tools with specific functions can serve as an interactional resource and achieve similar interactional goals as the object. For instance, Mortensen's (2016) study on cupping the hand behind the ear gesture, once described as a "non-electric aid to hearing" (Stephens & Goodwin, 1984), revealed that the participants treated the gesture as a display of a problem in hearing and this served as an interactional resource to achieve other-initiation of repair utilized by the teacher. Similarly, the microphone hand gesture could also be described as a "non-electric aid to speaking" and may serve as an interactional resource for allocating turns.

### **6.2.2 Turn-taking Organization and Next Speaker Selection**

When two people talk, the order of turn-taking and speakership shift are rather simple. One person takes the role of the speaker and the other becomes the listener. When the speaker signals the completion of a turn, for instance with a turn-final falling intonation or the completion of a word, phrase, or sentence, the listener projects the completion of the turn and is expected to take the next turn at a transition relevance place (TRP) (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). In their seminal paper, Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974) laid out the basic rules for the turn-taking organization and revealed the systematicity observed in ordinary conversation. The rules of who takes the turn, how long each turn takes, and when each will take a turn, are not predetermined, but instead locally managed by the participants themselves through careful monitoring and projection. When the number of people involved in the interaction

increases and the interaction takes place in institutional contexts, naturally, the turn-taking organization and speaker shifts become more complicated and context-specific.

Turn-taking organization observed in multiparty classroom interactions has been described as unequally distributed among participants (Gardner, 2013; Markee, 2000, 2015; Seedhouse, 2004). According to McHoul (1978), the teacher is in essence the only one who is entitled to allocate turns and select the next-speaker, which is often a student, and the selected speaker can only select the teacher after they complete their turn. Even if the teacher is not selected by the student, the teacher can continue to self-select and the process gets repeated. Basically, as McHoul (1978) states, “only teachers can direct speakership in any creative way” (p. 188). This unequal distribution of turns and teacher control of turn-taking are a reflection of the asymmetric nature of knowledge and the difference in the social roles and expectations designated to teachers and students. The teacher is expected to be knowledgeable of the content and carries the responsibility to assess students of their performances. Thus, this characteristic is reflected in the turn-taking organization and sequence organization in classroom and makes the classroom interaction different to other institutional interactions and ordinary conversations.

The nature of having multiple participants is another characteristic of classroom interaction which influences the turn-taking organization. Speaker shift and next-speaker selection in multiparty interaction can be a complicated act to be managed and negotiated verbally and nonverbally (Hayashi, 2015). In ordinary multiparty conversation, Lerner (2003) reported that next-speaker selection occurred through the current speaker explicitly addressing a specific speaker by gaze and personal address terms, or else tacitly addressing them by formulating a turn specifically designed for an individual. In short, the practices of current-selects-next are carried out through deploying verbal: personal address terms, turn design:



question formulation, and multimodal: gaze and pointing (Kendon, 2004), resources in multiparty interaction.

### **6.2.3 Multimodality and Next Speaker Selection in Classroom Interaction**

In recent studies, the mechanisms of speaker shift and multimodal methods of speaker selection in classroom interaction have been reported to be a collaborative act between teachers and students. Mortensen (2009) demonstrated that before teachers select a specific student to be the next speaker, they gaze towards the students in order to find a participant willing to answer, for instance, a teacher-initiated question. Students willing to be selected as the next speaker display their willingness to take the next turn through hand raising or/and gazing towards the teacher. Similarly, Lauzon and Berger's (2015) study also revealed that students play a significant role in locally managing their participation by displaying availability/unavailability to respond to teacher initiated first pair part. Furthermore, Kääntä's (2012) study also revealed how teachers' and students' systematically employ talk and embodied action as interactionally meaningful resources to negotiate and manage turn-taking. These studies challenge the traditional notion of dominance in the teacher's role of controlling the classroom participation by revealing that speaker selection is in fact, jointly accomplished (Lauzon & Berger, 2015) by all participants through collaborative adjustments and orderly use of multimodal resources. In sum, it is useful to focus on the nonverbal resources utilized by both teachers and students when observing and analyzing turn-taking in classroom interaction.

### **6.3 Transcription Conventions**

Compared with previous chapters, the transcription conventions adopted in this chapter are more detailed than those in the earlier chapters in that they include gesture and gaze symbols designated to a specific participant to describe, for instance, when a particular action is in preparation, reaching its apex, or under retraction. In this way, the precise timing of when the gesture was produced in relation to a verbal utterance becomes clear to the analyst as well as the readers. The detailed information is extremely important for the purpose of this research, which is to observe and analyze the interactional practice of a specific hand gesture, i.e., the microphone gesture, being recurrently utilized as a resource to establish speakership in multiparty interaction. The detailed multimodal transcription proposed by Mondada (2007, 2014) will be followed in this chapter (see Appendix 1.3 for the symbols designated for each speaker).

### **6.4 Data Analysis**

The first two excerpts come from the very first day of the English lessons when all the participants met in the classroom for the first time. In the analysis, I will describe how and when the microphone gesture is being utilized, as well as how the gesture is being oriented to by the young learners who are in the very early stages of learning English. As mentioned earlier, transcription of the audio-visual data follows the conventions developed by Mondada (2014) to show the temporal trajectory of the relevant embodied actions by indicating who the action is employed by, when the action begins, and when it ends. In addition, the seating arrangements of the participants, including students and their mothers, are described in the figure below (see

Appendix 2 for the seating arrangements for all excerpts).

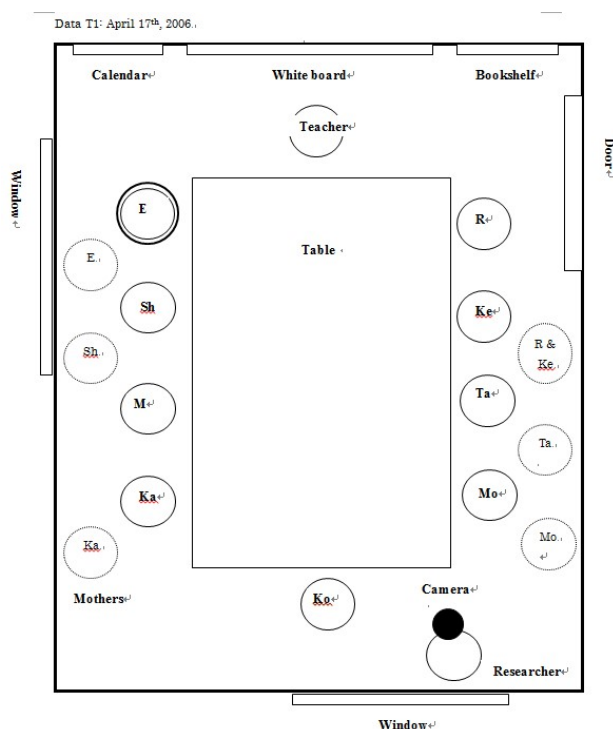


Figure 5. The seating arrangement for the first day of English class (Excerpt 1 & 2).

#### 6.4.1 The First Day of English Class: Repeating a Teacher Utterance

This segment occurred at the beginning of the first lesson, when the teacher had just collected tape recorders from each student and put them on the table in front of her. The excerpt starts right after Eisaku's tape recorder has been taken and placed on the table by the teacher who says, here's eisaku's, (in line 1) while gazing at the other students. Towards the end of the turn, the teacher gazes at a specific student, Shizuka, who is sitting next to Eisaku.

##### Excerpt 1 Tape recorder [T1\_3\_4\_Shizuka]

1	TEA	+here's eisaku'*s.+ *...> "gazes at Ss" "gazes towards shi" +holding tape recorder, moves body to tea+
	shi	

†gazes at tea†



- 2                   + (0.5) +  
tea               reaches RH towards shi-->  
shi               +holding tape recorder with both hands+
- 3       **TEA**       **AH (.) this is ↑mi↓ne\***  
                  takes the recorder, tries to put in pocket\*  
                  ▪smiles and gaze at other Ss▪
- 4               shi  
      **SHI**       †gazes at tea†  
                  \*+chigau+  
                  no  
                  +gaze and body leaning towards TEA+  
tea               \*RH in pocket and moves to...>  
                  ▪gaze at shi▪



- 5       **TEA**       → no?  
                  ⇒ mic--->



- 6               shi  
      **SHI**       †gazes at tea†  
tea               **NO!**  
                  -->
- 7       **TEA**       °say° (0.3) it's \*mine  
                  circular hand.....\*mic-->
- 8       **SHI**       it's +mi\*ne  
                  +puts RH to chest-->  
tea               -----, , , \*



The teacher's gaze shift from the whole class to a specific individual indicates a transition. While looking at the teacher, the gaze-selected student holds her tape recorder with both hands and moves her body towards the teacher during the teacher's utterance in line 1. Shizuka's shift in posture, the movement of her body and her gaze towards the teacher can be

understood as soliciting teacher attention (Cekaite, 2008), and in fact, results in establishment of mutual-gazing with the teacher. By holding her tape recorder towards the teacher, Shizuka indicates her orientation to the topic of the activity and attentiveness towards the teacher's actions. After the mutual gaze, a gap follows and the teacher reaches her right hand towards Shizuka's tape recorder (line 2).

The teacher's loud AH token draws the participants' attention and acts as a display of noticing something worthy of reporting, as she takes Shizuka's tape recorder with her right hand (line 3). After a micropause, the teacher claims the ownership of the object by stating, this is ↑mi ↓ne, with a rather exaggerated upward and downward intonation, and demonstrates her statement with the embodied action of trying to put the tape recorder in her pocket (note that the tape recorder is larger than her pocket). Her facial expression, the smile, and gaze towards other students, as well as the animated intonation and management of the object in line 3, indicate the playful nature of this statement and action. Furthermore, the series of actions: taking a student's tape recorder, claiming ownership of it, and trying to put it in her pocket, were performed in a previous exchange with Eisaku prior to this sequence. This repetition could serve as a clue for other participants to recognize the similar pattern that the teacher might be performing and help them project or anticipate what might follow next.

In the next turn, Shizuka responds to the teacher's previous embodied conduct and a statement in line 3 by denying it using one word in her first language (L1) Japanese, *chigau*, meaning no or wrong, along with gaze and leaning towards the teacher. As soon as Shizuka finishes the verbal utterance in line 4, the teacher moves her right hand from her pocket towards Shizuka simultaneously forming a fist (the preparation stage). In the next turn, the teacher reformulates the previous Japanese utterance into the target language, English, with rising

intonation, no?. Co-occurring with this reformulation of the word, the teacher places her right fist position as if it were holding a microphone in front of Shizuka's mouth (the peak). Gazing back at the teacher, Shizuka repeats the reformulated word in a rather loud volume in line 6. Following this, the teacher continues to take the next turn by uttering an interrogative sentence, 'say it's mine, with a circular hand motion (the preparation) and formulating another microphone gesture towards Shizuka (the peak). Shizuka then repeats the phrase, it's mine, with the embodied action of placing her right hand to her chest. (Here it is important to mention that the sentence, it's mine, emerged in the previous interaction with Eisaku to claim his ownership of his tape recorder in English.) Shizuka is displaying her understanding of this interaction through not only through repetition, but also with her embodied action. In line 8, the teacher reverses the microphone gesture (the retraction) as Shizuka completes the repetition and the teacher's right hand returns to the home position.

Since this is the very first day of English class for these students, their knowledge of English is close to nil. Students in this excerpt were 5 to 6-year-old preschool students who probably had not been exposed to English prior to coming to this school. From observing this teacher's lesson for several years, it is clear that the teacher follows an English only policy with all of her students from day one. Although the teacher's utterances are all in an unfamiliar language, her body movements, gaze, facial expressions, and frequent use of gestures serve as clues for students to recognize patterns, understand and follow the activity, and help produce what they are expected to do in the interaction. It is also important to note that all students are displaying their attentive participation in various ways. More specifically, the selected next speaker, Shizuka, also participates by using her bodily conduct, gaze, and repetition of teacher utterances, as prompted by the microphone gesture. The other students who are not producing


utterances and being listeners are attentively monitoring the interaction with their gaze (Goodwin, 1980), and make public their understanding of their current role as ratified overhearers by not taking the next turn.

From this excerpt, we can see that the microphone gesture serves at least three purposes: gaining attention, allocating a turn, and achieving pedagogical goals. First, the microphone gesture is produced to gain attention from the young learners. Studies have reported on how children solicit attention from teachers using artifacts and embodied actions (Cekaite, 2007; 2008), but it is equally important for the teachers to gain attention from students. The microphone gesture combined with the teacher utterance is effectively performed to obtain attention from all participants including the selected speaker. Second, the microphone gesture serves to allocate a turn and establish a specific student as a next speaker through publicly displaying the selection. The deselected students continue to orient to this action by monitoring and gazing at the focal student and the teacher. Third, the teacher's pedagogical aim of having students repeat the phrase in the target language (line 7) and use English as much as possible is enabled with the use of microphone gesture. In this excerpt, we can see that the simultaneous production of the microphone gesture and the teacher utterance serves as an indication to prompt a student to repeat the reformulated word and target phrase that is produced with the microphone. Moreover, the position of its placement, e.g., right after the student's L1 production (line 5) and the teacher's intra-turn pause (line 7), serve as indications of which words to repeat. Furthermore, the return of the gesture to the home position marks the completion of the pedagogical goal being achieved. Next, let us move on to another example of how the microphone gesture was used in the same lesson from a sequence that occurs later in the lesson.

The next segment occurs from a sequence in the same lesson where the teacher is

learning the names of each student by initiating a round robin to organize and manage turn-taking (Mortensen & Hazel, 2011). Round robins are often observed in EFL classrooms and are known to have constraints in pre-allocating turns, which allows for a certain degree of projection for the participants. Prior to the excerpt below, the teacher went about checking the names of seven students starting from Eisaku, the student sitting on her right side (see Figure 5). In this excerpt, the focal student, Kanta, is the next student in line for his name to be learned. During the round robin, the teacher invites others to join the activity of checking and confirming names as observed below.

**Excerpt 2** Are you kanta? [T1\_18\_Kanta]

1	TEA		<b>*he is kanta?*</b> *LH p at kan*
2	TAK		↓yes↓ ↓nod↓
3			(0.5)
4	TEA		<b>yes? *are you kanta?</b> *RH p at kan-->
5			Δ(0.7)Δ
	kan		Δn o dΔ
			Δgazes at teaΔ
	tea		----->
6	KAN		°n°
	tea		-->
7	TEA	→	<b>yes? =</b>
		⇒	..#mic towards kan->
	fig		#fig 3
			
8	KAN		<b>=YES*</b>
	tea		--,,*
9	TEA		<b>=oh hello kanta</b>
10			(0.6)
11	KAN		Δ h e l l o = Δ
			Δwaves hand at teaΔ
12	TEA		<b>=*hello.* goo:d &gt;good good good&lt;</b> *waves hand at kan*



In Excerpt 2, the teacher initiates a first pair part (FPP) of the adjacency pair by formulating a question produced in a declarative sentence with a rising intonation, accompanied with pointing at a specific student, Kanta. Takuya, a student sitting on the left side of Kanta, provides a second pair part (SPP) by answering with both verbal and nonverbal action, yes and a head nod, in line 2. After a gap of silence, in the next turn, the teacher seeks a first-hand confirmation from the focal student, Kanta, with a prompt and confirming a question initiation: the FPP accompanied with pointing explicitly displays the referent and the addressee. By producing a turn as a question specifically designed for the focal student and by addressing him with a name (Lerner, 2003) in line 4, the production of a response: SPP by the addressed student is made conditionally relevant (Schegloff, 1968).

In line 5 where the SPP is expected to be produced, silence is observed instead. However, during the silence, Kanta provides a nonverbal response with a head nod while gazing at the teacher, as the teacher continues to point at him. He then produces a rather quiet utterance after the head nod. In line 7, the teacher produces a verbalization of the embodied response and a candidate response in English, yes?, along with the microphone gesture directed towards Kanta (the peak). Here, the teacher's right hand pointing gesture transformed into the microphone gesture as the candidate SPP was produced. With the microphone gesture in front of him, Kanta repeats the previous teacher utterance in a loud voice. The microphone gesture is removed (the retraction) as Kanta produces the repetition (line 8) and the teacher's right hand returns to the home position. The repetition, which fulfills the role of providing a SPP, was receipted by the teacher with the change of state token, oh (Heritage, 1984). In this case, however, the particle oh, does not represent the change of state, since the teacher already knew the answer earlier from Takuya's contribution (line 2) as well as from the focal student's nonverbal response (line 5).

According to Hosoda (2015), the deployment of an oh token as a response to a known-answer question can be recognized as a display of the teacher indicating that the student's answer was appropriately produced and his performance was received positively. The appropriate production of the repetition could also be observed through the retraction of the gesture. The question and answer sequence is then followed by a greeting sequence (Schegloff, 1986) embodied with a hand wave, and closed with multiple productions of a positive assessment in line 12.

Similar to the previous excerpt, the microphone gesture serves the purpose of gaining attention, managing turn allocation, achieving repetition, as well as mobilizing response. According to Stivers and Rossano (2010), current speakers mobilize response through simultaneously combining multiple interactional resources, such as “interrogative lexico-morphosyntax, interrogative prosody, recipient-focused epistemicity, and speaker gaze” (p. 4) and increase the recipient's accountability to produce a response when it is absent. Unfortunately in this excerpt, the teacher gaze was not captured due to the camera angle. However, the teacher producing a polar question with rising prosody, and clear establishment of access to the recipient's epistemic domain, combined with pointing and later followed by the microphone gesture functioned to obtain a SPP response from Kanta in the target language. Through closely monitoring the teacher's embodied actions by continually gazing at her, Kanta first recognizes that he is the addressee of the teacher-initiated question as he nonverbally responds. He then verbally displays his understanding of responding to the question and answer sequence by repeating the teacher utterance appropriately when prompted.

#### **6.4.2 Formalization to Achieve Repetition: Sequence Organization**

In the early stages, especially in the first lesson, the microphone gesture frequently

occurred as a means not only to seek a response, but also to prompt a repetition from students, who were selected as the next speaker. Previous studies on repetitions in FL classrooms have pointed out that teacher repetitions are pervasive in relatively low-level foreign language classroom interactions (Duff, 2000; p. 134). Duff also points out that teachers utilize repetition to provide uptake on student utterances and to encourage students to become engaged in interaction. In addition to increasing participation, repetition benefits learners by allowing them to practice articulating problematic turns. By providing a candidate response along with the microphone gesture, the teacher prompts students to use the target word, without specifically verbalizing “repeat after me”. Table 2 is the formalization of the phenomenon which describes speaker shifts, turns, embodied actions, and actions the turn achieves in the sequence.

Table 2. *Formalization of the Microphone Gesture to Achieve Repetition*

Speaker	Turn 1	Turn 2	Turn 3	Turn 4
<b>Teacher</b>				
Talk	<b>Teacher Initiation</b> FPP: Question		<b>Candidate Response</b> in L2	
Gesture		Orients to student's contribution (gaze)	<b>The Microphone Gesture</b>	Microphone (Turn-final retraction)
Action	Initiates sequence		Provides candidate response	Displays reciprocity
<b>Selected student</b>				
Talk		<b>Student Response</b> SPP: Answer in L1		<b>Repetition</b>
Gesture	Displays reciprocity (gaze)	Answers in non-verbal action (nod)	Displays reciprocity (gaze)	
Action		Responds to TEA's initiation		Repeats candidate response

Time



In many cases, the microphone gesture serves the interactional purposes of obtaining attention

from young learners, allocating a turn to a specific speaker, mobilizing a response, and prompting repetition of the candidate response produced by the teacher. In addition to this, there are other functions the microphone gesture carries out to achieve pedagogical purposes. Next, we will observe other functions of the gesture (Excerpt 3.1), as well as witness evidence of the microphone gesture being treated by the student as a prompt for a repetition (Excerpt 3.2).

### 6.4.3 Legitimizing Participation and Failed Cases

The following excerpt comes from a lesson that occurred about 2 months after the previous excerpts. Here, the teacher is reading a picture book entitled *A Beautiful Butterfly* (Nakamoto, 2011) to the students and involves them by asking questions based on the pages of the picture book. The teacher uses two types of voices: a regular voice and an animated voice. The animated voice is recognizable and is differentiated from the regular voice in the transcript by embedding the talk in at-marks (@). The animated voice is produced when the teacher is reading out loud from the book and enacting the main character's voice, which is that of a caterpillar (lines 1-7).


#### Excerpt 3.1 [T3\_1\_2\_3\_2.49]

01	TEA	@*I want to be a (0.3) blue butterfly*@ *p at the words in the picture book*
02		(0.5)
03	TEA	tch @I *have to eat* (0.5) something ↑blue::@ *eating gesture*
04		(0.7)
05	TEA	@some[thing blue:@] ▪gazes at Ss▪
06	EIS	[blueberry::]
07	TEA	@*bl↑ue, blue, [blue.*@ *gazes and p at the picture book*
08	EIS	[blueberry ai
09	TEA	*something ↑blue,* >every*body< *snaps fingers twice* *cupping ear--->

```

10  Ss      something blue* ((EIS not included))
    tea     ----->*
11          (0.2)
12  TEA      →    what is something blue=
13  EIS      =*BULUE: BE[RRY*
              gazes at tea
              tea     ⇒    *mic towards eis*

```



```

14  TEA      [oh ↑blueberry is blue yes,
15          blueberry is bl- blue, blueberry is blue,
16          (0.4)

```

In lines 1, 3, and 5, the teacher is reading the book with an animated voice that represents the caterpillar looking for something blue to eat. While using the animated voice, pointing at the book, pausing, and gesturing to entertain and support the students' understanding, the teacher utters, something blue, in line 5. Eisaku, the focal student in this excerpt, gives the name of a blue fruit, blueberry::, in the middle of the teacher's turn (line 6), elongating the final vowel in overlap with her utterance. As observed in the following turn, this self-selected turn which displays his understanding and projection based on his attentive listening, does not receive any uptake and fails to obtain mutual gaze as the teacher continues to look at the other students. In the next turn, the teacher shifts her gaze and continues to read the book in an animated voice as she points to it (line 7). Again, during the teacher's turn, Eisaku overlaps his talk with the teacher's repetition in a second attempt to initiate a self-selected turn in line 8 which again results in no uptake. In line 9, the teacher repeats the key phrase, something blue, switching to a normal voice, along with a rhythmical finger snap and opens the floor to the whole group by shifting her gaze and addressing the students with, everybody, and employing the cupping ear gesture (Mortensen, 2016; Sert, 2015). In this sequence, the cupping ear gesture serves as a

prompt for repetition of the key phrase, something blue, which is responded to and achieved by the students (line 10), other than Eisaku. After the choral repetition and a gap, a question gets initiated by the teacher in line 12.

Immediately after the teacher's initiation of the FPP in line 12, without a gap, Eisaku provides a SPP in line 13 in a clear and loud volume. Here it is interesting to note the timing of the teacher's microphone gesture. The gesture was produced at the same time as Eisaku produced the response and the peak was placed in front of him. The placement of the gesture and the timing of the response without a latch is almost as if it was planned. However, this is not surprising since the gesture is positioned after the two failed attempts of Eisaku taking self-selected turns that were not taken up by the teacher. The teacher's utterance overlaps in the middle of Eisaku's answer in line 14, which indicates that she can project what his answer is. By producing the "oh" token in the middle of a known answer (Hosoda, 2015), as well as taking up and repeating student's answer several times, the teacher is reinforcing the appropriateness of Eisaku's response produced at this particular point, i.e., after the teacher initiation. The teacher returns her microphone gesture to home position at the end of the student utterance (the retraction) in line 13 which displays the completion of the expected action, which is producing a response turn at the right timing.

In comparison to earlier excerpts, the microphone gesture does not co-occur with the teacher's production of a candidate response and does not prompt a repetition of the teacher utterance. Instead, it serves to manage legitimate participation through official allocation of a turn. The gesture was produced right after the teacher's production of the FPP in a normal voice and functioned to elicit a SPP in the appropriate sequential position. Eisaku's self-selections in lines 6 and 8 were placed in the middle of the teacher's animated utterance, and as a result,



19 (0.8) \*  
 ---->\*

20 TEA \*blueberry?\*

\*starts counting w/ RH thumb& moves index finger\*


21 / (1.2) /

/raises left arm then LH/

22 TEA → \*yes?

tea ⇒ \*#mic towards kot--->

fig #fig 6



23 (0.3)

tea ---->

24 KOT yes. \*

tea --->\*

25 TEA yes?

26 (0.2)

27 TEA what else?

28 (0.7)

29 TEA ↑blueberry:

30 (0.7)

After the previous sequence, where Eisaku provided an answer at an appropriate sequential timing, the teacher initiates a post-expansion sequence by producing a follow-up question in line 17. Towards the end of the sentence, Eisaku and Takuya raise their hands and the teacher allocates a turn with the microphone gesture to Eisaku with a rising utterance, yes?, in the next turn. However, Eisaku does not provide an answer and a gap of silence ensues. Not receiving any response, during the gap, the teacher continues to place the microphone in front of Eisaku (line 19). The microphone gets retracted towards the end of the gap and the teacher then repeats Eisaku's previous answer and uses her right hand to display a counting gesture by moving her thumb and index finger. Another rather long silence follows and during this silence, Kota displays his willingness to respond by raising his left arm and then left hand in line 21. As in line 18, the teacher allocates a turn by placing the microphone gesture towards Kota (peak) along with the utterance, yes?, delivered with rising intonation. A short gap follows while the



microphone gesture still continues to be held out (hold). Kota then takes the next turn and repeats the teacher's prior utterance confidently with falling intonation (line 24). Next, the teacher retracts the gesture at the end of the utterance. The teacher keeps pursuing the question by repeating the prompt, yes?, producing a short question (line 27), and repeating the previous answer (line 29). However, this fails to obtain an answer from the students.

Here, it is interesting to compare how microphone gestures are used and two ways students respond to them: with no response and with repetition. The microphone gesture in line 18 was utilized to select a next-speaker out of two student bidders and to have the speaker provide a response to the teacher initiated FPP. This is different from the usage we observed in Excerpt 1 and 2 where the teacher had students repeat the teacher utterance, and it is also different from Excerpt 3.1 where the teacher used the microphone gesture to legitimize a student utterance. According to Kääntä (2012), teachers perform embodied allocations based on the sequential placement of the students' bids, where the bidding students are seated, and where the teacher is looking (p. 181). In this case, the teacher looked at the two students sitting next to each other, both raising their hands around towards the end of her turn, although Eisaku raised his a little earlier. The nomination sequence took place around the teacher initiation and the teacher's embodied allocation occurred through utilizing the microphone gesture and verbal prompt. In sum, the microphone gesture in line 18 served to manage allocation of turn after a nomination sequence where more than one student expressed willingness to take the next turn.

The microphone gesture in line 22 is very similar to that used in line 18, in terms of the position in which it is placed, which is after the nomination sequence, and how it is produced, with the teacher's verbal prompt, yes? Kota orients to the microphone gesture as a prompt for repetition rather than seeking a response to the teacher initiated follow-up question in line 17.

Here it is interesting to note that this sequence is very similar to Excerpt 2 when the gesture was used to with a prompt to produce repetition. Kota is treating the microphone gesture not as mobilizing a response, but as a prompt for a repetition of the teacher utterance. However, if the gesture is serving as a prompt for a repetition of the teacher utterance, as the formalization of the microphone gesture to achieve repetition (Figure 7) indicates, the microphone gesture should be placed after a student response that gets reformulated by the teacher. It is clear from the next turn that the teacher does not align with Kota's action, as she does not produce positive assessment but repeats the word in rising intonation, continues to pursue the follow-up question by initiating a short FPP, and does not close the sequence.

In conclusion, from this excerpt, we can observe that due to the multiple functions the microphone gesture has performed, the students sometimes orient to it in sequentially inapposite ways. Although the gesture enhances the teacher's ability to mobilize a response, it might not receive any response or might receive responses that are not aligned to the interactionally relevant action. This is especially apparent in the second example, where Kota recognizes it as a prompt for repetition. Students are required to carefully monitor the prior turns and to produce an aligned utterance when the microphone gesture is placed in front of them. In short, students' demonstrate their competence and understanding through how they treat and respond to the microphone gesture.

So far, we have observed the microphone gesture used in the early stages of data (their first English lesson and two months later) and analyzed different usages of the microphone gesture, as well as responses by the students. Formalization of achieving repetition has been organized in Table 2, however, other usages of the microphone gesture were found, including the gesture as a means of disciplining and managing students turn to legitimize participation. In the

following section, we will observe microphone gestures from the later stages of the data-set (18 months later and 3 years later) to track how the microphone gesture is being utilized and responded after the students have become more familiar with the turn-taking structure of the institutional context of this EFL classroom.

#### **6.4.4 Providing a Response**

This excerpt comes from a lesson recorded 21 months after the talk in from Excerpts 1 and 2. Before we move on to the analysis, it is important to mention the importance of considering the development of the social relationship between the participants and its impact on the interactional practices when analyzing longitudinal data (Kasper & Wagner, 2014). Thus, it should be kept in mind that the teacher, students, and mothers who are in the classroom have known each other for 21 months and have established a shared knowledge and understanding of how the teacher carries out her lessons. From time to time, the teacher attempts to include the mothers in the main interaction of the classroom and this excerpt is one example.<sup>12</sup>

This lesson was the first lesson after the new years' holiday. Naturally, the calendar, which is an important artifact in this classroom, was renewed and the teacher asks a question regarding the boy and a girl characters featured in the new calendar. The teacher initiates a question to ask whether they are brother and sister, or friends. Since the students were unable to answer, the teacher prompts them to ask their mothers, who are sitting behind them, and to then report the answer back to the teacher and the whole class (See Figure 6 for all participants seating arrangements, including the mothers).

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<sup>12</sup> The mothers are not always present in the classroom since it is not a requirement. For example, Eisaku's mother is not present in this excerpt.

This excerpt begins after the students have interacted with their mothers and just as the teacher asks the students to report their answers.

1       TEA                   okay what did your MOM say,  
                              ▪gazes at Ss▪  
2                               (0.2)  
3       TEA                   she ↑sa[id? \*  
   \*...RH rise...>  
4       KAN   [Δ◦said◦Δ  
  Δgazes at teaΔ  
          tea   ▪gazes at kan▪  
  .....>  
5                               # (1.7) \*  
          tea   #mic,,,,,\*



kan                    Δgaze at tea and tilts head to left-->  
 6      **TEA**            Δ\*she\*                    \*said?°Δ  
          \*p at kan's mom\*      \*RH in front of mouth. mic->  
          ■gazes at kan■  
 kan                    gazes at tea and tilts head to rightΔ  
 7                    (1.0)  
 tea                    ---->  
 8      **KAN**            EH (0.3)    dare no mama?\*  
                             whose mom?  
 kan                    ^gazes at tea^  
 tea                    -----, , , \*  
 9      **TEA**            \*YOUR ▲MOM\*▲  
          \*p at kan's mom\*  
          ■gazes at kan■  
          ▲touches kan▲  
 kan mom  
 10     **EIS**            HAHAAAA  
          kan            ^gazes at mom^  
          tea            ■gazes at Ss■  
 11                    \* (2.0) \*  
                      \*...#mic\*  
                      ■gazes at kan■



In line 1, the teacher initiates a base FPP to the whole class by asking a question as she gazes at the students. After a short pause, she prompts an answer with a designedly incomplete utterance (DIU) (Koshik, 2002) in line 3. In overlap and while gazing at the teacher, Kanta quietly utters the verb, *said* (line 4), which catches the teacher's attention and leads to mutual gaze. Note that before the teacher produces embodied action to select the next speaker, Kanta has already started his utterance in a rather quiet volume. The teacher's right hand has already risen in line 3 (the preparation) and during the long gap in line 5 turns into the microphone gesture and is placed in front of Kanta (the peak) selecting him as the next speaker. The production of the SPP as well as the end of the incomplete teacher utterance are thus made conditionally relevant. In deploying the turn-moderating microphone gesture, the teacher's action also implies that Kanta's utterance

must be audible to all participants in the room and should be made publically available. The microphone gesture could carry a metaphorical means that whatever is spoken into it becomes a publically available utterance, thus, allowing peripheral participants to inspect it for accuracy and potentially adopt, repeat, and learn from it.

By deploying the microphone gesture, the teacher makes public her understanding that Kanta is expected to produce a response, but Kanta continues to gaze at the teacher, tilts his head to the left and does not provide any response during the rather long silence (line 5). In pursuit of a response, the teacher repeats the DIU, once again accompanying it with a nonverbal action for each word: pointing to his mother for *she*, putting her hand in front of her mouth for *said*, and ending it with the microphone gesture. Even after the teacher's multiple efforts, Kanta still does not provide any response after the prompt in line 6, but instead tilts his head to the opposite side to display further difficulty. The silence as well as the microphone gesture continues in line 7.

Displaying difficulties in producing a SPP through two head tilts and silence, in the next turn, Kanta code-switches to Japanese and initiates a repair sequence as he gazes towards the teacher. At this point, the teacher has the microphone gesture held out (lines 6-8), but retracts it towards the end of Kanta's clarification question. The teacher answers Kanta's question in English (line 9) in a loud voice while pointing at Kanta's mother. Kanta's mother then leans forward and touches him. Eisaku produces a loud laughter in the next turn as Kanta gazes at his mom in response to her touch. During the long silence in line 11, the microphone gesture is placed in front of Kanta (the peak) again in pursuit of SPP for the base FPP produced in line 1, which remains unanswered.

The insert expansion sequence which is initiated by Kanta in Japanese (lines 5 & 7) is hearably produced as an account for the absence of an SPP in its normative position. Kanta is

initiating an inserted FPP to clarify the base FPP in order to produce an answer, i.e., the base SPP. The code-switching could also indicate that Kanta is trying to take control of the situation through a bid to shift the medium to one he can more clearly understand. Kanta displays this clarification question as a necessary step to producing the SPP, however, the discussion with mothers took place before this excerpt. (From the video, Kanta was observed to have interacted with his mother for a short time than the others.) Moreover, there is no other mom that could possibly be referred to in the classroom and the teacher has utilized pointing to refer to his mother prior to this sequence in line 6. The clarification question inserted by Kanta and the answer by the teacher, is treated as laughable by Eisaku. The teacher's loud volume in her answer to the clarification is also hearable as treating it as an obvious question to answer. Furthermore, Kanta's mother's intervention during the teacher's utterance in line 9 also indicates Kanta's lack of understanding of the on-going activity.

The microphone gesture has been deployed on three occasions during the absence of a response that resulted in rather long silences in lines 5, 7, and 11. When a recipient does not provide a coherent response, speakers pursue various ways to obtain a response from the recipient (Okada & Greer, 2013; Pomerantz, 1984; Stivers & Rossano, 2010). In this excerpt, the continued use and lengthy sustainment of microphone gestures across multiple turns function to enhance the relevancy of the production of the response and request for a completion of the DIU. In sum, the combination of verbal and nonverbal resources — gaze, the microphone gesture, and the DIU with a rising intonation — are used for pursuing uptake.


#### **6.4.5 Formulating a Response**

The final excerpt comes from a lesson recorded 38 months (about 3 years) after the first lesson.

Prior to this excerpt, the students were reporting their weekend activities to the teacher, which is a routine interaction that is carried out in every lesson (Watanabe, 2016). This sequence comes after the completion of the reporting activity and opens with the teacher initiation of a subsequent activity related to the weekend report.

### Excerpt 5.1 [T9\_4\_who question]

01	TEA	okay, * $\infty$ who question*
		*raises RH*
	eis	$\infty$ raises RH--->
02		(0.5)
	eis	---->
03	TEA	who? ( . ) *hm hm hm*
		*snaps fingers*
	eis	----->
04		*(1.0)
	tea	*.....->
	eis	---->
05	TEA	okay (.) eisaku, $\infty$
		#mic to eis----->
	eis	-----,,, $\infty$
	fig	#fig4

06		(1.5)
	tea	mic and a head nod-->
		▪gazes at eis▪
07	EIS	kanoko?*=
	tea	mic--,,,*
08	TEA	=who no [no no. ] *>you have to say,<*
		*hand to her mouth*
09	EIS	[°ah no°]
10	TEA	who [*stayed home*
		*both hands moves for each word*
11	EIS	[who ]
12	EIS	ah

In line 1, the teacher starts with a positive acknowledgment, *okay*, and initiates a sequence by uttering a who question while raising her right hand, a gesture that provides an




embodied example of what the students should do to express their readiness to respond. Eisaku, the focal student in this excerpt, also raises his right hand to show his availability and willingness to be selected as the next speaker (Mortensen, 2009). This phrase itself, does not function to initiate a specific action. However, from the participants' perspective (as demonstrated by Eisaku's hand raise) it is publically available that this is a turn which can be treated as initiating an action that makes a response conditionally relevant. The routineness of this teacher initiation is also reflected in Eisaku and the teachers' simultaneous hand raising. While Eisaku continues to raise his hand in line 2, a 0.5 silence follows and the teacher produces an additional turn starting with an upwardly intoned, who?, a micropause and, hm hm hm, with snapping fingers to indicate that some words should follow. Snapping fingers instead of giving specific words is a technique often used by this teacher and observed elsewhere across data. After a 1.0 second silence, the teacher allocates a turn to Eisaku by gaze selecting him, addressing him by name, and simultaneously placing the microphone gesture in front of him (the peak). He has been raising his hand throughout multiple teacher turns (lines 1-5) and retracts his hand raise as his name is spoken.

After the next speaker is selected by the teacher's embodied turn allocation, the microphone gesture is maintained in the same position (peak hold) throughout a rather long silence. Eisaku then takes the next turn by producing the name of one of the students with a rising intonation (line 7). The microphone gesture is reversed soon after Eisaku's utterance (the retraction) and the teacher immediately produces, who no no no, repeating a negation three times, and treating the previous turn as inadequate. After this she displays an explicit instruction using, you have to say, accompanied with a hand in front of her mouth to emphasize the verb. It is interesting to point out that the microphone gesture retraction served to indicate a shift and the

end of the speakership. Overlapping with the teacher's negation, Eisaku quietly produces an *ah* token and a negation which aligns with the teacher utterance (line 9). The teacher then goes on to provide an example of the expected utterance, producing an interrogative sentence starting with *who* followed by a past tense verb (line 10). In overlap with the model question, Eisaku produces the repeated key word, *who*, and utters *ah*, after the teacher's model question is completed. It has been reported that Japanese a-prefaced response tokens display a change of state and receipt the received information as new (Endo, 2018). Since Eisaku is a native speaker of Japanese, he might be displaying a change of state (lines 9 & 12) to show his updated understanding of what he is expected to do by receipting the negative assessment and explicit instruction of the teacher.

In Excerpt 5.1, the use of the microphone gesture not only allocates a turn to pursue a response from the recipient, but also signals speaker shift by its removal. In order to achieve the teacher's pedagogical goal, that is to have the students produce a question starting with *who*, the microphone gesture also functioned to show whether or not the student's production was in line with the teacher's expectation. In this case, when the microphone is utilized, students are not expected to produce a repetition of the teacher utterance, but to produce and formulate an original utterance that follows the teacher's instruction.

#### Excerpt 5.2 [T9\_4\_who question]

13	<b>TEA</b>	okay, >everybody< *who question *...#mic-----> fig #fig 5
		
14	<b>EIS</b>	ah who:: did (2.3) who did- (2.0) nn::: tea mic----->
15	<b>EIS</b>	who::: [did

```

16   tea          mic drops-->
    16   TEA          [did (English) no?
                        mic----->
17   EIS          see- see::
    17   tea          mic----->
18                   (0.7)
    17   EIS          basket[ball
    17   tea          mic----->
19   TEA          [who went to
                        mic----->
20   EIS          who went to s-[ see a basket [ball ga-
    20   tea          mic----->

21   TEA          [see
                        mic-->
22   TEA          [ball game
                        mic----->
23   EIS          game*
    23   tea          mic,*
    23   kan          raises hand
    23   ken          raises hand
24   TEA          oh who went to see a basketball game

```

In line 13 the teacher again initiates a sequence as she gazes at students and renews an action that is similar to the one in line 1. Although the teacher seems to invite the whole class with *everybody*, the microphone gesture rises and is placed in front of Eisaku towards the end of the teacher's turn. Given a second chance, Eisaku then responds with elongation and intra-turn pauses to formulate a question starting with *who* in line 14. Instead of using the grammatical format that the teacher provided, which is treating *who* as a subject and the verb following it, i.e., *who* (subject) + verb, Eisaku formulates a question using *who* and the auxiliary verb *did*. (The use of this grammatical form could be because the students are used to making question forms using the auxiliary verb *did*.) With the help of the teacher's clues (McHoul, 1990) accompanied with the embodied microphone cue, from lines 15 through 22, the teacher and Eisaku collaboratively formulate the *who* question until the teacher sums it up in line 23 saying, *oh who went to see a basketball game*. Here, the use of an *oh* token to a known utterance is a form of positive assessment that encourages the students (Hosoda, 2015). Towards the end of the co-production of the *who* question (line 22) and as the teacher produces the question in one turn

(line 23), student bids begin from two students already raising their hands to answer this question.

In this excerpt, the microphone gestures functioned to gain attention, allocate a turn, pursue a response and to achieve the pedagogical task of producing a who-initial question. The microphone gesture combined with the teacher clues allowed the respondent to sustain the speakership until the task is completed. The microphone is not only used in the pursuit of response, but also to maintain the relevance of that speakership over multiple turns. The use of turn-moderating microphone gesture over stretches of turns is closely calculated and coordinated with the teacher's agenda. Furthermore, the students' ability to monitor and adjust to the teacher's verbal and non-verbal action and instruction is essential to participating and achieving the task appropriately in this later stage.

## **6.4 Conclusion**

In this chapter, I have shown that the teacher's recurrent use of a specific embodied action, the microphone gesture, was not randomly produced, but is in fact utilized as a meaningful resource to achieve interactional as well as pedagogical goals. Interactionally, the microphone gesture was systematically and recurrently employed by the teacher to organize and modulate turn-taking and turn-allocation. Repeated use of a particular gesture could often lead to recipients adopting the gesture in their talk, a phenomenon known as "return gestures" to remedy troubles in interaction (de Fornel, 1992; Eskildsen & Wagner, 2013). However, interestingly, this gesture was never used by the students throughout the data, which shows how the teacher demonstrated the right and responsibility to manage turn-taking and how learners oriented to this right (Kääntä, 2012;

McHoul, 1978). Selecting a next speaker could be a complicated task in multiparty classroom interaction where many students are present and the teacher attempts to distribute opportunities for every student to participate. The microphone gesture combined with gaze carried out a smooth shift in speakership by publicly displaying an orientation to who the next speaker will be. Secondly, it also served to obtain attention from the other students and have them focus on the interaction. Keeping eight to ten young learners attentive and having them participate in classroom activities for 60 minutes is not an easy task. By utilizing the microphone gesture, the teacher was able to gain attention from the learners and have them focus on the selected interactant by monitoring the activity and displaying their understanding when being selected. Having peripheral participants focus and monitor the on-going activity could lead to peripheral learning and serve as an important device for language learning (Okada, 2010). Thirdly, the microphone gesture served to pursue response when the response to teacher-initiated first pair parts were missing or delayed. Together with the use of verbal production of the first pair part, as well as gaze and rising intonation, the microphone gesture made it relevant for the second pair part to be produced by a selected individual.

Pedagogically, the microphone gesture was employed by the teacher to achieve instructional goals to produce certain types of responses to teacher-initiated turns and manage participation. In Excerpts 1 and 2, the microphone gesture served to prompt a repetition of a teacher utterance co-produced with the gesture after the students' L1 utterance or nonverbal reaction (see Table 2). The microphone gesture functioned to obtain an L2 response from the students by having them repeat the teacher's reformulation and produce expected utterances with appropriate timing and linguistic forms. This sequential position was recurrently used by the teacher and helped to achieve the pedagogical goal of having students produce repetition.

Second, the microphone gesture managed to legitimize participation (Excerpt 3). The student's self-selected turns are a display of learner initiative and demonstrate willingness to participate. However, when they are overlapped with the teacher utterance, or provide answers before the question is initiated, they become disruptive. The microphone gesture served to differentiate the self-selected turns by legitimizing only those turns it allocated. In sum, the teacher's use of the microphone gesture provides an example of the human body being utilized as a resource for achieving both interactional and institutional goals at the same time.

Analyzing how the teacher systematically utilizes the microphone gesture and how students' orient and respond to the gesture are equally important when describing the process of the learners' development of L2 interactional competence. Nguyen (2012), who tracked two novice pharmacists' development of interactional practices over time, states that "an individual's competence development in a given institutional practice can be observed as: (a) increased responsiveness to the meaning of what others say and do; and (b) increased success in attaining the goals of the practice" (p. 8). To take Eisaku, for instance, comparing Excerpt 3 and Excerpt 5, we can observe an increase in responsiveness as well as appropriateness in how he obtains speakership from the teacher. In both excerpts, he is displaying his willingness to take the next turn. However, in Excerpt 3, Eisaku keeps overlapping with the teacher utterance and takes uninvited self-selected turns in sequentially inapposite positions. The teacher did not take up his contributions until his turn was legitimized by the microphone gesture. In contrast, in Excerpt 5 Eisaku continues to raise his hand after the teacher initiation over multiple turns and does not take the turn until he was officially allocated a turn via the microphone gesture. Eisaku therefore demonstrates his increased awareness of actions taken by others, mainly the teacher, and coordinates his action accordingly. He then displays his ability to design a turn that fits with the

teacher's expectations and co-constructs a sentence over multiple turns. In short, Eisaku demonstrates his ability to succeed in attaining the teacher's pedagogical and managerial goals when allocated a turn, thus, demonstrating development of his competence to participate appropriately in this institutional context.

Both Eisaku and the other students have responded to the gesture in a way that displays an increase in their ability to monitor the prior turns produced by the teacher and to deploy and recognize context-specific patterns (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011). From the very beginning, young learners attending this school were exposed to rich L2 input (Excerpts 1 & 2). As recipients of L2 only instructions with little or no L2 proficiency, the students relied heavily on nonverbal clues--body movements, gaze, facial expressions, and object usage--the teacher provided to make sense of the on-going interaction and participate in it successfully. Their ability to closely monitor prior turns produced by the teacher and other students, and recognize the context-specific use of the microphone gesture is displayed throughout the early excerpts. In the later excerpts, even if the students fail to produce responses that fit the teacher's expectations, they demonstrate their understanding of her L2 and attempt to produce a response with the support of the teacher: the microphone gesture combined with DIU and other small clues. Thus, in later sequences, students displayed their ability to respond to the action the FPP has initiated by formulating a sentence with the help of the teacher.

The changes to the teacher's use of the microphone gesture over time are also noteworthy. In fact, it serves as evidence to show that the teacher adjusts the way she uses the gesture to fit the students' ability at that moment. In the early days, the microphone gesture was deployed to prompt repetition of the key phrases in L2 and to manage how and when to appropriately participate in the on-going interaction. In contrast, later on, the microphone gesture

was deployed heavily to pursue responses and prompt original production rather than mere repetitions. This change was brought about not by the teacher's growing ability, but rather changes in her understanding of the students' developing abilities to participate. As mentioned above, students demonstrated the increase in their abilities to monitor prior turns and recognize context-specific patterns. Their growing understanding of how to participate appropriately in this particular classroom context was observed in the interaction through when and when not to speak, how to obtain the turn, and what to say when they have been selected as the next speaker. The teacher's close observation of the students' growth in these abilities led to the changes in the use of the gesture over time.

Furthermore, the study contributes to our understanding of how a specific embodied practice gets recurrently utilized and oriented to by participants in educational settings over time (Eskildsen & Wagner, 2015). By tracking a very specific gesture, the study reveals how turn-taking and speaker shift is organized by focusing on embodied practices employed by a teacher and her students, especially with young learners. Future studies should continue to investigate the systematic use of recurrent embodied practices employed by participants in order to reveal the world of embodiment in classroom interaction.



## **Chapter 7**

### **Discussion and Conclusion**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter summarizes and outlines the implications and findings discussed in Chapters 4 through 6. The dissertation aimed to demonstrate the development of L2 interactional competence of young EFL learners by making vertical comparisons (Nguyen, 2012; Zimmerman, 1999) and examining verbal and nonverbal interactions from a conversation analytic perspective. In this chapter, I will summarize the findings, discuss their academic and pedagogical implications, then move on to limitations and future directions, and finish with concluding remarks.

#### **7.2 Summary**

The aim of this study was to reveal the intricate nature of teacher-centered, multiparty EFL classroom interaction and demonstrate how novice learners display the development of their L2 interactional competence over time. The analysis chapters, Chapters 4 through 6, have addressed this aim by examining young learners' changes in participation, especially in taking self-selected turns, and responding to teacher-initiated sequences and embodied practices. The following is a brief summary of the main findings of the analysis chapters.

By observing his engagement in the recurrent classroom interactional routine (Peters & Boggs, 1986) over time, Chapter 4 provided a vertical comparison (Zimmerman, 1999) on how

one novice learner, Eisaku, developed his L2 IC. The analysis was undertaken following prior research conducted by Nguyen (2012), who defined the development of IC as increasing efficiency in managing institutional tasks, and Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger (2011), who defined IC as diversifying methods in accomplishing situated actions. The chapter tracked the evolution of the novice learner's methods of participation in the interactional routine *What's the date today?* The findings revealed that Eisaku's method of engagement gradually developed in terms of his turn-taking strategies, as displayed in expansion of his involvement in the routine.

In the initial stage, Eisaku and other learners displayed their existing IC by responding to teacher initiation through repeating teacher-highlighted key words and phrases in the L2. Eisaku demonstrated strategies for taking turns by getting the teacher's attention both verbally and nonverbally (Cekaite, 2008a), self-selecting to take a turn, and claiming knowledge in his L1. In the middle stage, learners were able to display their L2 IC by responding to the teacher's verbal prompt to collaboratively complete the DIU initiated by the teacher at the right timing in their L2. In later stages, Eisaku displayed his L2 IC by a) producing responses in full sentences using L2 without any assistance and b) taking initiative in the routine activity by verbally participating. He used the interactional routine as a resource to actively engage in the classroom interaction and thus demonstrated himself to be a competent member. Thus, the findings show that the learner's method of engagement gradually developed as he diversified the ways he took turns by foreshadowing and projecting upcoming actions.

In Chapter 5, the analysis focused on the same novice learner's developing methods of participation through self-selected turns in recurrent post-expansion sequences (Schegloff, 2007). The study revealed that Eisaku's methods of participation developed in terms of turn-taking: choral responses to context-sensitive self-selected talk, sequential positioning, timing, turn-

design, use of linguistic resources and embodied resources. His diversified turn-taking strategies and effective utilization of interactional resources demonstrated his ability to adapt to the locally situated interactional environment and his increased capacity to appropriately participate and contribute to the post-expansion sequence using L2. The display of relevancy and appropriateness of his self-selected turns reflects diversification and increased compliance to the context-specific institutional norms of the classroom interaction.

Chapter 6 described how young learners responded to a teacher embodied turn-management resource, namely the microphone hand gesture, over time. The analysis revealed that the teacher utilized the gesture to allocate turns, obtain attention, pursue responses, and manage participation. Students oriented and responded to the gesture with increasing appropriateness and awareness by designing their turns to fit the teacher's pedagogical expectations and the institutional norms. Thus, the students demonstrated their L2 IC through growing efficiency in managing institutional tasks (Nguyen, 2012) and diversifying methods in participating in teacher expected classroom activities (Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2011). In conclusion, this part of the study investigated how novice L2 users developed their interactional practices of self-selecting turns in interactional routines and recurrent post-expansion sequences, as well as responding to teacher's recurrent embodied turn-allocation.

In contrast, it is also important to briefly touch upon changes in the teacher's practices over time. As mentioned in Chapter 3, IC includes abilities more than being able to use language appropriately as an individual; it also involves context-specific language use, the co-constructive nature of interactions accomplished with interlocutors, and effective utilization of interactional resources to achieve interaction (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011). Because IC is observed through co-constructed interactions with other participants, its development cannot be explained by

analyzing only one side, e.g., the learners' side, but should be considered from both sides, i.e., the learners' side and the teacher's side. In this study, both the students and the teacher demonstrated changes in their practices, as the learners developed their L2 proficiency and IC in turn-taking strategies.

In the earlier stages, to compensate for the limitations in the learner's L2 proficiency and shared knowledge, the teacher's verbal utterances were mostly accompanied with embodied actions. For instance, to establish common resources with the students, the teacher produced turns with marked prosodic design, songs, and artifacts. Deploying embodied interactional resources such as pointing to establish common reference (Goodwin, 2000), and hand gestures to organize turn-taking and turn-allocations (Chapter 6) were also prevalent throughout the data from the initial stages. Furthermore, the teacher's recurrent practices, also described as a *shared repertoire* (Hellermann, 2008), served as resources for students to understand the on-going interaction, anticipate what is expected, and what the relevant actions are. In later stages, the shared repertoires were not only continued but were also expanded and increased in complexity, which afforded new ways of learner participation. As Chapter 6 revealed, the teacher's use of the microphone gesture changed over time in terms of its functions. Earlier, the purpose of the gesture was largely to prompt the students to repeat the key phrases in L2 for participating and practicing. Later on, the microphone gesture served to pursue responses for teacher-initiated first pair parts and prompt original responses from the learners rather than requesting mere repetitions. The changes in the use of the microphone gesture over time display the teacher's adaptation of it in response to the students' development of L2 proficiency and IC. It is important to point out that the changes made by the teacher do not represent the teacher's growing ability but rather her changing recognition of the students growing ability. Thus, the change in

recognition of their ability leads to the subtle adaptations in the ways the teacher deploys the microphone gesture over time.

In short, this study has explored how young learners in an EFL classroom participated in recurrent interactional routines (Chapter 4), monitored and accomplished self-selected turns in recurrent post-expansion sequences (Chapter 5), and oriented to the teacher's recurrent turn-managing gesture (Chapter 6) by analyzing the details of the on-going classroom interaction over time. It has also revealed that the teacher's embodied practices changed over time as the students' L2 IC increased.

### **7.3 Findings and Implications**

This section will discuss some of the theoretical implications the study offers for the field of longitudinal CA-for-SLA for young learners and studies on multimodal analysis in classroom interaction. In addition, pedagogical implications will be discussed in relation to other studies on classroom routines.

Many CA-for-SLA studies on longitudinal development are focused on analyzing the changes of particular linguistic resources and interactional practices (Kasper & Wagner, 2014) among adult learners. However, fewer studies have examined young learners adapting their interactional practices to fit context-specific and locally appropriate methods and adjusting their participation patterns to suit the local norms. The current study contributes to the documentation of how young learners develop their L2 IC in terms of participation practices as they engage in recurrent interaction (Kanagy, 1999) and learn to contribute in a classroom activity co-constructed with the teacher (Cekaite, 2007). CA has indeed provided a rigorous methodological

tool to investigate how young learners co-construct classroom interactions with the instructor and their peers (Palloti, 2001). How language classrooms are managed by the teacher and how interactions and IC are co-developed by the participants need to be examined carefully. Longitudinal studies focusing on young learners are still under researched. Thus, the study contributes to our knowledge on this area of studies.

Next, there has been a growing number of studies that investigate embodied practices employed by learners (Cekaite, 2008; Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Mortensen, 2009) and teachers (Kääntä, 2012) in language classrooms to manage turn-taking and select next speakers. For instance, Kääntä (2012) reported how teachers use gaze, head nods, and pointing to allocate turns in multiparty classroom interactions. Moretensen (2016) revealed how a teacher used a “cupping hand behind ear” gesture to initiate repair in language classrooms. An increasing number of studies are beginning to be conducted to investigate embodied practices in classrooms; however, not many have focused on how a specific embodied practice is formulated and utilized longitudinally. The longitudinal formulation and development of a specific multimodal practice carried out in educational settings has been under-investigated with the exception of recent works (Eskildsen & Wagner, 2015). The study contributes to this field by tracking the changes in use of a specific gesture over time.

The pedagogical implications of the above findings provide insights and suggestions for teacher-centered classroom contexts for teaching EFL to young learners in relatively small-sized classrooms. By observing the teacher’s evolving pedagogical practices of interactional routines, follow-up questions, and embodied allocations, the data provided further understandings of how classroom routines can serve as a venue to expand students’ linguistic repertoire and context-sensitive participation practices that help to develop their L2 interactional competences (Kanagy,

1999). Based on previously shared interactional histories and familiarity with the practices, the recurrent sequences serve as a locus for students to anticipate, project, and provide a space to build upon their abilities to participate and self-select with interactionally appropriately designed turns (Cekaite, 2017). Therefore, the use of interactional routines, recurrent post-expansions and gestures, as well as diversified use of the routines over time, based on the students' developmental stages, will help to promote and maximize participation and learning of the young learners.

#### **7.4 Limitations and Future Directions**

While the study offers implications and new perspectives to fill the gap in existing research, its limitations should also be acknowledged and suggestions for future research should be proposed.

The first limitation should be considered in relation to the study's longitudinal data-collection approach. Due to the accessibility to the research site at the time of the collection, the data set involves irregular intervals. In some cases, I was unable to gain access to the initial instances of when the students were first exposed to a particular teaching practice or routine, e.g., the win-lose post expansion sequence (Chapter 5, Excerpt 1). Although the absence of the first instance did not affect the analysis and the argument of the study, to have the first instance would have enriched the analysis and our understanding of how the routine sequence was first introduced and oriented to by the participants. Further research should keep this point in mind and attempt to collect data regularly wherever possible, in order to make a better comparison to display evidence of "*learning*" (Markee, 2008). Of course, this is not always possible in practice, since it is difficult to predict which practice will eventually be of interest.

The second limitation involves the logistics of the data-collection. In most cases, the data-collection was carried out with only one camera either recorded by the researcher or by having it fixed on a tripod with the researcher moving it from time to time. In two lessons, T5 and T6, two cameras were employed with the help of another observer. Having only one camera limited the amount of access to interactional activities it could capture, as well as the nonverbal features and bodily conduct, such as gaze direction and body movements of relevant participants. The uncaptured scenes of gaze directions, for instance, would have enriched the analysis and made arguments for the next-speaker selection (Stivers & Rossano, 2010) much stronger (Chapter 6, Excerpt 2). Thus, having multiple cameras to cover various angles would be ideal to gain richer analytic perspectives for future research.

Thirdly, the idiosyncratic nature of this classroom and the teacher's practice should also be mentioned. The aim of the study was not to generalize a particular practice, for example the use of the microphone gesture, to all EFL classrooms. Rather, its purpose was to reveal how a particular institutional practice in this classroom gets systematically formulated and oriented to by the participants over time. Thus, having a collection of lessons from the same teacher and students does not cause any issues for the purpose of this study. However, for future research, I would also like to collect longitudinal data from other classrooms taught by other teachers to make possible comparisons and contrasts to further understand teaching and learning practices of EFL classrooms in Japan.



## 7.5 Concluding Remarks

In the past, mainstream SLA studies as well as CA-for-SLA studies have rigorously documented how adults are taught an L2 and how they use and learn L2 in classroom interactions (Markee, 2015). However, the lack of documentation regarding how young novice L2 learners develop their competence has been seriously under-researched in our field. An interactional perspective on young children's L2 learning has become an important area to be investigated in its own right (as evidenced by the recent journal launched in 2017 with the sole focus on this topic: *Research on Children and Social Interaction*) and has indeed become a growing field of interest. One of the aims of this study was to fill a gap in the literature by documenting the publicly observable evidence of interactional development of young novice EFL learners in Japan. Furthermore, the study has contributed to the area of longitudinally designed CA-for-SLA studies analyzing L2 interactional development by tracking participants' specific interactional practices, e.g., self-selections and responses to a gesture, observed in recurrent sequences.

Lastly, with the advancement of technology to collect video-based data, analyzing how multimodal features interplay with verbal conduct in educational environments has been gaining growing interest.<sup>13</sup> Another aim of this study was to contribute to the area of video-based research by analyzing the teacher's and young learners' embodied practices in EFL classroom interaction. Thus, the empirically based evidence and detailed analysis provided insights to deepen our understanding of the world of teaching and learning L2 of young learners, the process of longitudinal development, and the use of multimodal resources in classrooms.

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<sup>13</sup> See *Learning How to Look & Listen: Building Capacity for Video Based Social & Education Research* [www.learninghowtolookandlisten.com](http://www.learninghowtolookandlisten.com) project launched in 2016

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## APPENDIX 1

### 1.1 TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

[	The point where overlapping talk and/or gesture starts
]	The point where overlapping talk and/or gesture ends
(0.0)	length of silence in tenths of a second
(.)	micro-pause less than 2/10 of a second
<u>underlining</u>	relatively high pitch
CAPS	relatively high volume
::	lengthened syllable
-	cut-off; self-interruption
=	'latched' utterances
?/./,	rising/falling/continuing intonation respectively
!	animated tone, not necessarily an exclamation
( )	unintelligible stretch
(word)	transcriber's unsure hearings
(( ))	transcriber's descriptions of events, including nonverbal conduct
hh	audible outbreath
.hh	audible inbreath
(hh)	laughter within a word
> <	increase in tempo, as in a rush-through
< >	decrease in tempo
◦ ◦	a passage of talk quieter than the surrounding talk
↑	higher pitch begins
↓	lower pitch begins

T:	Teacher	SS:	Students choral response
S:	An identified student	E, K, Sh, M:	Identified student
♪:	Start of the song	♪:	End of the song
\$:	Smiley voice	@:	Animated voice

(based on Gail Jefferson 2014, Balden & Hepburn, 2017)

### 1.2 ABBREVIATIONS FOR THE INTERLINEAR TRANSLATION FOR JAPANESE

CO: Copula

IP: Interactional Particle (e.g. *yo*, *ne*)

### 1.3 TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS WITH MULTIMODAL ASPECTS

In Chapter 6, I adopt the transcription conventions that include multimodal aspects. “Gestures and descriptions of embodied actions are delimited between two identical symbols (one symbol per participant) and are synchronized with correspondent stretches of talk.” (Mondada, 2014)

* *	delimits gestures and actions done by the <b>Teacher</b>
▪ ▪	gaze by the Teacher
+ +	delimits gestures and actions done by <b>Shizuka</b>
† †	gaze by Shizuka
△ △	delimits gestures and actions done by <b>Kanta</b>
△ △	gaze by kanta
(▲ ▲	delimits gestures and actions done by <b>Kanta’s mother</b> )
⊥ ⊥	delimits gestures and actions done by <b>Takuya</b>
∞ ∞	delimits gestures and actions done by <b>Eisaku</b>
∠ ∠	delimits gestures and actions done by <b>Kota</b>

“The action described continues across subsequent lines until the same symbol is reached.”

\*--->

----->\*

>> “The action described begins before the excerpt’s beginning”

---->> “The action described continues after the excerpt’s end.”

..... “Action’s preparation.”

----- “Action’s apex is reached and maintained.”

,,,,,, “Action’s retraction.”

tea Participant (in this case the Teacher) doing the embodied action when (s)he is not the speaker

fig “The exact moment at which a screen shot has been taken”

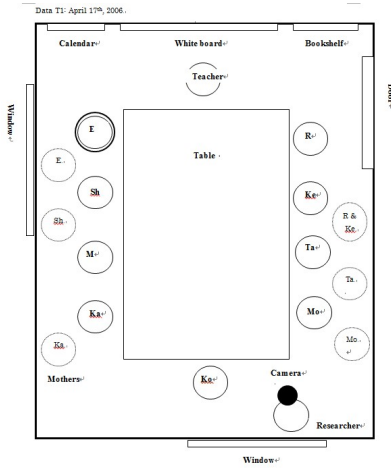
# “is indicated with a specific sign showing its position within turn at talk.”  
(e.g., #fig 1)

### 1.4 ABBREVIATIONS FOR EMBODIED ACTIONS

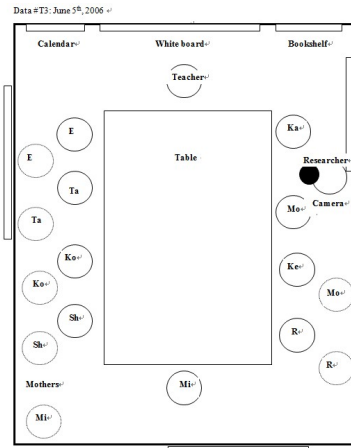
RH/LH	right hand/left hand
p	pointing

## APPENDIX 2 CLASSROOM LAYOUT AND SEATING

**[T1-04/17/06]**



**[T3-06/05/2006]**



**Abbreviations**

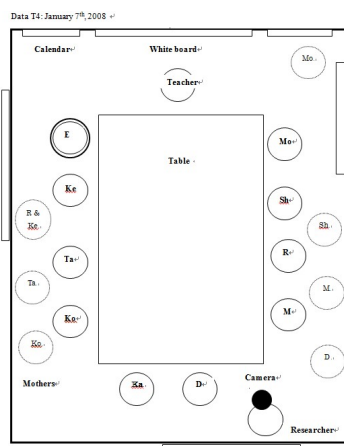
### **Circles:**

E: Eisaku, Sh: Shizuka  
Ke: Kanta, R: Rikako  
Ta: Takuya, Ko: Kota  
Mo: Momo, Ka: Kanako  
D: Daniel, M: Miyu

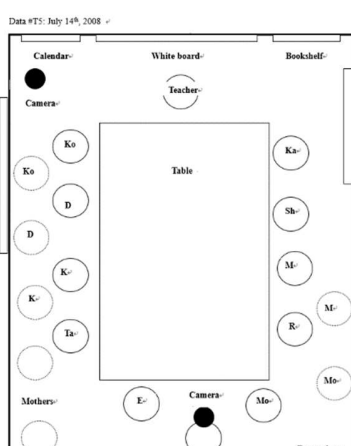
### **Circles in dotted lines:**

Mothers of students  
(Note: Ke and R are twins)

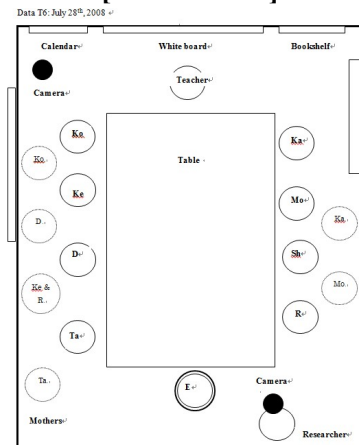
**[T4-01/07/08]**



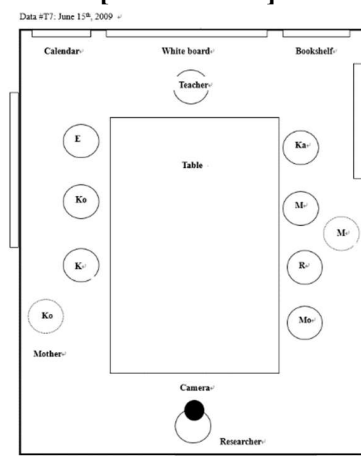
**[T5-07/14/08]**



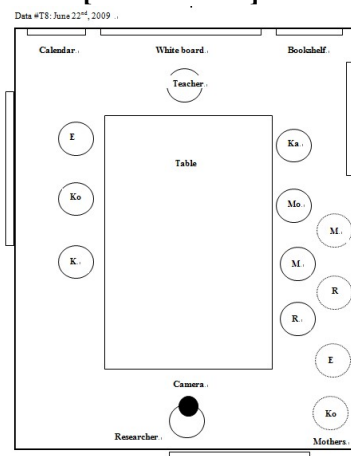
**[T6-07/28/08]**



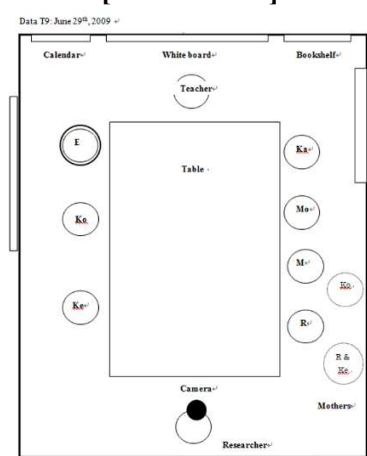
**[T7-06/15/09]**



**[T8-06/22/09]**



**[T9-06/29/09]**



## PARENTAL CONSENT FORMS

Permission to use the video recordings in public forums:

### Purpose of this Research:

The purpose of the research is to investigate how classroom interaction influences second language learning.

### What You Will be Agreeing:

If you agree to give permission to use the video recordings in public forums, you will be agreeing to:

- 1) Allow me to use your child's video recordings in conference presentations.
- 2) Allow me to use your child's video recordings for my thesis.
- 3) Allow me to use your child's video recordings to share in public meetings.

### Your Rights:

To Confidentiality:

- The recorded classroom interactions and your child's class work will remain totally confidential so that your child cannot be identified. This means that his/her name will not be mentioned in the research paper, publications, or presentations. Your child's name will appear in pseudonyms.
- The video recordings will not be used in any public forum unless I get specific permission from you.

To Ask Questions at Any Time:

- You may ask questions about this research at any time. Please contact me at (XXXX) XX-XXXX, or email me at [xxxxxxx@hawaii.edu](mailto:xxxxxxx@hawaii.edu) whenever you have questions or concerns.

To Withdraw at Any Time:

- Participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You are free to stop your participation at any time during the project with no penalty.

### Benefits:

This study will help the investigator to better understand and analyze how effective English teaching is conducted through a classroom interaction. As a result, this study will not only improve my own teaching, but also find out how language teachers interact in a classroom in English. Moreover, this study will help to better understand how language learning is occurring.

### Possible Risks:

There will be no potential risks or discomforts involved in this study.

### Signature:

I have read and understood the above information. I agree to accept the researcher to use this study and obtained data at public forum, such as conference presentations and academic defense. I know that I can ask any questions at any time about the research. I have been advised that I am free to withdraw any consent and discontinue participation at anytime, without any prejudice or loss of benefits. If the researcher cannot answer my questions or if I have complaints or comments I can contact: Committee on Human Studies (CHS), University of Hawaii, 2540 Maile Way, Honolulu, HI 96822. Phone: (808) 956-5007, or [uhirb@hawaii.edu](mailto:uhirb@hawaii.edu).

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of the participant: Please print

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of the participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

### 研究参加同意書（保護者）

研究題目：英語教室における対話の相互作用と英語学習における影響

研究目的：本研究は教室における先生と生徒の対話が学習者の英語学習にどのような影響があるのかを分析いたします。

同意内容：あなたのお子様が参加している研究で分析されたビデオデータの公共の場での使用に関する許可をされた場合、以下のことを承諾して頂きます。

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この研究によって得られる利益：本研究は教室における対話を分析することで実際にどのような対話が効果的な英語教授につながるかを理解する手助けになります。この研究の結果、研究者自身の英語教授法が向上するだけでなく、実際にどのように英語の先生が英語で生徒と対話をするのかを発見し記述することができます。また、この研究によってどのように英語が教室で学ばれているのかをより理解することができます。

予想されるリスク：この研究における人体への予想されるリスクはありません。

署名：私は公共の場において録画されたビデオが研究者によって学会の発表や修士論文の発表などの公共の場公開されることを理解した上で、それを許可することに同意いたします。研究者がわたしの質問に答えられない場合、以下の機関に問い合わせます。 Committee on Human Studies (CHS), University of Hawaii, 2540 Maile Way, Honolulu, HI 96822. 電話: (808) 956-5007, Email: [uhirb@hawaii.edu](mailto:uhirb@hawaii.edu).

以上、公共の場においてビデオデータが使用されることを許可致します。

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参加者の保護者の名前: 活字体

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参加者の保護者のサイン

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日付