A MULTIMODAL CONVERSATION ANALYTIC STUDY OF WORD-SEARCHES IN L2 INTERACTION

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Abstract

Studies on face-to-face interactions have demonstrated how spoken language involves not only verbal but also a mutual collaboration with embodied actions. Embodied actions, such as gaze, gestures, body posture and physical movement are part and parcel of the details of ordered social interaction, and they can be significant resources in interaction (Hazel et al., 2014). This study has investigated the embodied actions displayed in word search phenomenon in L2 interaction. Word search is regarded as a type of self-initiation repair in which the progressivity of the speaker’s turn is momentarily ceased due to an item (i.e. word) is not available to the speaker when due (Schegloff et al., 1977).

The context of the study is a non-educational context (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Firth and Wagner, 2007; Gardner and Wagner, 2004) where casual conversation among international university students having dinner at a cafe is recorded. Furthermore, the study is a multiactivity setting in which multiparty participants are engaged in talking, eating and drinking. The L2 speakers are from different countries, and most of them have a different first language background. This study examines conversations between L2-L2 speakers communicating in English as it is the most common language that international students resort to when speaking with someone who has a different language background.

Using multimodal Conversation Analysis (CA), this study aims to explore how participants with different language proficiency exploit embodied actions as resources in word search sequences. The analyses start with investigating how participants get into a word search and then moves to enquiring how participants use embodied actions for constructing a joint solution. The final analysis focuses on how embodied actions are used as a resource to resolve a word search when the targeted word is not attained.

The findings from the investigation suggest that there is a relationship between talk and embodied actions in word search sequences among L2-L2 speakers. Based on the findings, six salient themes will be discussed; (1) the interactional phenomenon of a ‘word search’, (2) resources that are recognised as opportunities for co-participation, (3) joint solutions by non-speaking participants, (4) meaning-making through embodied interaction, (5) achieving mutual understanding through embodied negotiation, and
(6) language use or learning in the wild. Overall, this study advocates the need for an in-depth exploration of multimodal resources in word search sequences, which can have significant implications to understand that language use is fundamentally multimodal (Seyfeddinipur and Gullberg, 2014).
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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Conversation is a process in which people socialise and establish a relationship with one another. When people engage in conversation, it functions as a major part of their everyday life which serves as the foundation for other forms of communication and social organisation (Atkinson and Heritage, 1984). Even though everyday conversation seems mundane, the structure of the conversation is usually dynamic, multi-layered and intricately designed. Additionally, rather than simply conducting a conversation using the spoken language, there are more critical components that are involved in conversations, such as gaze, gestures, body posture, variation in voices, silence, and the real-world context in which the conversations take place. Many argue that language goes beyond the spoken word – particularly ‘gesture’ related research. Therefore, adopting a Conversation Analysis (CA) perspective, conversation in this study is described as interactive, locally managed and systematic. This study aims to investigate the embodied actions displayed in word search phenomenon in second language (L2) interaction.

The first part of the introductory chapter briefly reviews a broad range of the literature before introducing the methodology used for this study. The following sections will describe the context of this research. Next, the research questions that inform this research and the significance of this study will be addressed. Finally, an outline of the thesis organisation is provided.

1.2 Research Overview

1.2.1 Word Searches in L2 Interaction

Studies on face-to-face interactions have demonstrated how spoken language involves not only verbal but also a mutual collaboration with the embodied actions. However, how do these embodied actions work when speaking? How are they associated with spoken language? When and where do these embodied actions occur and what are their functions in interaction?
In recent years, there has been an upsurge of interest in understanding the full arsenal of resources that people rely upon when interacting (see also, Deppermann, 2013; Nevile, 2015; Mondada, 2016a, 2016b). In addition to spoken language, the role of verbal and embodied actions, including gestures, gaze and body positioning as well as material objects, as valuable resources in the systemic social order and as crucial points in a conversation has been recognised by a number of scholars (Mortensen, 2013; Hazel et al., 2014). Moreover, the increased attention to examining talk and embodied actions have also been established as a promising direction for future studies in the field of Second Language Acquisition (Mori and Hayashi, 2006). As Carroll (2004) suggested:

[the] lack of attention to body behaviours represent not only a gap in the research but a serious methodological blind spot which future research must address. (p. 219)

Drawing on videotaped mundane second language (L2) interaction, this study takes a conversation analytical framework as an approach to examining Second Language users’ (henceforth L2 users1) (see Cook, 2002) interactional routines in real-life interactional settings. Thus, the interactional phenomenon that will be investigated in this study is on word search sequences.

Word search is regarded as a type of self-initiation repair in which the progressivity of the speaker’s turn is delayed due to an item (i.e. word) is not available to the speaker when due (Schegloff et al., 1977). Word searches can be marked with non-lexical perturbations, such as cut-offs, hesitation markers (i.e. “uhm”) or sound stretches (Kurhila, 2006; Schegloff et al., 1977). When speaker initiates a word search, he/she can make a self-repair or other participants can offer a candidate word solution. Thus, the speaker and other participants will negotiate their intersubjective understanding before they resume the previous action that was momentarily ceased. There are three phases that could be identified in word search sequences: the launching of the search; the search in progress; the resolution of the search (Chiarenza, 2010).

1 Cook (2002) referred the term L2 user as a person who knows and uses a second language at any level for real-life purposes.
Word search is commonly found in our everyday conversation. Thus, this phenomenon is not an exclusive to L2 speakers\(^2\) only, but is also common with first language speakers (henceforth L1 speakers) (Kurhila, 2006).

Word searches are prevalent in various kinds of interaction and they have been examined in first language (L1) conversation (e.g., Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Lerner, 1996; Hayashi, 2003; Laakso, 2015) and L2 conversation (e.g., Kurhila, 2006; Funayama, 2002; Brouwer, 2003). An accomplished word search is not merely a distinct task as achieving the outcome “is relevant to the talk in progress, since it is precisely some type of outcome that will permit the interrupted talk to move to word completion once again” (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986, p. 56). Besides talk, the role of gaze and gesture are significant in the activity of a word search such as an invitation for a co-participant to join in the search activity (ibid.). In the course of word searches in second language study, studies have found that L2 speakers employ various interactional resources (such speech, gaze and gesture) to achieve understanding (e.g., see Carroll, 2004; Kurhila, 2006; Mori and Hayashi, 2006; Chiarenza, 2010; Greer, 2013; Hauser, 2013).

Another important aspect of word search in face-to-face communication is its relation to spoken language and embodied actions as well as object manipulation (see, e.g., Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Carroll, 2000; Funayama, 2002; Hayashi, 2003; Olsher, 2004; Greer, 2013; Markee and Kunitz, 2013; Hauser, 2014; Greer, 2017)\(^3\). For example, the gaze direction displayed by participants in interaction can be a powerful tool. The speaker can indicate an invitation for another participant to join in the search, and the speaker could convey that he or she is in a solitary word search process by gazing away from other participants by producing a ‘thinking face’ (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Other than gaze, there are also other embodied practices that are utilised by L2 speakers when completing their verbal utterance. The display of gestures

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\(^2\) The notion ‘native speaker’ (NS) versus ‘non-native speaker’ (NNS) and ‘learner’ versus ‘user’ have been contested in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field (e.g. Firth and Wagner, 1997). Recently, many SLA scholars have used the more neutral ‘first language speaker’ (L1) and ‘second language speaker’ (L2) instead of NNS and NNS (Gardner and Wagner, 2004) – further discussion will be given in Chapter 2. I will use the term L2 user and L2 speaker as person who uses L2 because the terms are relevant to reflect the participants in my data and the context of the study, using L2 outside the educational settings.

\(^3\) Review of these studies will be given in Chapter 2
or other embodiments when completing a verbal utterance are considered interactional embodied practices (termed ‘embodied completion’), and are utilised to assist L2 speakers (Olsher, 2004; Mori and Hayashi, 2006).

Previous studies related to L2 word search studies are between L1-L2 speakers. Although there are L2 word search studies between L2-L2 speakers, these speakers have the same language backgrounds such as Japanese speakers conversing with each other in English. Moreover, the studies on word-searches in L2 interactions are in an institutional or educational context (e.g., Carroll, 2000; Olsher, 2004; Greer, 2013; Hauser, 2013) and casual conversation between L1-L1 speakers of Japanese (Hayashi, 2003; 2005). The study by Mori and Hayashi (2006), which looked at L1-L2 speakers interacting in the Japanese language, is an exception. A study by Hayashi (2003; 2005) explored various practices of language and embodied actions in the study of word search between L1 speakers of Japanese and he found that the embodied actions provide publicly available resources for the recipients to organise their relevant co-participation during word search activity. Although word search has been studied in L1 interaction and L2 interaction, there is a lack of documentation in CA study that examines the relationship between language and embodied actions in word search sequences in L2 interaction. More research is needed to look at the more common non-institutional reality of L2 speakers communicating with other L2 speakers without sharing an L1.

As this study aims to investigate talk and embodied actions in word search sequences between L2 speakers who have a different L1 background, the CA approach will be adopted. CA is a methodology that has a primary interest in analysing the organisation and orderliness of talk-based social interaction (Sacks et al., 1974; Heritage, 2008). Thus, CA methodology has been applied to ‘everyday’ and ‘institutional’ settings (Drew and Heritage, 1992; Mondada, 2014). CA is not only concerned with conversation alone but also with a broader provenance of studying the talk and other forms of conduct (e.g. embodied actions) in all forms of talk in interaction (Schegloff et al., 2002; Streeck et al., 2011).

Adopting CA to examine second language interaction, this study will explore the diverse embodied actions that are deployed by L2 speakers. The video data recordings of L2 interactions in a non-educational setting (i.e. a cafe) will be transcribed in detail
and multimodal resources will also be annotated. The transcription, which is the representation of the data, will be analysed using an ‘emic’ perspective. Thus, using CA, the central focus of this study is to explore the talk and embodied actions in word search sequences in L2 interaction.

1.2.2 Early Studies on Gesture and Interaction

The development that led to the emergence of studying human behaviour and body motion in communication was due to the opportunities afforded by video and the mass marketing of new ‘videotape technology’ in the 1970s (Heath, 2004; Streeck et al., 2011). Some of the pioneering work studying the organisation of behaviour in face-to-face interaction emerged in anthropology research conducted in the late 1960s and early 1970’s by scholars such as Adam Kendon, Ray Birdwhistell, and Albert Scheflen.

Inspired by Goffman’s 1963 work on people’s behaviour within an interactional occasion, Kendon’s early work drew on studying topics related to gaze and gestures in social interaction (Kendon, 1967, 1972). For instance, in Kendon’s 1967 studies on seven couples of university students getting acquainted observed the relationship between where the individuals gaze and take turns at talk. Kendon proposed that the individual’s gaze direction during interaction “may function as a signal regulating the exchange and maintenance of speaker role” (1967, p. 60). Therefore, in his study on the functions of gaze in talk, he found that gaze could serve as monitoring and signalling in talk, which plays a role in turn-taking organisation.

Kendon observed that there is a relationship between body motion and speech, and in his 1972 study of dyadic communication he described how body motion was organised and patterned in relation to speech. Kendon’s analysis particularly looked at movement that is accompanied by or associated with speech uttered by a single individual, and he found from the analysis the relationship between body motion and speech as two related aspects in the process of utterance (Kendon, 1980; 2004). Kendon thus referred to the character of the movement as ‘gesticulation’ (1972), while he later termed the visible action as ‘gesture’ (Kendon, 2004).

On similar ground with Kendon, Birdwhistell’s (1970) work on body motion in communication has also had an influence on research on human communication in
different disciplines. Birdwhistell studied how people demonstrate facial expression, posture, gesture and movement of other body parts when communicating and interpreted these movements as kinesics. Much of Birdwhistell’s work was based on his writings as an anthropologist on the desire to study overall body movement as a form of communication.

Working in line with Birdwhistell was Scheflen, another leading authority on the study of kinesic behaviour. Based on Scheflen’s 1972 work, he showed that kinesic behaviour or body behaviour is related to personal and individual experience. In Scheflen’s examination of facial expression, posture, body movement and touch combined with spoken language have mainly served to control human behaviour and maintain the social order. In his examination on recorded video tapes on one of his office colleague’s speaking behaviour, he found that the head and hand gestures are formed as the word or phrase is uttered (ibid.). Scheflen (1972) also observed that “…the gestures serves both to depict what is being said and to punctuate the sentence [and at] the end of the syntactic sentence a speaker pauses or stops his vocalization and makes a specific change in his pitch level” (ibid., p.48, italics as original).

Most of the work of these leading authorities studies gaze, gestures and body behaviour in interactional situations with the means of context analysis (e.g. Kendon, 1980, 2004; Birdwhistell, 1970; Scheflen, 1972). Although context analysis and conversation analysis differ in their approach in studying gestures and body movement in social interaction, both approaches are similar approaches for examining human conduct in a naturalistic setting (Hazel et al. 2014).

As noted above, the use of ‘videotape’ allows researchers to study accounts of body movement in interaction, and thus the advantages of video recording intersected with CA in the mid 1970’s (Sacks and Schegloff, 2002). Although the early work of Sack’s and his associates had focused on talk to describe sequential organisation and orderliness, an interest in body behaviour was developed as they started to work with video materials (ibid.). As Sacks and Schegloff (2002) found, body behaviour such as gesture, gaze and other movement is sequentially organised in interaction. They suggested:
If you examine the behavior of eyes in interaction, one thing you can repetitively enough watch happen is that, in multi-party interaction, some collection of the current non-speakers in the talk will direct their eyes at someone who has been selected to speak next before that one starts to talk. You have, then, a bit of body behaviour organized by reference to what we have elsewhere described as the turn-taking organization of conversation. It is a sequentially organized phenomenon. It is sequentially organized – though it’s body behaviour – by virtue of sequential organization of the talk, and is ordered with respect to it. (2002, p. 136, italics in original.)

Central to the interest of studying gestures and the use of body in social interaction is Charles Goodwin’s work, which began in the 1980’s onwards. His research has focused on many aspects of language and interaction, including not only talk but also a range of various embodiment or semiotic resources displayed by the body and how structure in the environment contributes to the organisation of gesture (e.g., Goodwin, 1979; Goodwin, 1980; Goodwin, 1986; Goodwin, 2000; Goodwin, 1999; Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004). For example, in his early work (1979) using data collected videotape recordings as an interaction analyst, he investigated the interactive construction of sentences which emerged with conversation. In this study, he examined the relationship between the movement of the speaker’s gaze and utterance through the use of transcription.

In another example (2003a; 2003b), Goodwin showed how archaeologists’ talk is complexly coordinated with embodied actions, such as hand gestures, to accomplish archaeological work. Through his analysis, Goodwin (2003a; 2003b) has revealed that multiple participants take each other’s embodied actions into account as they build relevant action in concert with one other. In his 2003a study, Goodwin examined multiparty interaction in the setting of an archaeological field excavation and he found that the use of pointing (using hand gesture or tools) as situated a practice. He found that when the pointer gazed down towards the region being pointed at and then to his/her addressee, the addressee gazed towards the various spaces indicated by the pointer’s body. Much of Goodwin’s area of research includes investigation into the interactive construction of talk (e.g. Goodwin, 1979; 1980; 2003a; 2003b), embodied action in the organization of story (e.g., Goodwin, 1984), gestures and embodiment
Presently in the CA research field, Charles Goodwin is known as one of the leading researchers in the field, and has influenced many CA researchers, including scholars who have an extended interest in researching embodiment in face-to-face interaction. From the perspective of CA research, the naturalistic perspective for the description of social order as *in situ* organisation of participants-in-interaction in an everyday setting is critical. As Mondada (2008) stated, “language is seen as not an abstract set of potentialities but as situated action, organized in temporal and sequential unfolding of its uses, mobilized with other multimodal resources such as glances, gestures, bodily postures and body movements” (p. 4)

As mentioned earlier in this section, the use of technology contributes to the upsurge interests of studying human behaviour and body motion in communication. As the interplay of embodied actions and talk are both multifaceted and diverse, using video recordings in CA research has provided opportunities to potentially explore the role of language and embodied actions in interaction.

### 1.3 Research Context

Over the last two decades, the number of international students studying at institutions of higher education in the UK has increased rapidly. It was reported that 438,010 international students from various countries were enrolled into UK universities in 2015-2016 (UKCISA, 2017). The entry of international students into UK universities has led them to offer a welcoming international environment that could provide incoming international students with the opportunity to experience the education systems, social networks, and to learn and use English in social interaction (Taha and Cox, 2016). Hence, with the increasing number of international students, language skills are essential as these skills can affect their academic and living experiences and personal development (Bista and Foster, 2016; Zhao and Ng, 2016). Hence, one way in which language skills can be developed is through communicating with other people verbally.
Many universities provide language support for international students whose first language is not English. However, international students also routinely develop and use their communicative abilities through mundane, social interactions with other international students. Therefore, the central aim of the study is to investigate talk-in-interaction among international students in their everyday conversation. When these students come together, communicating with one another is important as part of building and developing language skills. Moreover, as many of these international students come from a different language background, English is often used as a contact language in the educational context and outside of the educational context. However, although they have different levels of language proficiency and they also do not share the same mother tongue, L2 users show themselves to be resourceful and skilled interactants in their attempt to make meaningful and significant social interaction (Firth and Wagner, 2007). As Canagarajah stated:

[L2 users] monitor the form and conventions the other brings; they learn to ascribe meanings to their form and conventions; they monitor their own form and convention to negotiate communication (2007, p. 927)

Recently, studies investigating second language conversations among L2 speakers or L2 users in an educational context have increased in number (see, e.g., Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Ikeda and Ko, 2011; Sert and Walsh, 2013; Hellermann and Lee, 2014; Pekarek Doehler and Fasel Lauzon, 2015; Sert, 2015; Leyland et al., 2016; Hazel and Mortensen, 2017). However, it is also essential to understand and to explicate how L2 users interact outside of the educational context and to explain what L2 users actually do in everyday, social settings (Firth and Wagner, 2007; Canagarajah, 2007; Canagarajah and Wurr, 2011). Researching beyond the classroom will offer more insights into how language use and acquisition have been taking place effectively among L2 users, L2 speakers (Canagarajah and Wurr, 2011).

With this in mind, this study focuses less on learning in L2 and more on understanding and elucidating the use of L2 or L2 characters and lingua franca interaction in settings outside of the classroom (Firth and Wagner, 2007). As Gardner and Wagner (2004) stated, investigating “outside the classroom context as a means of deepening insights into L2 users’ interactional performance” (p. viii) calls for more
studies on L2 to go ‘beyond the classroom’ (Wagner, 2004; Wagner, 2015).

Furthermore, Schegloff, concerning examining talk outside of the classroom, stated in an interview with Wong and Olsher (2000):

> The talk that language learners are going to have to do when they’re not in the hothouse of the classroom is situated in the real world where they have real things to do, and that’s the talk that people ideally should be recording and studying if they want to understand what the real world problems are for those who are speaking a language that is not their native language. (p. 121)

The parameters of L2 studies outside of the classroom and away from typical teacher-learner interactional settings have begun to expand in various ordinary L2 settings (Gardner and Wagner, 2004), such as institutional settings, office in educational settings (e.g., Kurhila, 2006), students’ counselling meetings (e.g., Hazel and Mortensen, 2014), peer discussion (e.g., Olsher, 2008; Kasper and Kim, 2015), one-to-one tutorial settings (e.g., Belhiah, 2009; Seo and Koshik, 2010; Seo, 2011), and help desk service encounters (e.g., Hazel and Mortensen, 2014; Mortensen and Hazel, 2014). Although studies on L2 use outside of the classroom have begun to increase, classroom-based research still dominates the empirical field of L2 interaction and many everyday contexts remain unstudied, including the cafe setting.

The research context of this study is to investigate international students talking and eating together in a cafe. After attending lectures, students may want to take a break from their class schedule and gather with friends to chat and eat together. Therefore, it is common that these group of friends may sometimes gather in cafes. Conversation in the classroom environment, institutional setting, group discussion, and tutorial settings are found to be formal as they are more goal-oriented (Drew and Heritage, 1992). On the other hand, conversation that takes place in a cafe may typically be more convivial and relaxed (Laurier and Philo, 2006; Laurier, 2008). Thus, as international students gather with other international friends in a cafe, the conversation that takes place is likely to be livelier and friendlier and without institutional consequences, for instance, an orientation to pedagogical focus. Furthermore, as L2 interaction takes place in a cafe, there are much more avenues to explore as to how talk is organised, attended and transformed, including the trajectories
and orientation of body resources in the natural settings of a café as an environment (Laurier, 2008).

Therefore, aiming to investigate the accomplishment of L2 interaction in real life, the analysis will be based on video-recorded interaction among international students chatting and having dinner together in a natural setting (i.e. a café). One of the advantages of using video technology is that it allows researchers to analyse how language, embodied conducts, surroundings and object manipulation are synchronised, coordinated and mutually informing of one another (Broth et al., 2014). Thus, using a CA approach to multimodality allows a fine-grained analysis of talk, embodied actions and manipulation of objects as they occur in L2 interaction in naturally occurring situations (Mortensen, 2013). Furthermore, to understand how participants organise talk and embody actions in actual interaction, through the video recorded data CA allows us to look at the systematic approach to the conversation so as to perceive its dynamic structure and rules (Ten Have, 2007).

1.4 Purpose of the Study and Significance of the Study

This study is concerned with ways in which L2 users work together in negotiating meaning and organising participation through talk and embodied actions in word search sequences. I attempt to shed light on the means in which the conjoined participation and coordination of utilising talk and embodied actions for meaning-making and thus intersubjectivity in L2 interaction is accomplished. Observing participation as a “temporally unfolding interactively sustained embodied course of activity” (Goodwin, 1996: 375), the phenomenon of word search will be analysed as interactional practices in L2 use.

This study seeks to understand, (1) how spoken language and embodied actions are associated with word searches, (2) the interactional dynamics of L2 users outside formal educational settings, and (3) how informal conversation is carried out between L2 users who do not share the same mother tongue. Therefore, to achieve the purpose of the study, the following research questions have been designed:
1) How are talk and embodied actions mobilised by L2 participants to organise their relevant participation in word searches?
2) How do recipients utilise speakers’ projective talk and embodied actions to achieve a collaborative solution in a word search?
3) How are talk and embodied actions deployed by L2 participants to maintain and reclaim intersubjectivity in situations which the L2 participants do not find the targeted searched-for word?

This study is significant for several reasons. Firstly, it adds valuable insights to the growing body of research using CA in second language interaction, and thereby will contribute to the study of interaction between people who do not share the same language background or mother tongue. Secondly, many studies in second language look at classroom or other educational settings (e.g., student discussion groups, tutoring sessions), whereas this study aims to understand and explicate the use of L2 or lingua franca interaction outside of the classroom or other formal institutional settings (Firth and Wagner, 2007). Another important reason that this study can be considered a contribution to existing research is on account of its focus not on talk but rather on multimodal resources in interaction. The study aims to appreciate the intricate ways that L2 speakers rely on various resources, spoken language and embodied actions, to achieve intersubjectivity. This is not just a study about multimodal resources; it is about appreciation of L2 users’ skills and abilities when interacting in a language that is not their mother tongue, and is such rejects the stance employed in the traditional Communication Strategies’ research that view L2 speakers as deficient communicators. This study is also much more than just the study of word search sequences; it gives a chance to offer a radically new approach to further our understanding of language use, our understanding of interactional competence in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research and in applied linguistics.

1.5 Thesis Outline

In this chapter, I have introduced the overview of the research, the research context, the research questions and the significance of the research. In Chapter 2, I will review the relevant literature on communication strategies and word searches, word
searches in CA studies and embodied actions in L2 studies. Chapter 3 provides the description of the CA methodology which has been employed in the study. This chapter will describe the epistemological foundations of CA, using video in the study of social interaction, CA and multimodality and the rationale for using CA for this study. In Chapter 4, the research design provides the description of the research setting, the participants, data collection procedures and ethical issues. The methodological and analytical considerations of this study, the transcription and analysis procedures for embodied actions will also be considered in this chapter.

Chapter 5, Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 provide the analyses and findings of exploring the talk and embodied actions that occur in word search from a CA perspective. The three analysis chapters are laid out in three related areas connected to the research questions. Chapter 5 provides an analysis of the collaborative participation in the word search sequence. Chapter 6 will focus on the joint solution in the word search by an addressed participant and by a non-speaking participant. Chapter 7 will examine how participants utilise talk and embodied actions to resolve the word search where the actual word is not achieved.

Chapter 8 considers how the findings contribute to the six salient themes that emerged for further discussion: (1) the interactional phenomenon of a ‘word search’; (2) resources that are recognised as opportunities for co-participation; (3) joint solutions by non-speaking participants; (4) meaning-making through embodied interaction; (5) achieving mutual understanding through embodied negotiation, and; (6) language use or language learning in the wild. Finally, Chapter 9, will offer how this study contributes to the field and suggestions for future research.
Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I review the literature that will establish the importance of conducting a study on word searches from a CA perspective. This chapter aims to situate this study in the area of second language interaction. Particularly, it will contribute to the growing body of research investigating the spoken language and embodied actions (e.g., gaze, gestures, body posture) in interaction between participants who do not share a first language in an informal setting.

The first section of this chapter will be the review of literature related to early studies that have categorised word searches as one form of communication strategy. Following this, research that considers alternative approaches for second language studies and studies using a CA methodology in researching communication strategies are outlined. Furthermore, under the CA framework, word search studies in L1 data and L2 data will also be reviewed. Next, the chapter moves on to briefly review the establishment of CA and multimodality research. The chapter will conclude by reviewing research on multimodal resources in word search sequences and highlighting the lack of research exploring the use of spoken language and embodied actions in word search study in L2 interaction.

2.2 Communication Strategies and Word Searches

The word search phenomenon has been conceptualised by early second language communication research as a lexical search problem during talk (Raupach, 1983). Major early second language studies investigated communication strategies such as ‘searching for word’ or ‘lexical searching’ have viewed it as a communication problem due to the L2 learner’s lack of linguistic knowledge (e.g., Færch and Kasper, 1983; Poulisse, Bongaerts and Kellerman, 1984; Kasper and Kellerman, 1997). Bialystok (1990) claimed that these strategies are used only when the L2 speaker observes that there is a problem which could interfere with communication. As such, communication strategy research is intrigued by an L2 speaker’s experience in overcoming linguistic problems encountered in interaction.
As defined by Færch and Kasper (1983), communication strategies, which include word or lexical searching, are “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (p. 36). A similar notion is also reflected in Poulisse et al. (1984), who examined learners’ strategies due to a lexical shortcoming in L2 production. In their definition, a communication strategy is “strategies which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of problems arising during the planning phase of an utterance due to his own linguistics shortcomings” (Færch and Kasper, 1983, p. 72).

In comparison to the communication strategy concepts of Færch and Kasper (1983) and Poulisse et al. (1984), both focused on communicative problems and observed solving strategies as the L2 speaker’s experience of a problem-solving activity. Kasper and Kellerman (1997) regarded the problem-solving activity as the concept of a ‘mental plan’ employed by L2 speakers to compensate with lexical difficulties. Furthermore, Kasper and Kellerman (1997) suggested that for the researcher to understand how communication strategies are used by L2 speakers, the investigation should be carried out under specific conditions of communication. The suggested conditions in which L2 speakers may display communicative problems are when:

1. they wish to talk about a concept but do not have the lexical resources;
2. they have the resources, but they are not able to recall them; and
3. due to contextual limitations, the available resources cannot be used successfully.

However, the three categories mentioned above are specified on lexical communication strategy research within the psycholinguistic perspective which has an interest in problem in speech production and their solutions. The communication conditions can lead to communication disruption, and this is due to the speakers’ lack of linguistic knowledge (Færch and Kasper, 1983; Poulisse et al., 1984; Kasper and Kellerman, 1997). Thus, under the notion of communication strategy, they have sought to discover how the individual learner manages communication problems which are based on ‘problemacity’, ‘goal-orientedness’ and ‘consciousness’ (Færch and Kasper, 1983).
However, under the communication strategy umbrella, Yule and Tarone (1991) argued that investigating problems in communication involves two-way communication, especially in the course of which problems or difficult decisions require a negotiated joint solution. They suggested to study the communication strategy in interaction and the analyst is encouraged to use an analytical framework that analyses at both side of the conversational exchange (ibid.) Considering Tarone’s (1980) definition of an L2 learner’s communication strategies, she stated that the use of communication strategy is “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (p. 420, emphasis added in italics). In Tarone’s views, communication strategies are tools that are used in a joint negotiation of meaning between two interactants in making an attempt to negotiate and agree to achieve a communicative goal (Tarone, 1980; 1981).

Thus, from Tarone’s (1981) perspective, communication strategies are “seen as attempts to bridge the gap between the linguistic knowledge of the second-language learner and the linguistic knowledge of the target interlocutor in real communication situations.” (p. 288). Her view was a proposal to develop a framework for the study of communication strategies. Even though Tarone (1981) proposed that communication strategies have an ‘interactional function’ by emphasising that both speaker and listener are actively involved in negotiation of meaning, Bialystok’s (1990), Færch and Kasper’s (1983) and Kasper and Kellerman’s (1997) interest continues to explore the individual L2 learner only.

Bialystok (1990) argued that although Tarone’s (1980) and Færch and Kasper’s (1983) definition of communication strategies differ in details, the definitions of communication strategies in Tarone’s (1980) and Færch and Kasper’s (1983) have similar coverage of three features, namely, problematicity, consciousness, and intentionality. Briefly, according to Bialystok (1990), problematicity is the idea strategies are used only when there is a problem; consciousness is implicit and speakers are aware when making a decision to employ communication strategies and; intentionality refers to a speaker’s control over a selected strategy to solve communicative problems (see Bialystok, 1990, p. 3-5).
Nonetheless, early communication strategy study on an L2 speaker’s word searching activity came under the psycholinguistic perspective, and this limits the way interactions and understanding are co-constructed in talk (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Wagner and Firth, 1997). The psycholinguistic perspective emanated from an interest in the individual’s experience in speech production. Speech production was seen as a communication strategy rooted in an individual’s cognitive processes (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Wagner and Firth, 1997). Thus, the psycholinguistic perspective has its limitation and has been criticised by many researchers (e.g., Rampton, 1997; Wagner and Firth, 1997).

Rampton (1997) argued that viewing a communication strategy as a phenomenon rooted in an individual’s cognitive processes offered only a limited understanding; communication strategy needs to be further understood from a sociolinguistic perspective, which embeds communication strategies in a set of broader, socially situated interactions. He argued that communication strategies constitute the “quintessential L2 moment” (ibid, p. 283) in which there is a complicated fusion between “discourse processing and the recognition of language learner…” (ibid, p. 283). Rampton suggested that communication strategy needs a rather more open-ended approach in an ethnographic framework which would broaden the subject area to the outside world by investigating larger groups (Rampton, 1997, p.279-283).

Relatedly, Wagner and Firth (1997) suggested researching L2 communication strategies from an interactional perspective by adopting the conversation analytical approach to investigate communication in a natural setting. Although Yule and Tarone (1991) suggested investigating communication with an analytical framework that looks at both sides of interactional exchange, their views still fall within the psycholinguistic paradigm (Wagner and Firth, 1997). Therefore, Wagner and Firth (1997) contended that the interactional approach is “best served by cutting its theoretical ties with the psycholinguistic question of language acquisition” (p. 324). As such, the interactional approach that Wagner and Firth (1997) suggested was to investigate how communication is accomplished as a situated, contingent, locally managed achievement. Within the psycholinguistic approach, communication strategies are defined as elements of the speaker’s cognitive processes (ibid.). While, an interactional approach, communication strategies are defined as elements of the interaction (ibid.). Therefore,
what Firth and Wagner found crucial is to elucidate how talk is produced and responded to by the participants. Thus, the emphasis is on the social instead of the individual’s cognition.

Firth and Wagner (1997) further put forth their case for more representation for social side as they made a call for a reconceptualisation of SLA research. They contended that there is an imbalance which is “weighted against the social and the contextual, and heavily in favour of the individual’s cognition…” (Firth and Wagner, 1997, p. 288). They argued that within the psycholinguistic approach, the ‘learner’ is portrayed as defective communicator which focuses on the ‘learner’s’ linguistic deficiencies and communicative problems. Their concerns were on the aspects of the predominate studies that look at L2 use as ‘difficulty’, ‘problematic’. Following their (ibid.) concerns, Firth and Wagner contended that L2 research should explicate how members, individually or conjointly, overcome difficulty in talk. What they proposed is that L2 research should focus on ‘successful’ communication (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Firth and Wagner, 2007).

Following this argument, Firth and Wagner (1997) also critiqued binary thinking prevalent in much SLA research, such as learner versus user and non-native and native speakers. They argued that the binary opposed terms of native and non-native has created bias as the use of ‘native’ speaker is implicitly linguistically superior. Secondly, there is a generalisation on how an L2 user using the L2 in an everyday situation (i.e. a non-educational setting) is perceived as a ‘learner’. Firth and Wagner (ibid.) proposed using the emic approach (looking at the aspects of the SLA from the participants’ point of view), it would help researchers to understand the multiple identities that L2 users, L2 speakers have in the interactions (e.g. students, teacher, costumer, friend and mother). Firth and Wagner (1997, 2007) called for a more socially grounded stance in L2 research. What they postulated is a reconsideration to carry out research in second language that examines ‘communicative success.’ This is reflected in their finding from their study on business interaction that “people often succeed in communicating in a foreign language even with quite limited communicative resources” (Firth and Wagner, 1997, p. 288-289). In order to achieve a more balance between cognitive and social orientation to SLA, Firth and Wagner (ibid.) specifically call for “(a) a significantly enhanced awareness of the contextual and interactional dimensions of language use, (b)
an increased emic (i.e. participant-relevant) sensitivity towards fundamental concepts, and (c) the broadening of the traditional SLA data base” (p. 286).

As noted above, word searches in the cognitive perspective involve communication strategies that are used by the speaker to overcome linguistic problems in interaction which is consciously planned as a form of problem-solving activity (Kasper and Kellerman, 1997). However, within the interactional perspective word searching is a communicative experience that can reveal to the analyst the elements of the meaning-creating process in the ongoing communication (Wagner and Firth, 1997). In interaction, participants constantly and conjointly show their attempt to use all available resources (i.e. repair mechanism) to create and (re)negotiate meaning (ibid.). Wagner and Firth (1997), adopting an interactional perspective, stated:

‘Disruption markers’ not only show researchers that speaker appears to experience a problem in expressing what the speaker wants to say. They do the same for the interlocutor. They effectively ‘flag’ an (upcoming) problem… (p. 325).

The element of flagging provides the participants with information about how a participant’s actions or utterances are to be interpreted and acted upon, and ‘flagging’ can be done through verbal or non-verbal conduct (Wagner and Firth, 1997). Hence, Firth and Wagner (1997) put forward a more interactional approach in investigating interactional practices (such as word searches) in L2 studies. Furthermore, they posited an increased interest in the emic perspective (i.e. participant-relevant) using naturalistic data in second language interaction research. Kurhila (2006) also argued for an interactional approach when she pointed out that communication strategy research in experimental setting (see, e.g., Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989) is lacking in interactional aspects. Experimental settings may be attributable in part to the etic approach (from the researcher’s perspective) to data analysis. The experimental setting can be ‘researcher-provoked’ ones as it can manipulated and thus it does not reflect ‘real-life’ (Ten Have, 2007). Thus, taken from the interactional perspective, to understand the word search phenomenon an investigation from an emic approach is required for a close analysis of the organisation of interaction.
In sum, traditionally, in SLA research, a word search is a phenomenon whereby a speaker needs to express something but has experienced a problem in conveying that something due to having lexical difficulties resulting from a lack of linguistic knowledge. Hence, considering the discussion on previous studies in this section, the present study will examine word search phenomena from the CA approach that can enhance the understanding of interactional competence development of L2 users. Interactional competence refers to the L2 speaker’s ability to negotiate meanings with another L2 speaker using spoken language and embodied actions in their social word (Hall and Pekarek Doehler, 2011). According to Hall and Pekarek Doehler (2011), interactional competence “implies the ability to mutually coordinate [social] actions” (p. 2).

2.3 Word Searches in CA Studies

Word searches are common occurrences in most everyday conversation, and are not exclusive to L2 speakers (Kurhila, 2006). In interaction between L1 speakers word searching can also take place. Since the development of CA by Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), CA researchers have studied the phenomenon of word search in a variety of interactional contexts in L1 conversation (see e.g., Goodwin, 1981; Goodwin, 1986; Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Lerner, 1996; Hayashi, 2003) and in L2 conversation (see e.g., Kurhila, 2006; Funayama, 2002; Brouwer, 2003; Carroll, 2004; Ikeda, 2007; Chiarenza, 2010; Greer, 2013; Siegel, 2016). In CA study, a word search is regarded as belonging to a repair organisation (Schegloff et al., 1977). The term ‘repair’ in word search activity describes participants’ management of trouble in an ongoing interaction which can be related to problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding the talk. According to Schegloff et al. (1977), a repair organisation can be initiated on different aspects of talk-in-interaction, and this can also depend on who initiates the repair and who completes the repair. Thus, repair can be initiated by the speaker (self-initiated) or by the recipient (other-initiated), and likewise, the speaker can complete (self-repair), or the recipient (other-repair) can complete a repair.

Word searches are phenomena in which the progressivity of the speaker’s turn is momentarily ceased and the speaker pauses to search for the next appropriate candidate item in talk. Word search sequences present three phases: the launch of the search, the
search in progress, and the resolution of the search (Chiarenza, 2010). The occurrences of trouble or word search in talk may be labelled as ‘trouble source,’ which is then resolved through repair. Therefore, a word search is a specific kind of self-initiated repair also known as forward oriented self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977; Sacks and Schegloff, 1979; Schegloff, 1979; Carroll, 2006; Greer, 2013). Thus, in word search sequences, the possible combinations can be as follows:

(1) Self-initiated/self-completion: where the speaker initiates a word search in the talk and completes the search;

(2) Self-initiated/other-completion: where the speaker initiates a word search in the talk but the recipient completes the search.

Furthermore, the launches of word search could be indicated through speech perturbation in the speaker’s utterance, such as hesitant speech (e.g., er, uhm), stretched sounds, and cut-offs (Schegloff, 1979). Subsequently, the speech perturbation in the mid-turn utterance has a function to trigger the possibility for repair, which could also be referred to as repair initiation techniques (Schegloff et al., 1977). Consequently, in the occurrences of word search, the speaker and other participants in the interaction need to renegotiate their mutual understanding in the search sequence before they resume to previous action that was momentarily ceased.

2.3.1 L1 Word Search Studies

During the 1980s, seminal studies by Charles Goodwin and Marjorie Goodwin contributed to the great impact of CA in the field of research investigating word search phenomena. Marjorie Goodwin (1981) and Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) identified non-verbal characteristics that are displayed in word search activity. In her study, Goodwin, M. (1981) claimed that searching for words is an interactive activity between speaker and hearer, and she found that there was an integrated use of vocal and nonvocal behaviours, such as the use of gaze and bodily display in the interactive organisation of word searches. Following this, Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) expanded the study of word searches to include the analysis of gestures in relation to co-participation. In their 1986 study on an ordinary conversation between L1 speakers in various natural settings, they found that the employment of non-verbal conduct in word
search attained “meaning by virtue of its placement within an activity which is clearly recognisable to the participant to be a meaningful event” (1986, p.52).

Gestures and gaze employed are found to be significant features displayed by the participants in word search activity (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). In their data analysis of approximately 50 hours of natural conversation in a various settings, Goodwin and Goodwin indicated that the speaker can convey that he or she is engaged in a word search process by gazing away from other participants and producing a characteristic ‘thinking face’ expression. Furthermore, they also noted that the gaze withdrawal and ‘thinking face’ features can be an indication to other participants that the speaker is undertaking a solitary word search.

They further suggested that while the speaker is in a word search progress, the recipients normally shift their gaze towards the speaker (ibid.). As Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) stated:

…as the thinking face gesture is a visible indication of continued engagement in the word search and is a reason to wait for talk, even though the speaker is silent, such visual phenomena are consequential for recipients, even in cases where entry into the word search is signalled vocally. In essence such visual phenomena make available not simply what happened in the past, but what is happening at the moment; the speaker remains involved in the word search and thus it is relevant for the recipient to continue to attend her. (p. 72)

Gaze direction can also demonstrate that the recipients are continuing to show their orientation to the talk. Therefore, the recipients’ gaze behaviour at the speaker can be an indication that recipients are attending to the word search activity and they are also allowing the speaker to produce the word being sought (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). In addition, if the speaker re-engages his gaze to the recipients, it is an indication that the speaker has invited the recipients to co-participate in the word search activity. Therefore, the invitation through the speaker’s gaze direction at the recipients allows the recipients to display their co-participation in the talk by producing a possible sought-for word. Thus, Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) stated that the demonstration of word searching is not solely a cognitive process that occurs in the speaker’s mind but rather is a visible activity that other participants not only recognise but can also participate in.
In another word search study of L1 interaction, Lerner (2004) noted that the construction of the word searches is designed for recipients to provide a conditional entry to help in the search. In his 2004 study on collaborative turn sequences between two participants, Lerner (2004) pointed that when the speaker’s mid-turn utterance is halted, and thus a word search is indicated through hesitation or stretched sounds, space is provided for the recipients to provide a possible next candidate word item. However, when a recipient has suggested a candidate word completion, the current speaker can either accept or reject it. Moreover, the opportunity for entry in the construction of word search may be offered as ‘immediate’ and ‘delayed’ contributions (ibid.).

Lerner (2004) also stated that if a candidate item by a recipient in a word search is delayed or held off, the current speaker is given an opportunity to produce his candidate item, or, as Schegloff et al. (1977) called, making a self-repair. Hence, the production of the candidate item can often be as a ‘try-marked’ guess (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979). In most cases, the word search occurrences in L1 ordinary conversation are usually resolved immediately in the same turn or the following turns. However, word search sequences in aphasic conversation can be lengthy and often engage co-participation in the resolution of the word search (Laakso and Klippi, 1999).

A study by Oelschlaeger’s (1999), who investigated a three-party conversation between clinicians with persons with aphasia and their (non-aphasic) conversation partners, discovered that there is a collaborative solution in the aphasic speaker’s word search. She found that the conversation partner’s participation in word searches of a person with aphasia is determined by interactional techniques and interactional resources. Furthermore, Oelschlaeger (ibid.) pointed out that the aphasic speaker employs direct invitation to determine his partner’s participation through asking an explicit question (e.g., “What is that?”) along with gazing towards his/her partner. In this case, the gaze direction is employed as an indication for the co-participant to join in the word searches (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986).

Oelschlaeger (1999) also found that when an aphasic speaker shifts his/her gaze downwards with verbalisation of “can’t think of the name of it”, this serves as an indirect invitation for co-participation. Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) pointed out that a gaze away from the person who is doing a word search can indicate that an intervention in the search is not desired. However, although the person with aphasia does not look at
his/her conversational partner, Oelschlaeger (1999) stated that the conversational partner takes this as an indirect invitation for co-participation. In addition, conversational partners utilise interactional resources such as shared experience to formulate their participation. Therefore, it can be observed from Oelschlaeger’s (1999) study that the conversation partners monitor their partner’s ongoing talk, and can thereby determine their participation to provide the sought candidate item and complete their partner’s ongoing word search (Lerner, 1996).

In another study of conversations of an aphasic speaker, Oelschlaeger and Damico (2000) found that the conversational partner assists the aphasic person’s word search through using communication strategies systematically. Studies by both Oelschlaeger and Damico (2000) and Oelschlaeger (1999) presented that the conversational partner collaborates in the aphasic speaker’s word search by offering words for resolution. However, Laakso (2015) noted that the collaborative participation shown between persons with aphasia and their conversational partners differs from their therapist in a therapy session. Their findings indicated that when the therapist is invited to join the search verbally and non-verbally, the therapist does not join in searching by offering words. Instead, the therapist encourages the aphasic speaker to continue the search by asking questions or offering their candidate understanding.

Thus, Laakso (2015) suggested that collaborative word searching by using questioning techniques can be a form of therapist’s encouragement to allow persons with aphasia to experience smooth flow conversational communication. Searching for words in L1 interactions is a common phenomenon in most conversational contexts. However, the word search frequency and the search sequences’ length can vary between a conversation with normal speakers and conversation with persons with aphasia in a non-therapy session and therapy session (Helasvuo and Laakso, 2004).

In the context of L2, a word search phenomenon is also common. However, the occurrence is more likely among participants who share a different level of linguistic knowledge or resources (Kurhila, 2006). Moreover, it is also important to emphasise that when an L2 speaker initiates a word search, it does not mean that the speaker does not know the word that is searched for; it could be that the speaker has failed to recall it

2.3.2 L2 Word Search Studies

Second language interactions are normal conversations in which the talk is collaboratively constructed by all participants (Gardner and Wagner, 2004). Since the publication of Firth and Wagner’s 1997 paper called for an epistemological and methodological broadening in the field of second language studies, CA methodology has been embraced in numerous areas of L2 interaction studies (e.g., Markee, 2000; Gardner and Wagner, 2004; Kurhila, 2006; Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Pallotti and Wagner, 2011). Therefore, in L2 interaction, whether it is L1-L2 interaction or L2-L2 interaction, educational context or non-educational context, a word search phenomenon does occur, and it has been studied as a form of interactional practice (e.g., Kurhila, 2006; Brouwer, 2003; Carroll, 2004).

A study by Funayama (2002) examined word search in the cross-linguistics setting. In her study, she found that participants in the cross-linguistic workplace setting overcome language barriers by demonstrating a collaborative engagement with co-workers’ word search activity. As observed in Funayama’s (2002) study, L2 speakers supplement their linguistic inability with the linguistic resources of the L1 speaker. As an example, in an L2 speakers’ word search, the L1 speaker provides the word and the L2 speakers’ only repeat it. Thus, the L2 speaker’s word search is a learning process while the L1 speakers providing the sought-for word is a teaching process. Funayama’s (2002) study also regarded word search as an effective activity which improvises teaching and learning of a target language embedded in a task-oriented interaction. Although the L1 and the L2 participants have different levels of linguistic knowledge, the use of gestures to specify which word is being searched for is also significant in her study.

Brouwer (2003) investigated word search sequences between L1 and L2 Danish interaction. Similar to Funayama’s (2000) findings, Brouwer also discovered that the word search sequences may create opportunities for language learning. However, contrary to learning by repeating the candidate word provided in Funayama’s (2000)
study, based on Brouwer’s (2003) audio-recorded data, she depicted that opportunity for language learning is created when making a request for help from an ‘expert’ in the target language.

Brouwer (2003) described that requesting help from L1 speakers by using explicit word search markers such as “I don’t know what it is in Danish”, “Is it Danish?”, “I don’t know how to say it?” or “What does one say?”, opportunities for language learning can happen for the L2 speaker. Thus, the explicit markers in word search sequences can indicate that the L2 speakers demonstrate an orientation towards a language expertise, which is the L1 speaker who has a better language competence.

Therefore, in her 2003 study, Brouwer stated that the L2 speakers experiencing ‘doing learning’ in word search sequence are asserted from two characteristics. The first characteristic is recognised when the speaker invites a recipient into the search sequence. The second characteristic is through the speaker’s and recipient’s orientation, such as one participant being a novice and the other being an expert. Nonetheless, she also stressed that “such an expert need not be a NS, or even a person who is generally better at the language…” (Brouwer, 2003, p.542). Furthermore, the turn completions provided by L1 speakers are significant in eliciting the learning of L2 speakers, such as showing acceptance and acknowledgement. Additionally, Brouwer also demonstrated that in a situation where an L1 speaker supplements a candidate word, the L2 speaker recognises the contribution as relevant and incorporates it to build her turn-under-construction. Thus, by incorporating the word provided, this is then demonstrated as language learning.

In another word search study, Kurhila (2006) found that word searches are not necessarily indications of a participant’s lack of linguistic knowledge. In her study of L1-L2 Finnish interaction, Kurhila (ibid.) noted a similar situation to Brouwer’s 2003 study in which a speaker sought help from a recipient. However, Kurhila found that both the L1 and L2 speaker can initiate a word search. She also found that the L1 speaker did not only request help from the L2 speaker through uttering explicit search markers (e.g., “what is it?”, “What’s the word?”), but also that the L1 speaker made an attempts to seek for assistance in the search process through formulating interrogative utterances along with shifts in gaze towards the L2 speaker. Thus, by involving the
recipient in the search process, the L1 speaker treats the L2 speaker as a knowing participant, and this creates an expectation for the recipient to contribute a solution.

Furthermore, Kurhila (2006) noticed that word searches can be in the form of lexical searches or grammatical searches. Kurhila defined grammatical searches as the occurrences where “the speaker gives a recognisable version (at least of) the stem of the word, but the completion of the word appears problematic.” (p. 124). She found that grammatical searches are often initiated by the L2 speaker. As for lexical searches, Kurhila found in her analysis between L1 speakers and L2 speakers, that the L1 speakers usually search for lexical items. Whereas L2 speakers search for lexical and syntactic items. Kurhila also found cases in her data that speaker provides new lexical item to as a candidate word. Consequently, in attempting to resolve the search, the speaker demonstrates possible ways for word search solution by producing loan words, ‘fennicised words’ and semantic contiguity (Kurhila, 2006). The use of loan words refers to words from other languages and ‘fennicised words’ refer to modification of words from another language that fit the Finnish grammar and pronunciation. Alternatively, the L2 speaker also uses semantic contiguity, which relates to providing a description of the unknown word to the recipient. In her in-depth analysis of word search sequences, Kurhila (2006) demonstrated that L1 and L2 speakers of Finnish language show collaboration in the search sequence.

In another study, Koshik and Seo (2012) examined search sequences in a one-on-one conversational tutoring session between an English teacher and a language learner. Koshik and Seo (2012) identified different forms of word search sequence patterns. Two typical patterns that are produced in word search sequences are:

(1) Self-initiated/self-completed
   A: initiates word search
   A: provides solution

(2) Self-initiated/other-completed
   A: initiates word search
   B: provides candidate solution
   A: confirms/disconfirms candidate solution
Alternatively, Koshik and Seo (2012) discovered other word search sequence patterns that frequently occurred in their data, as shown below:

- A: initiates word search
- A: provides candidate solution
- B: confirms/corrects candidate solution

Koshik and Seo (2012) found that the language learners who initiate the word search sometimes provide their own solutions and their teacher confirms or corrects the candidate solution produced. Therefore, when language learners provide their candidate solution, it is often accompanied with a rising intonation and gazing towards the teacher.

Furthermore, it can also be understood that the candidate solution that ends in a rising intonation is an indication for the learner’s use of a ‘try-marking’ it (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979). As mentioned by Sacks and Schegloff, ‘try marking’ is when “a speaker anticipates that the recognitional form being used will on this occasion, for this recipient, possibly be inadequate for securing recognition” (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979, p.18). Thus, when learners anticipate a ‘try-marked’ word, it could indicate that they are uncertain of the word choice and they thus utter the ‘try-marked’ word in a rising intonation and direct their gaze to their teacher (Koshik and Seo, 2012).

Consequently, Koshik and Seo (2012) indicated that the teacher usually recognises the rising intonation and the eye gaze as a request to provide confirmation or correction. When the learners initiate a word search and request for confirmation or correction for the candidate solution from their teacher, this is then known as a way of ‘doing being a language learner’. In doing this, learners put their teachers in a position of relatively more knowledgeable person.

Similarly, Hosoda (2006) noted how ‘doing being a language learner’ can be employed in vocabulary check sequence. In her study of 30 data sets, approximately 15 hours in total, of L1 and L2 Japanese conversation, she reported that L2 speakers occasionally stop their utterances when they are uncertain with the correctness of a candidate vocabulary produced in their talk by marking it with rising intonation. Thus, Hosoda found that the vocabulary check sequence process is regarded as L2 speakers making a request for confirmation or correction from the L1 speaker. Furthermore, she
also demonstrated how differential language expertise was made relevant in occasions when one participant invite another participant in the search sequence and when the participants have a problem in achieving mutual understanding.

In another context of word search study, Reichert and Liebscher (2012) investigated peer interaction in informal non-classroom learning settings. The language learners that are featured in their data are three university students who meet to discuss a group task assigned by their German language teacher. Reichert and Liebscher (2012) found that the learning opportunities are created in peer interaction of foreign language learners. In their study, they noted that opportunities for learning in word searches are created through the negotiation of peers’ positions as experts or ‘knowers’ in the interaction. Moreover, negotiation of expertise role in word search process can also include the use of objects (e.g., a laptop). For example, the students clarify the meaning of the unknown word by doing a search on a laptop, and thus they facilitate the learning process with their peers through giving an explanation and giving instruction.

In a recent study of word search, Siegel (2016) investigated the longitudinal development of word search sequences among L2-L2 English speakers. In her study of L2 interaction that took place in a dormitory setting, she discovered word search sequence patterns of the participants that had changed over time. The patterns of word search sequence of the current speaker showed a preference towards progressivity and participants were likely to display an orientation to secure intersubjectivity. Siegel (2016) also described that these changes in the patterns of the word search sequence of the speaker are an adaptation towards their interactional partner. In her study on word search sequences, she found how the individuality displayed different changes over time. As Siegel (2016) stated:

some displayed new ways of securing intersubjectivity during word searches while others did not, and some showed cultural learning and a developing relationship, while others did not, and some displayed stronger orientation to the word search sequences as a learning opportunity, while others showed weaker orientation (p. 256)

Siegel also found that as time developed, the interactional partners showed changes in which they demonstrated less other-correction towards their partner’s word search
activity and less other-correction can be suggested as missing the opportunities of language learning (ibid.).

Word search sequences are actions where collaborative achievement is accomplished between participants in which CA methodology allows such research of social interaction to be examined in various social actions and activities. It is also shown that non-verbal interaction, such as the role of gaze, are significant in understanding the organisation of word search activity (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Furthermore, the word search phenomenon is not just a communication strategy that the L2 users, L2 speakers use when they encounter trouble in interaction. Adopting a CA perspective enables us to go beyond the spoken language in word searches such as exploring facial expression, gaze, hand gestures, body orientation, physical activities, the use of objects and surroundings that highlight the importance of word search studies. Furthermore, the fine-grained analysis of multimodal resources in interaction can enhance in understanding development of interactional competence of L2 users (Hall and Perakek-Doehler, 2011)

2.4 Conversation Analysis and Multimodality

CA has a primary interest in the study of how social action is organised in interaction. Social interaction is an intrinsically multimodal activity in which talk, gaze, and gestures are finely coordinated within multifaceted physical surroundings to perform coherent social action (see, e.g., Broth et al. 2014; Hazel, Mortensen and Rasmussen; 2014; Heath and Luff, 2013; Mortensen, 2013; Mortensen and Hazel, 2014; Streeck et al., 2011; Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004). Over the last few years, a growing number of CA studies have incorporated the interplay of talk and multimodal conduct in the accomplishment of social interaction in various contexts, such as institutional setting (e.g., Mondada 2013, 2012, 2007; Hazel and Mortensen, 2014; Hindmarsh and Heath, 2000; Heath and Luff, 2007), everyday ordinary setting (e.g., Mondada, 2009: Laurier, 2008; Goodwin, 2007; Goodwin, 2007) and educational settings (Mortensen, 2009; Olsher, 2004, 2008; Markee, 2008; Markee and Kunitz, 2013).

The works of Lorenza Mondada have provided significant contributions to exploring the participants’ organisation of multimodal resources from a CA perspective
in an institutional setting and ordinary setting as well. In her study, Mondada (2007) investigated how multimodal resources (e.g., pointing) are utilised by participants to establish speakership in work meetings. From her analysis of a group of people sitting around a table, Mondada (2007) showed that the emerging turn among participants is constructed with the use of pointing gestures while discussing, writing notes and looking at maps. Mondada (ibid.) showed how a recipient displayed pointing gestures from her stretched arm across the table to show direction with a pen towards a map, have emerged as a method for self-selection. She also showed the use of pointing gestures as predicting possible turn completion in the current speaker’s ongoing turn that has not reached its completion. Thus, in her 2007 study, Mondada analysed multimodal practices such as pointing gestures as features of turn-taking and sequential organisation.

In a similar study centred on the organisation of gestures and talk, Streeck (2009a) discussed gestures within embodied interaction. In this study, Streeck showed that hand gestures can facilitate interaction which is positioned as joined comprehension within the unfolding turn and sequence of talk-in-interaction, and he referred to the ways of using this gesture as forward-gesturing. Forward-gesturing can prepare the recipients for something to come in the next slot, such as foreshadowing the content of what ought to be said (e.g., flagging hand gestures to reject a request). Furthermore, in his findings, Streeck (2009a) found that to understand the roles of talk and gestures depends on where the multimodal resources are inserted in the interaction, such as at pre-beginning, at mid-turn, or at turn-completion. Thus, the forward-gesturing with hands that is made at each of the positions (e.g., pre-beginning, at mid-turn or at turn-completion) has its circumstances, such as facilitating the talk or displaying alignment (Streeck, 2009a).

Another study showed how participants coordinate gaze and body orientation for joint attention and construct joint interactional spaces within pre-beginning and opening sequences (Mondada, 2009). In her study, focusing on interaction between strangers in public places, Mondada described how, when a person is approached by a stranger requesting directions, a range of multimodal resources that are displayed by the participants are sequentially ordered in time and in a finely tuned coordination (e.g., walking, body position, gazing and talking). She also noted that mutual arrangement is
important between strangers in public places as the progressivity of their movements shows the participants’ transition from moving to standing and transformation from unfocused pedestrians to focused ‘would-be-imminent-co-participants’ (ibid.)

Mortensen and Hazel (2014) documented study that focuses on the opening phase of interaction at a help desk at an international university. In their study, they demonstrated that in the opening phase the student, who is a client, and the service provider negotiate interactional space through embodied processes which are systematically and sequentially established. They showed that interactional space at a help desk counter established from being co-present to co-participant is also displayed as sequentially organised movements in space. They described this movement in space as moving into focused interaction. Moving in interaction, such as encounters at a help desk, involves the coordination of displaying noticing and gaze orientation, walking, the accountable manipulation of objects in surroundings, facial gestures, postural orientation, and greeting sequences (Mortensen and Hazel, 2014).

A more recent study on object manipulation investigates how pedestrians who use a map on their smartphones affects their walking actions that are connected to the map app (Laurier et al. 2016). In their analysis of the people walking, talking and using the mobile app for wayfinding, they described that “walking is one part of the gestalt of action which sustains the intelligibility (and unintelligibility) of what [people] are doing in ongoing real time” (Laurier et al., 2016, p. 131). In their 2016 study, they identified that people perform different actions of walking, such as merely walking, unilateral stopping, turning, restarting, catching up, walking ahead and walking beside, as well as changing direction. Thus, the multiple involvement of doing things while walking in their study showed how smartphones are used and interacted with by walkers as a form of mediated pedestrian mobility to accomplish walking together (Laurier et al., 2016).

We can therefore see how multimodal CA (Mortensen, 2013) has demonstrated that embodied actions and the use of multimodal resources constitute significant interactional accomplishment in CA studies. CA studies extends our understanding of the organisation of talk-in-interaction such turn-taking organisation (e.g., Mondada, 2013; Mondada, 2007; Hayashi, 2005; Perakek-Doehler and Pochon-Berger, 2015), and repair organisation (e.g., Mortensen and Hazel, 2016; Seo and Koshik, 2010; Hayashi et
al., 2013; Greer, 2017). The next sub-section reviews the organisation of embodied actions in relation to turns at talk, such as exploration of the forms of participation.

2.4.1 Embodied Actions and Participation

In the 1980’s, Charles Goodwin’s seminal studies empirically established ground-breaking insights into how the organisation of gaze between speaker and recipient affects the turn at talk. He showed how the use of restart, pause and hesitation in a speaker’s turn-beginning managed to secure the recipients’ gaze (1980). Therefore, gaze among participants in interaction plays a role not only in the emergence of talk but also in the turn-taking system. Furthermore, gestures and their relation to talk were also established in the ground-breaking study of interaction by Charles Goodwin and Marjorie Goodwin. The Goodwins, (e.g., Goodwin, 1986; Goodwin, C. 1981; Goodwin, 1990; Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004) found the coordination of gaze, gestures and talk to be a meaningful event. As Goodwin and Goodwin (2004) stated:

Speakers attend to hearers as active coparticipants and systematically modify their talk as it is emerging so as to take into account what their hearers are doing. Within the scope of a single utterance, speakers can adapt to the kind of engagement or disengagement their hearers display through constant adjustments of their bodies and talk (p. 222)

They showed that participants are mutually working in concert to organise their ‘participation’ in talk (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004).

The concept of ‘participation framework’ was proposed by Goffman (1981) in his article on “footing”. Footing refers to participant status in which a single participant aligns and manages the production or reception of an utterance. His study of participation was concerned with the distinction of participants in which one analytic framework is provided to study ‘speaker’ and a different framework for ‘hearer’. Goffman’s concept presented an analytic point of departure as an important approach to the study of participation.
However, Goodwin and Goodwin (2004) raised the issue of the consequences of Goffman’s concept, in which they contended that Goffman’s notion of ‘speaker’ and ‘hearer’ are categorised as living in different worlds. Furthermore, Goodwin and Goodwin (2004) pointed to other limitations of Goffman’s concept of participation framework. The argument that Goodwin and Goodwin (2004) raised regarding Goffman’s participation framework were:

(1) no resources were provided to investigate exactly how participants monitor each other’s process of building utterance;
(2) no resources were offered for investigating how participation is dynamic and interactively organised;
(3) it privileged analytical speech over other forms of embodied actions which might be important form in the study of participation.

As for Goodwin and Goodwin (2004), they approached the concept of participation as a continuous collaboration engagement between participants. Thus, their perspective of the notion of participation is:

description and analysis of practices through which different kinds of parties build action together by participating in structured ways in the events that constitute a state of talk (2004, p.225, italics in original)

Hence, Goodwin and Goodwin (2004) denoted participation as ‘action’ and the analytic concept is to focus on the interactive work that participants are engaged in. For example, in their study of a person with aphasia, the aphasic person is capable of demonstrating being a competent participant in which he/she has displayed close engagement with other participants (Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004). Accordingly, Goodwin and Goodwin (2004) showed that the aphasic person demonstrated participation through the use of eye movement, gestures and other semiotic resources and thus his/her actions are collaboratively built in a multiparty talk.

In another study, Marjorie Goodwin (2007) examined participation and embodied action in a teenage girls’ gossip session. Goodwin (ibid.) observed and video recorded a three year period of a friendship group of teenage girls at a school playground. Through examining her data, she found that when the girls make an
assessment, the members of the group may position themselves in similar ways towards the target of the gossip. Furthermore, in her study, Goodwin (2007) also discovered that different forms of co-participation are displayed through talk and embodied action by positioning their body towards other participants in facing formation.

The organisation of participation in social activities involves “the sophisticated maneuvering of an array of interactional resources such as when and how to take turns to talk and how to formulate turns that fit the ongoing flow in the conversation” (Nguyen, 2011, p. 18). Participation organisation is a situated, multiparty accomplishment in which spoken language and embodied actions provide significant resources in the organisation of participation (Goodwin, 2007; Goodwin and Goodwin 2004; Goodwin, 2000). In the domain of CA framework, the notion of participation means “embodied situated actions of participants, involving dynamic (re-)negotiation and reconfiguration of spatial, attention, epistemic and affective alignment of (multiple) participant” (Deppermann, 2013, p. 1).

It is notable that CA provides the methods of analysis to unpack the processes of how social action is accomplished and how participation is negotiated, coordinated and co-constructed among participants in interaction. CA approach to multimodality attempts to describe how talk and various multimodal resources in the participant’s surroundings are jointly used to perform a coherent social action. With the growing interest in CA studies that include the roles of multimodal resources in interaction, L2 studies have moved in line with expanding their research parameters to explore the coordination of multiple semiotic resources in interaction. A certain amount of CA research in second language studies explores the importance of embodied actions in social interaction in L2 studies, and this will be reviewed in the next sub-section.

2.4.2 Embodied Actions and CA for L2 studies

Carroll (2004) and Olsher (2004) argued that research on face-to-face interaction involving L2 speakers should pay careful attention to the embodied aspects of the interaction. Furthermore, Carroll argued that “lack of attention to body behaviours represents not only a gap in the research but a serious methodological blind spot which future research must address” (Carroll, 2004, p. 219). Observing the
importance of the interplay between embodied actions and language and how CA studies has developed with this incorporated information about the embodiment (e.g., see Stivers and Sidnell, 2005), studies in second language have also started to expand their research parameters to explore the coordination of these multiple semiotic resources in various contexts of face-to-face interaction (see, e.g., Carroll, 2004; Lazaraton, 2004; Olsher, 2004; Ikeda, 2007; Belhiah, 2009; Mortensen, 2009; Seo, 2011; Koshik and Seo, 2012; Eskildsen and Wagner, 2013; Sert and Walsh, 2013; Eskildsen and Wagner, 2015; Hazel and Mortensen, 2017).

With the growing tendency to explore embodied actions through the emic perspective in L2 studies, this has led to recognition that embodied actions and other multimodal resources have contributed to the documentation of the micro-moment of the L2 learning process, L2 use, and in understanding interactional practices in L2 (Seo, 2011). As such, it is noteworthy to review the CA approach in L2 studies to date, including analyses on embodied actions, in order to understand the role of gaze, gestures, embodiment surrounding artefacts and other non-verbal conduct in L2 interaction.

Advocating the importance of embodied action, a study by Lazaraton (2004) showed that an L2 teacher demonstrates embodied actions to assist explanation of new vocabulary to L2 learners in the language classroom. For example, she described that the L2 teacher uses her hand gestures in coordination with her talk in giving vocabulary explanation. In her study, Lazaraton (ibid.), through the analysis of videotapes of ESL classrooms, found that when studying vocabulary explanation through teacher talk is insufficient and noted how the teacher’s non-verbal behaviour was a fundamental means of communication. The L2 teacher’s hand movements managed to facilitate L2 learners to grasp the meaning of vocabulary. Although Lazaraton (ibid) claimed that her study “nonverbal is a fundamental aspect of [teacher’s] pedagogical repertoire that must be taken into account” (p. 107).

In another study, Sert and Walsh (2013) showed a similar implication to Lazaraton’s (2004) study on how teachers use embodied actions in vocabulary explanation. In their study on investigating the interactional management for students’ ‘claims of insufficient knowledge’, Sert and Walsh (2013) found that a teacher’s
embodied actions in teaching can lead to student engagement. For example, they described how a teacher making use of hand gestures stimulated students’ involvement when providing vocabulary explanation. These findings from Lazaraton (2004) and Sert and Walsh (2013) suggest that embodied vocabulary explanation are found to be significant interactional resources in facilitating teaching-learning in the L2 classroom.

In a study of L2 tutorial interaction, Belhiah (2009) showed that tutors and students demonstrated extensive use of embodied actions, comprising gaze direction and body orientation. In his study, Belhiah (2009) focused on how both tutor and student coordinate their talk, gaze and body orientation when engaging in a tutorial session (e.g., opening phase) and when disengaging from the tutorial session (e.g., closing phase). He found that in the opening phase the tutor shifted his gaze and positioned his body towards reading material, which could indicate an invitation for the student to display an orientation towards the reading material. In the closing phase, both participants shifted their gaze away from each other, and the tutor would stand up and then be followed by the student. Therefore, the study revealed that talk and embodied action of tutor and student are coordinated in meaningful ways as a collaborative activity for opening and closing sequences in L2 tutorials (Belhiah, 2009).

Eskildsen and Wagner (2015) also put forward the importance of multimodal resources of L2 new vocabulary learning. In their 2015 study, they investigated the combination of gestures and talk that are displayed by the teacher in explaining the words ‘under’ and ‘across’. It found that the student can build an understanding of new vocabulary introduced in the classroom through observing the teacher’s embodied vocabulary explanation and also by repeating the performed gestures to demonstrate student understanding. An interesting finding in this study, which was conducted over a period of time, is that it can be observed that the student organises and recycles similar combination of gestures and talk when conversing with other participants. Thus, Eskildsen and Wagner (2015) revealed the significant use of gestures in L2 learning over time, in which not only learning processes are facilitated but also achieve and maintain intersubjectivity.

In another L2 tutorial interaction study, Seo (2011) focused on the role of multimodal resources in repair sequences in the tutorial session. In her study, Seo
showed that talk, gaze, gestures, body orientation, and material objects that are coordinated between tutor and the tutee are significant resources in facilitating L2 learning and demonstrating intersubjective understanding. In this study, for example, the tutor used her hand gestures to describe an unknown vocabulary to the tutee. However, it is also revealed the tutee displayed a non-understanding of the description, and thus the tutor made another attempt by adding or changing the gestures and also using material objects (e.g., paper and pen) in explaining to the tutee. Therefore, Seo (2011) pointed out, the various multimodal resources displayed by participants in L2 tutorials are coordinated interactional resources to resolve mutual understanding and to facilitate language learning. Both Seo’s (2011) and Eskildsen and Wagner’s (2015) studies suggested that there is a strong relationship between gestures and L2 learning that can resolve and maintain intersubjectivity.

In addition to these studies, Ikeda (2007) and Mortensen (2009) included participants’ embodied actions in their analyses of how participation is organised in L2 interaction. For example, Ikeda’s unpublished dissertation showed how talk and embodied action deployed in interaction can serve as valuable resources for L1 speakers to facilitate L2 speakers’ participation in Japanese language interaction. Ikeda analysed features such as vocal perturbation features (e.g. uhm), gaze and gestures in the current speaker’s turn and found that the embodied resources demonstrated by the participants provided a recognition and opportunities for the recipient to offer co-participant completion.

Mortensen (2009) similarly showed how students’ participation in the language classroom is facilitated through teacher’s instruction. He described how the teacher’s instruction does not precisely select a student to take the role to be the next speaker. Instead, students deployed multimodal resources, including in-breaths and changes of body positioning, to claim speakership and establish recipiency (Mortensen, 2009). Thus, it is noteworthy that studies in L2 interaction should attend to various aspects of multimodal resources as they can be important signs in understanding the sequential organisation of L2 classroom interaction (Mortensen 2009; Eskildsen and Wagner, 2015), L2 tutorials (Seo 2011; Belhiah, 2009) and L2 group interaction (Mori and Hayashi, 2006; Ikeda, 2007).
In this section, a broad array of work has been discussed and reviewed to exhibit the significance of examining various multimodal resources for different actions and phenomena of L2 interaction. Much of the research has explored the roles of embodied actions or multimodal resources to unpack the complexity of L2 interaction in formal L2 educational contexts such as classrooms, group discussions and tutorial sessions (e.g., Belhiah, 2009; Lazaraton, 2004; Olsher, 2004; Carroll, 2004; Seo and Koshik, 2010; Seo, 2011; Eskildsen and Wagner, 2013; Mortensen, 2009; Sert and Walsh, 2013; Ikeda, 2007).

By contrast, only a small number of CA studies of L2 users socialising outside formal educational settings have been conducted (Gardner and Wagner, 2004; Firth and Wagner). When L2 users socialise outside the formal educational setting, we are able to explicate the character of L2 use (Firth, 2009), such as understanding how L2 users engage in a complex multimodal interaction that includes the use of vocal and non-vocal actions in a particular context (Egbert et al., 2004). Consequently, this study aims to investigate L2 interaction outside formal educational settings, specifically to investigate word search phenomenon, including the roles of embodied actions in L2 interaction. Considering the upsurge interest in embodied actions in L2 interaction as reviewed in this section, the following next section will review research that include examining multimodal resources in word search practices using the CA approach.

2.5 Embodied Actions in Word Search Sequences

Word search is a social action that “can be manifested through visible phenomena that advance the interactional work among interlocutors” (Park, 2007, p. 18). A crucial aspect of word searching in face-to-face interaction is to investigate social action from a multimodal point of view to explore the relationship between spoken language and embodied actions such as gestures, gaze, posture and other associated multimodal features in interaction. Therefore, talk and multimodal resources in social interaction are significant features that need to be considered in CA studies as they can enhance our understanding of interactional practices and processes of L2 use (Seo, 2011).
Scholars have observed that participants’ gaze direction and gestures in word search sequence have vital roles (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Hayashi, 2003; Carroll; 2004). As an example, the speaker’s shifting gaze away from the recipient can mark the onset of a word search while a gaze towards a recipient can mark a request for help or an invitation for the recipient to co-participate in the word search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Furthermore, the speaker’s gaze withdrawal accompanied by a ‘thinking face’ facial expression can be an indication that a solitary word search is ongoing or the shifting gaze away can demonstrate that the participant is ‘doing thinking’, as characterised by Houtkoop-Steenstra (1994) (cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583).

A study by Hayashi (2003) found that there is an unambiguous relationship between spoken language and embodied actions as resources in the study of word search. In his study, he explored talk, gaze and gestures deployed by Japanese speakers. He showed that the embodied actions provide interactional resources for recipients to organise their relevant participation in word search sequences, such as the use of speaker’s gaze to invite or not to invite recipient’s co-participation (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Another striking feature that Hayashi discovered is the use of a demonstrative pronoun, such as are (‘that one’) and asako (‘that place’), as a ‘prospective indexical’ (Goodwin, 1996) to indicate the domain of word. Hayashi’s study also showed that hand gestures are not only deployed by speakers at the onset of a word search but also to index a particular domain of words to which the searched-for word refers to. For example, in a three-party Japanese interaction, the speaker use of vocal conduct (i.e. are) and rotating winding hand movement are made visible to the recipient within his ongoing search are not only seen as representing feature of the sought for word but it also narrow down the range of possible candidate solution. Thus, the participants in the ongoing word search utilise spoken language and embodied actions as resources to achieve a collaborative solution (Hayashi, 2003).

In a previous study of word search sequences, Hosoda (2000) examined other-repair sequences between L1-L2 and L1-L1 conversations in Japanese. She found that both talk and embodied actions, such as gaze and body orientation in a speaker’s mid-turn, solicit help with a word search. In response to the embodied resources deployed by the speaker, it was shown that other-repair was produced by the recipient to assist the
speaker. Hosoda (2000) also found that the demonstrative pronoun *are* (‘that one’) to replace a noun phrase of the searched-for word is widely used by L1-L1 Japanese conversation, a finding similar to that in Hayashi’s (2003) study. However, in contrast to Hayashi, Hosoda’s (2000) analysis showed that the demonstrative pronoun *are* (‘that one’) is not used among L1-L2 Japanese conversations.

Park (2007) pointed out that in her study of word search sequences among L1 and L2 speakers of English, word search activities are “social and interactive phenomena that cannot be fully understood through predetermined sets of rules and strategies” (2007, p.19). She argued that the word searches are positioned sequentially, and they are also publicly displayed actions. In her study on the joint resources between L1 and L2 speakers of English, she found that the participants mutually monitor one another’s verbal and embodied actions as they jointly search for the word together. In her study, she described how the participants take account of their interlocutor’s behaviour (e.g., verbal and non-verbal resources) in word search organisation in order to understand the type of action within the sequential position, such as an action requesting help, providing candidate answers, and displaying acceptance or rejection or modification of answer (Park 2007).

In Greer’s (2013) study of word search sequences in bilingual interaction, he found that when bilingual teenagers initiate a word search they make use of embodied action and codeswitching to the Japanese language in accomplishing word searches. For example, as the bilingual teenager launched a word search, he produced a Japanese token *nanka* (‘like’) and also shifted his gaze to another teenage member. As the bilingual teenager makes an attempt to complete his turn, he switches back to English and returns his gaze to the class moderator. Thus, Greer (2013) pointed out that the speaker’s shift of gaze to different recipients in the interaction and interchanging between languages in the multi-party interaction can demonstrate a form of shifting participant constellation. A speaker’s shifting gaze and choice of language in word search sequences “can bring about new participant constellations by excluding some recipients from the conversation or choosing to include others as primary recipients” (Greer, 2013, p. 114).
In addition to these studies, others have incorporated multimodal resources in the analysis of word search sequence. For example, Carroll (2004) noticed in his data that novice L2 speakers displayed embodied signals (e.g., gaze away) at the onset of a word search which is displayed through a speaker’s speech perturbation features (e.g., restart). Furthermore, he found that as the speaker gazed back to a recipient and the recipient did not return the gaze, the speaker would pause and halt the speech production momentarily until a return gaze was displayed, when the speaker produced a restart. A speaker’s gaze direction to a recipient, pause and restart demonstrated in Carroll’s (2004) data were by no means indications of difficulty with speech production. Carroll (2004) indicated these embodied resources showed by novice L2 speakers “illustrate a high level of interactional finesse” (p. 218). Furthermore, Carroll also showed that the novice L2 speakers employ the use of gaze as a useful resource to establish mutual understanding.

Following the use of embodied actions as interactional resources in a word search, Egbert, Niebecker and Rezzara (2004) found that multiparty participants use hand movements, such as using hand gestures to draw in air and to make a swinging movement to indicate the searched-for word (e.g. pendulum). They showed that the participants organise talk and gestures as “an interwoven combination of social actions” to resolve trouble in the word search and address the trouble in understanding (Egbert et al., 2004). Therefore, their study showed that the success of resolving trouble in understanding in repair sequences (e.g. word search) was through co-participant willingness to utilise extraordinary effort in repair sequences (ibid.). In doing so, the co-participants used their limited linguistic resources in a multitude of ways and also integrated embodied resources in choreographing action.

Olsher (2004) explored a conversation of L2 learners discussing a work project in a small group discussion. In this study, he found an interactional practice that involves talk and gestures of L2 learners, which he termed ‘embodied completion.’ From his analysis, Olsher observed that the L2 learner’s turn is partially launched and then at some point where the trajectory of the turn is projectable, the talk is stopped due to difficulty in projecting the word in the L2, and the L2 learner completes the turn with the use of hand gestures or other embodied actions (Olsher, 2004). In his data, Olsher found that the range of embodied actions that were produced as embodied completion
include pointing gestures, pantomime, or physical movement such as rubbing one’s arm. Furthermore, Olsher claimed that the embodied completions are interactional practices that could be exploited by L2 speakers when the opportunity to do so exists for a variety of social and interactional purposes, such as completing a turn-at-talk.

A similar practice of embodied completion was also found in the study of Mori and Hayashi (2006) on ordinary conversation between an L1 speaker and L2 speaker of Japanese. In their study, they showed that the L1 speaker used embodied actions to assist L2 understanding and, similarly, the L2 speaker used embodied actions to display their understanding. Thus, the use of gestures and gaze by the L1 speakers in the early part of their utterance production and also as embodied completion were deployed to avoid linguistic expression that is not accessible to the L2 speaker. Furthermore, what is also revealed in Mori and Hayashi’s (ibid.) study is that the embodied completion could be considered as an opportunity for the L2 speakers to express their understanding, which is also demonstrated in their production of corresponding gestures and utterances. Thus, the dynamic coordination of talk and embodied actions deployed by the L1 and L2 speakers are utilised as resources to achieve intersubjectivity.

Embodied actions such as gaze, gestures, body postures, hand movements and intonation are found to have crucial roles in repair sequence or in word searching, such as in Mori and Hasegawa’s (2009) study. In their study, Mori and Hasegawa (ibid.) reported notable cases of the organisation of talk, gaze and other multimodal resources in word searches that are related to L2 learning. Nonetheless, the use of artefacts or manipulation of objects could also assist one who is doing a word search. Thus, in their study of peer interactions in the L2 Japanese classroom, Mori and Hasegawa (2009) found that there were differences in how word search sequences are initiated, developed and concluded when using a textbook in the classroom setting. For example, as the students worked with their pair in completing a task in the textbook, students established different kinds of participation structures.

Furthermore, Mori and Hasegawa (2009) observed that students organised talk, gaze and body positioning towards their pair and also manipulated the use of textbooks and notebooks as resources to negotiate and search for an appropriate word. Therefore, in their study, Mori and Hasegawa (2009) showed that in the organisation of word
search sequences in a textbook-driven lesson, the students frequently turned to textbooks as a resource to search for the words that they were having difficulty producing. In doing so, students used textbooks and notebooks as references to express the meaning of the unknown word and also as resources to review previously learned word expression.

In another language classroom setting, Barrow (2010) found that novice L2 students made use of electronic dictionaries as resources to co-construct meaning and look-up words. In Barrow’s (2010) study of three Japanese university students, he found that the students made use of the electronic dictionaries to solve problems with finding the correct L2 vocabulary during L2 English discussion. Furthermore, in his findings, it was suggested that the Japanese students were commonly found to consult their electronic dictionaries during a turn-at-talk such as in the practices of self-initiation in repair (e.g., during cut-off word, sound stretches, word searching) (Barrow, 2010).

In a similar study by Hauser (2014), it was observed from his analysis of L2 English language students that they demonstrated a form of orientation when manipulating the use of electronic dictionaries when working in group. For example, when searching for L2 vocabulary, turning the object from one way to another can have an interactional significance for attracting participants’ gazes to the dictionary. Thus, electronic dictionaries in doing a search can be a resource with which participants organise their interaction. Barrow’s (2010) and Hauser’s (2014) studies showed how the use of electronic dictionaries as resources in L2 word search can display sophisticated proficiencies among novice students and also display their orientation for collaborative learning, collaborative solution and achieving understanding.

In another study of embodied practices in word searches, Markee and Kunitz (2013) investigated three L2 Italian language learners’ embodied word searches and grammar searches in planning a task assigned by their teacher. In their study, they were concerned with analysing learners of ‘doing planning-related language learning behaviour’ from an emic perspective. They found that participants organised their gaze, gestures and body positioning as they oriented to each other in word searches and grammar searches. Furthermore, their findings also showed that participants utilised the
use of objects such as notebooks and online dictionaries to negotiate meaning and find the actual words to achieve task-planning. These studies by Mori and Hasegawa (2009), Barrow (2010), Hauser (2014) and Markee and Kunitz’s (2013) show that embodied interaction, embodied actions and the use of objects or artefacts have interactional significance in supporting L2 learning in an educational context, precisely in assisting learners to find a word that is temporarily unavailable.

Greer (2017) presented that in a non-educational context, such as in everyday mundane conversation, the use of smartphones has increased as a tool for people to manage trouble in talk. For example, Greer (2017) showed two young adult L2 English speakers searching for unknown words in dictionary apps provided in their smartphones to manage trouble in their ongoing talk and also as an affordance to establish friendship and maintaining intersubjectivity. In his study, he showed that the participants demonstrated multiple involvement (Raymond and Lerner, 2014) or multiple activity (Haddington et al., 2014) in which “two or more actions are undertaken simultaneously or sequentially not just by the individual, but also in relation to the social interaction that is going on [between the two participants]” (Greer, 2017, p. 199). Greer also showed that the language users manipulated the use of objects (e.g. smartphones) as a way to provide access to the lexical items searched-for and thus the use of objects allowed L2 users to avoid gaps in their linguistic knowledge. Hence, the technology of smartphones, which are widely used nowadays by L2 users outside formal language classroom, could develop friendship, maintain intersubjectivity, and, furthermore “re-establish communication in the face of interactional challenges” (Greer, 2017, p. 224).

Furthermore, hand gestures are also significant in word search sequences in which participants coordinate gestures and talk to describe and indicate to their recipients the word that is being sought (Egbert et al., 2004). Similarly, Olsher (2004), Mori and Hayashi’s (2006) studies showed that in word search sequences, the use of hand gestures can complete a verbal utterance for the troubled talk. Moreover, their study also demonstrated that multimodal resources can assist L2 speaker to achieve intersubjectivity (Carroll, 2004; Olsher, 2004; Mori and Hayashi, 2006). Alternative forms of multimodal resources, such as the use of objects in word search sequences, do not only assist participants in looking up the meaning of unfamiliar words but also serve
as resources for participants to negotiate and achieve understanding (Barrow, 2009; Hauser, 2014; Markee and Kunitz, 2013; Greer, 2017).

However, with the exception of Siegel’s (2016) and Greer’s (2017) studies, most L2 interaction studies that examine word search practices are between L1-L2 speaker (Funayama, 2001; Brouwer, 2003; Kurhila, 2006; Seo and Koshik, 2012; Hosoda, 2000, 2006; Park, 2007) and L2-L2 speakers who have a same L1 background (Barrow, 2010; Hauser, 2014; Greer, 2013). Furthermore, only a limited number of studies in L2 interaction have incorporated the use of multimodal resources (e.g., Belhiah, 2009; Lazaraton, 2004; Olsher, 2004; Carroll, 2004; Seo and Koshik, 2010; Seo, 2011; Eskildsen and Wagner, 2013; Mortensen, 2009; Sert and Walsh, 2013; Ikeda, 2007; Eskildsen and Wagner, 2015).

Previously in this chapter (Section 2.3.2), I have reviewed previous CA studies that examine word searches in L2 interaction that are highlighted in the range of everyday situations and in educational settings (e.g., Koshik and Seo, 2012; Hosoda, 2006; Brouwer, 2003; Kurhila, 2006). The review of the studies in this section (Section 2.5) has indicated that multimodal resources such as gaze and body orientation do play a crucial role in accomplishing collaborative word searches between current speakers and co-participants (Hayashi, 2003; Hosoda, 2000; Park, 2007, Greer, 2013). Subsequently, L2 studies on word searches have incorporated the use of multimodal resources (e.g., Carroll, 2004; Hosoda, 2000; Park, 2007; Greer, 2013, 2016; Egbert et al., 2004; Olsher, 2004; Mori and Hayashi, 2006; Mori and Hasegawa, 2009; Barrow, 2010; Hauser, 2014; Markee and Kunitz, 2013). However, many L2 studies on word searches are between L1-L2 speakers and, although there are studies between L2-L2 speakers, these speakers have the same language backgrounds conversing with one another in English. As this study aims to join this effort to explore the use of spoken language and embodied actions employed by international students in word searches, this research aims to address this gap by investigating L2-L2 interaction outside the language classroom or formal educational settings by focusing particularly on L2 speakers who do not share the same language background.
2.6 Summary

In this chapter, early research on communication strategy and the word search phenomenon is outlined and discussed (Section 2.2). Following this review of early studies on word searches under the notion of communication strategy discussion, CA studies that have examined word search practices are introduced in Section 2.3 and explained in the interactional context of the L1 conversation (Section 2.3.1) and the L2 conversation (Section 2.3.2).

In the following Sections (Section 2.4 and Section 2.5), taking a stance on upholding the importance of multimodal resources in social interaction, the literature on embodied actions in CA studies are reviewed. These sections have contributed to an understanding of talk, gaze, gestures and body posture as valuable resources in organising participation in interaction. Furthermore, with the increasing accessibility of multimedia technology, multimodal CA (Mortensen, 2013) has expanded in the study of social interaction in various contexts, such as in institutional settings (e.g., Mondada, 2007; Heath and Luff, 2013; Mondada, 2013; Hazel and Mortensen, 2014; Mortensen and Hazel, 2014) or non-institutional settings (e.g., Laurier, 2008; Mondada, 2009a; Mondada, 2009b; Laurier and Wiggins, 2011). Aligning with the interest in exploring the coordination of multimodal resources in interaction, studies in the SLA field has also expanded to investigate the roles of multimodal resources in L2 interaction. With the in-depth analysis using multimodal CA approach, this can enhance understanding the development of interactional competence of L2 speakers, L2 users. Having established the aims of the study and the research gap that this study will address, the next chapter will introduce the methodology of CA that will be employed to achieve the objectives of this study.
Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by introducing the philosophical underpinnings of Conversation Analysis (CA). An introduction to CA and multimodality and some methodological considerations are undertaken. As such, this chapter will assist the understanding of the following analyses chapters and the discussion chapter.

3.2 Introduction to Conversation Analysis

CA developed from ethnomethodology (EM), which is primarily concerned with understanding the organisational structure and the orderliness of social interactions (Schegloff et al., 1977; Sacks, 1984; Heritage, 2008). The sociological tradition of ethnomethodology was developed by Garfinkel (1967), and its attention is focused on common-sense practices, procedures and resources that people use to make sense of their everyday life experience (see also, Atkinson and Heritage, 1984; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 1998; Seedhouse, 2004; Ten Have, 2007). Garfinkel’s founding work on EM is a major departure from the Parsonian approach (e.g. 1951) of using expertise knowledge to explain social structures such as class, ethnicity, age and gender, structural frameworks which are seen to cause the behaviour of individuals.

Garfinkel rejected the ‘etic’ perspective, in which analysts use their specialist knowledge to identify and study behaviour from an external position (Pike, 1967; Seedhouse, 2004; Ten Have, 2007). As Paul Ten Have put forward, “etic refers to a viewpoint to study behaviour as from outside a particular (cultural) system, while an emic approach tries to study it from inside the system” (2007, p. 217). CA and EM are interconnected in the sense that CA focuses on the detail of people’s interaction with one other and EM studies the methods on which people base their social actions (Seedhouse, 2004). EM and CA seek to identify practices within the micro-level social interaction. Boden and Zimmerman (1991) stated that:

A fundamental insight of ethnomethodology is the primordial site of social order is found in members’ use of methodical practices to produce, make
sense of, and thereby render accountable, features of their local circumstances (p.6)

EM and CA approaches seek to develop how social order is achieved by people in interaction. Inspired by Garfinkel, the domain of CA was developed by Sacks (1984), who was interested in investigating conversation as he believed that there is ‘order at all points’ in conversation (Seedhouse, 2004). Particularly, Sacks’s ideas on the orderliness in interaction are (1) talk-in-interaction is systematically and strongly structured; (2) analysis is based on naturally occurring data, and; (3) the analytic interest should not be restricted by external considerations (Atkinson and Heritage, 1984). As Sacks described it:

So the work I am doing is about talk. It is about the details of talk. In some sense it is about how conversation works. The specific aim is, in the first instance, to see whether actual single events are studiable and how they might be studiable, and then what an explanation of them would look like (lecture, fall 1967, Intro.). (Sacks, 1984, p. 26)

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, Sacks worked together with Emmanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson to develop CA (Atkinson and Heritage, 1984). Since then, CA has become a powerful methodology for studying social interaction and unpacking the organisation of social orders. Specifically, the analysis emerges from the observation of participants’ conduct on the data of the interaction (ibid.). The analysis in CA is similar to EM in that it favours an emic perspective.

CA, therefore, is a unique way of studying social interaction whereby the analyst pays close attention to the detailed form of interaction so as to discover the structure and order of people’s talk-in-interaction. Talk-in-interaction refers to the different forms of talk that people are involved in in their daily lives across settings from mundane to institutional contexts. As CA is the study of talk-in-interaction, to do it a systematic analysis is conducted based on a recorded naturally occurring interaction, which is then transcribed. Naturally occurring interaction refers to the actual occurrences of people’s conversations in a real-life context, as opposed to experimental settings or observation methods.
CA conducts fine-grained analyses of interaction in a naturally occurring situation as it occurs in real-life. That is, through the emic perspective (i.e. participant-relevant), the participants’ contributions in the interaction are considered as to what is going on for the participants at that time as they occur within the interaction. Thus, the analysis focuses on the sequential development of the interaction, specifically on “what happens and what happens next” (Haddington et al., 2014, pp. 15, italics in original). In other words, talk-in-interaction is jointly constructed, and thus the meaning of the sequence must be taken as it emerges in the context.

The following section will describe the specific structures through which spoken social interaction is organised.

3.3 CA Interactional Structure

CA recognises that there are recurring features in understanding the concepts of how interaction is organised, such as turn-taking, sequence organisation, and repair (Seedhouse, 2004; Ten Have, 2007). Seedhouse (2005) emphasised that the interactional organisations are “definitely not be the same as ‘units of analysis’ in a linguistic sense” (p.167). Rather, these organisations should be understood as interactional organisations that participants draw upon to produce and interpret the social action in interaction. As such, these features can be regarded as tools at the analytical level which CA researchers can draw upon to explore the features of interconnected interactional organisation. Space precludes a full account of the interaction organisation and thus in the following paragraphs I will only briefly discuss the features that are more relevant to my analysis, such as turn-taking, sequence and repair.

3.3.1 Turn-taking

In CA, one of the core ideas in which order in interaction is achieved is through turn-taking. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) termed this as the turn-taking system, which is characterised as “locally managed, party-administered, interactionally controlled, and sensitive to recipient design” (p. 696). Therefore, Sacks and his associates reveal that there is a system at play in which speakers manage and take turns
in interaction. Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998) summarised the systematic ways in conversation: “(1) turn-taking occurs; (2) one speaker tends to talk at a time; and (3) turns are taken with as little gap or overlap between them as possible” (p. 47).

The basis of the turn-taking system in a turn construction unit (TCU) can be in the form of sentences, clauses, or words, and it can also take place to form a single turn-at-talk. Taking-turn in interaction is not just about ‘speaking’, but is also about ‘listening’ to the ongoing interaction in order to find a relevant place to come, known as a transition relevance place (TRP). Therefore, as a listener, the point of a TRP could be recognised when the TCU shows a possible completion in which the “projection is done grammatically, prosodically, and pragmatically” (Mortensen and Wagner, 2013, p. 2).

According to Sacks et al. (1974), there are three options that can influence whether a TRP can occur: (1) the main speaker maintains the right to continue another TCU; (2) in the midst of producing the TCU, the main speaker can select the next speaker, and thus the main speaker stops speaking at the end of the TCU and; (3) other participants can self-select and the first who obtains it has the right to the interactional floor. Managing turn-taking is considered the main resource that participants in interaction employ as the close coordination of the turn at talk enables the collaborative achievement of the action in sequences.

### 3.3.2 Sequence Organisation

The organisation of sequence or ‘action sequences’ can be considered the building blocks of social interaction (Schegloff, 2007). The notion of sequence in CA is that conversation is sequentially organised; it refers to a common experience that “one thing can lead to another” (Ten Have, 2007, p. 130). Simply, this can be understood as action in talk that is typically paired, such as question-answer. The paired action is a concept that is known as adjacency pair. Adjacency pair can be produced by two speakers, such as when the first speaker produces a question or a first pair-part (FPP) and the second speaker makes a response to provide the answer in the second pair-part (SPP). However, at times, the SPP may not be produced immediately, such as when there is no response or a delay. In cases of no response or a delay, a new sequence can be inserted (e.g., side sequence) in an adjacency pair sequence and thus the SPP is
suspended. Adjacency pairs in sequences are described as the “basic building blocks of intersubjectivity” (Heritage, 1984b, p. 256). CA is concerned with intersubjectivity or mutual understanding, and one of CA’s objectives is to explicate how participants achieve a shared understanding of one another’s actions (Seedhouse, 2004). Thus, a CA analyst can analyse and follow the progress of participants’ intersubjectivity within sequence organisation, by which the participants “display to one another their understanding of each other’s turn” (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 22).

In this study, sequence organisation plays a vital role in examining participants’ joint solutions in an L2 word search sequence. For example, when a speaker displays trouble in producing the next item due in the turn, and makes an explicit request for help (i.e., “What is it called?”), this creates an invitation for the second speaker to provide a collaborative solution in the next turn. However, at times, longer series of sequences can take place in word searches as there are embedded sequences such as ‘side sequences’ in negotiating meaning for a solution to the word search.

**3.3.3 Repair**

Repair in CA is referred to as the treatment of trouble in the interaction that interrupts participants’ understanding. As one of the key objectives in CA concerns understanding, the instances where intersubjectivity is under threat can be due to trouble in speaking, hearing, or understanding (Mortensen and Wagner, 2013). In order to restore intersubjectivity, a repair sequence is launched to deal with the trouble in interaction. CA uses the term ‘repair’ to indicate the overall mechanism of dealing with problems in interaction that begins with ‘trouble source’ and ‘repairable’, as “nothing is, in principle, excludable from the class ‘repairable’” (Schegloff et al., 1977, p. 363).

In this study, word search can be considered as repair in CA and or forward-oriented repair (Carroll, 2006; Greer, 2013). Schegloff et al. (1977) stated that the repair could be initiated on different aspects in interaction depending on who initiates the repair and who completes the repair. Repair can be initiated by the speaker (self-initiated) or by the recipient (other-initiated), and, likewise the speaker can complete (self-repair), or the recipient (other-repair) can complete a repair. It is important to
distinguish the difference between ‘self’ and ‘other’ in interaction. This can be categorised into four types (Liddicoat, 2011, p. 210):

1. Self-initiated self-repair: where the speaker indicates a trouble in the talk and resolves the trouble;
2. Self-initiated other-repair: where the speaker indicates a trouble in the talk but the recipient resolves the trouble;
3. Other-initiated self-repair: where the recipients indicate a trouble in the talk and the speaker resolves the trouble;
4. Other-initiated other-repair: where the recipients indicate and resolve the trouble in the talk.

In analysis of word search sequences, the process to accomplish mutual understanding among participants is, in fact, a form of repair sequence, and how these word search sequences operate will be shown in the analysis chapters.

3.4 Using Video in the Study of Social Interaction

CA is a method of discovery which holds an interest in the study of people talking together and how people make sense of one another’s utterances (Sacks, 1984). What is central in CA study is to capture naturally occurring talk as accurately and as objectively as is practically possible (ibid.). In doing so, recording the interaction has made it possible to study social interaction. The early work of Harvey Sacks recognised the use of recorded data and the necessity of working with recordings. Sacks (1984) developed an interest in the details of talk, how conversation works and getting an explanation of actual events. As quoted from one of Sacks’ lectures:

I started to work with tape-recorded conversations. Such materials had a single virtue, that I could replay them. I could transcribe them somewhat and study them extendedly – however long it might take. The tape-recorded materials constituted a “good enough” record of what happened. Other things, to be sure, happened, but at least what was on the tape has happened. It was not from any interest in language or from some theoretical information of what should be studied that I started with tape-recorded conversations, but simply because I could get my hands on it and I could study it again and
again, and also, consequentially, because others could look at what I had studied and make of it what they could, if, for example, they wanted to be able to disagree with me (1984, p. 26)

Using at the time mainly audio recordings, Sacks claimed that the detailed resources exploited from recorded data cannot be merely be ‘imagined,’ and that getting an explanation of how conversation between people works in real life is only possible through discovery, which entails closely looking at actual recordings of everyday social life (Sacks, 1984).

Although the early work in CA was originally on the basis of audio recordings, an interest in investigating naturally occurring data has emerged since the work of Sacks on investigating conversation from a natural perspective in the 1960’s. Later, in the 1970’s and 1980’s, some notable early use of video in CA studies were produced by Charles Goodwin and Marjorie Goodwin, (1981), Christian Heath (1986) and Emanuel Schegloff (1984). Turning to the use of video, these seminal works focussed on investigating the involvement of non-verbal conduct such as gestures, gaze and body movement in interaction. Since then, the enterprise of the development of investigating face-to-face interaction has evolved in which analysis of the involvement of body resources is more easily accessible to the analyst. Video recording opened up possibilities to analyse the fine details of social order that are found in everyday conversation (Heath, 1986). In short, it offers access for the researcher to capture the visual and visible practices of human behaviour (Heath et al., 2010).

Therefore, the emergence of advanced technology of using video recording as a research tool has become an increasingly prominent tool in CA for the study of social action and activity (Mondada, 2007; 2008; Heath et al., 2010; Streeck et al., 2011; Heath and Luff, 2013; Broth et al., 2014). The use of video in CA studies allows possible detailed observations of the complex multimodal resources running simultaneously (Deppermann, 2013; Heath and Luff, 2013; Mortensen, 2013; Broth et al., 2014; Hazel et al., 2014). Mondada (2016a) claimed that CA is distinctive in its use of video recording as it enables “the careful and precise attention to temporally and sequentially organized details of actions that account for how co-participants orient to each other’s multimodal conduct, and assemble it in meaningful ways, moment by
moment” (p. 340). The significance of using video is the opportunities to capture aspects of social activities in real-time, including talk, visible conduct, the use of tools, technologies, objects and artefacts (Heath et al., 2010). Moreover, the analytical tasks that involve digitising, anonymising, transcribing, annotating, visual representation, and transcription of visual aspects are important as these details provide for the availability of relevant detailed information in the analysis practice (Mondada, 2006; Hazel and Haberland, 2012; Laurier, 2014).

As an example, through the use of video to explore participation framework, Charles Goodwin (2003b) investigated how vocal production does not only comprise language and utterances, but it is also intricately coordinated with embodied actions. Hence, with the use of videotapes, he explicated ways that archaeologists’ embodied practices establish a form of participation when orienting to each other while excavating dirt, such as in the example below (Figure 3.1). Goodwin thus showed that interaction is not to be understood from a single mode of communication but rather through use of gestures, gaze and body positioning when forming participation framework.

![Figure 3.1: embodied practices that establish participation (Goodwin, 2003b, p. 14)](image)

In another example, Mondada (2007), showed that hand gestures such as pointing are intricately coordinated with talk and they can demonstrate turn-taking practices and show the establishment of speakership in interaction. Video recording allows analysis from a perspective view (left image in Figure 3.2) and vertical view (right image in Figure 3.2). The perspective view allows the analyst to see the body postures of participants as well as their mutual orientation, while the vertical view
provides detailed analysis on material, spatial arrangement and gesture (e.g., pointing gesture) towards maps (Mondada, 2007).

**Figure 3.2**: Cameras’ positioning from the perspective view (left image) and the vertical view (right image) (Mondada, 2007, p. 199)

Thus, the use of video in CA study can reveal much more than merely showing that pointing gestures are involved; it can show that a much wider range of gesture involving the body such as leaning forward, the stretched arm, the hand and manipulation of objects are revealed within the interactional multimodal perspective (Mondada, 2016a). Despite the fact that there are challenges that emerge from the study of talk and embodied resources in social interaction (see Mondada, 2016a), the use of video creates unique opportunities for analysing social action and everyday interaction (Heath et al. 2010).

Furthermore, using video recordings and transcriptions and returning to them constantly helps us to notice familiar practices of how participants in the particular settings do the things that they do (Laurier, 2013; Broth et al., 2014). As Mondada (2016a) depicted, the use of video in the CA approach to multimodality allows “the careful and precise attention to temporally and sequentially organised details of actions that account for how co-participants orient to each other’s multimodal conduct, and assemble it in meaningful ways, moment by moment.” (p. 340). Undoubtedly, with the use of video, exploring multimodality in the CA approach has become, and promises to be, a useful methodological tool in future (Mortensen, 2013; Mondada, 2016a).
3.5 Conversation Analysis and Multimodality

The central focus of CA is concerned with unfolding the sequence of talk-in-interaction, and this study particularly adopts multimodal CA approach that allows to precisely analyse, “talk-and-bodies-in-interaction” (Mortensen and Wagner, 2013). Multimodal CA approach allows the researcher to examine closely the details of the various multimodal resources, including body postures, gestures, gaze, head movement, and the situated nature of interaction within the setting and spatial arrangement (Deppermann, 2013; Mortensen, 2013; Hazel et al., 2014). Multimodality in the CA approach attempts to describe the interrelation of various communicative resources: talk, visual resources and object manipulation in the participant’s surroundings and within the contexts themselves are jointly used to perform a coherent social action (Mortensen, 2013).

Multimodality then is communicative resources that are mobilised by the participants for creating and organising action (Haddington et al., 2014). CA’s approach to multimodality describes the interplay between language and body movement that are jointly use to perform coherent social action (Mortensen, 2013). Multimodality is then treated as constitutive in social organisation, and language as integrated within multimodality, as one among other resources, without any ‘a priori hierarchy’ (Mondada, 2016a, 2016b, 2014). In other words, gaze, gestures, postures and other visual aspects related to talk are transcribed in a detailed transcription, and the systematic sequential analysis of these visual aspects is relevant in the analysis of multimodality. As Mortensen (2013) stated:

Ranging from loose glosses of participants’ movement to detailed transcription and systematic sequential analysis of gaze, gesture and other visual information (most often) in relation to talk, they all address the importance of visual aspects for participants in social interaction; that is, social interaction is intrinsically multimodal” (p.1, italics in original).

Analysing multimodality using CA allows focus on describing “the in situ relevant and recognisable practices in talk and bodily conduct through which participants make sense in interaction” (Mortensen and Wagner, 2013, p. 1, italics in original). In other words, rather than having an interest in examining language only,
CA is additionally concerned with studying the social action undertaken in and through the use of language and other bodily conduct. Thus, multimodal CA is charged with understanding embodied actions that are presented in talk-and-bodies-in-interaction.

### 3.5.1 Embodied Actions in Interaction

Recently, the focus on embodied action and interaction has begun to develop and has fuelled a new contribution in video-based conversation analytic studies. The term ‘embodied’ is used to characterise the ways in which the production of action is accomplished in and through embodied action in social interaction (Heath and Luff, 2013). Embodied actions are complex, and there are various ways in which they intertwine with talk. Thus, the term ‘embodied actions’ can include a variety of visible displays, such as gaze direction, hand gesture, head shake, body posture or act of pantomime, all of which have interactional meaning in interaction (Olsher, 2004; Heath and Luff, 2013). However, with the CA approach, the embodied actions are not described independently but as the interplay between various multimodal resources and the combination of these resources in contextualising interaction that produces a specific social action (Mortensen, 2013). The following is a brief overview of the embodied actions in CA studies. The aim of giving a brief overview is not to create the impression that each embodied action is analysed independently but rather as an understanding of the interactional functions of these embodied actions in CA studies.

**Gaze.** The organisation of gaze in interaction emerged in the early study of Charles Goodwin. In 1980’s, Goodwin studied examined a conversation between a speaker and a listener. He described how the participants’ gaze direction has a role in conversational organisation. He found that gaze direction can display attention and show engagement or disengagement in a conversation and when in a situation where participants established eye contact, this is known as mutual gaze (Goodwin, 1980, 1981). Apart from gazing at a participant, the gaze direction can also be closely coordinated with other movements, such as participant’s body posture and in the course of handling objects (Goodwin, 2003b). Furthermore, participants’ gaze direction, such as in telling and listening in storytelling, can assist participants initiating, attending or shifting between speaking and listening (Sidnell, 2006; Thompson and Suzuki, 2014).
**Gesture.** Gestures can consist of body part movements such as hand gestures and head movement. From a CA perspective, the analysis of gestures and their relation to talk has focused on the interactional functions that are accomplished in the interaction. In a study by Mondada (2007), she showed how a pointing hand gesture that coordinates with talk is systematically used as ways of turn-taking practices. However, it is worth noting that in gesture studies the gesture forms often overlap with other gestures or embodied actions. These gestures can be classified into different categories, such as iconic gestures, metaphoric gestures, deictic gestures and beat gestures (McCafferty and Stam, 2009). Iconic gestures have a close relation to speech, and illustrates the information spoken by a speaker by using hands to show how big or small an object is. Metaphoric gestures are used when explaining a concept or an idea that is an abstraction, such as hands forming a ball shape to accompany the word “strong”. Deictic gestures are used to indicate a location or a space, such as pointing gestures. Beat gestures are a movement of the hand or fingers which are beating in a rhythm, such as tapping a table (e.g., ‘doing thinking’ in word search sequence) or fist pounding on the palm when making a particular point.

**Body posture.** Another important aspect of embodied actions is the body posture demonstrated by participants in the interaction. The interactional function of body postures, such as leaning forward, sitting still, standing position, or formation of the body facing the left side or right side, can construct meaning and show the level of a participant’s engagement. Although the display of body positioning does not change as recurrently as hand gestures in communication, this does not mean that body posture is not as dynamic and significant in the sense of meaning-making (Jenks, 2011).

**Objects.** The use of objects in the surroundings in which the interaction is taking place has increasingly been considered in the CA approach to multimodality (Hazel, 2014; Nevile et al., 2014). Studying how people use technologies such as mobile phones not only reveals how these objects are used to structure ongoing activity but also to enhance our understanding of how people use objects when engaging in interaction (Heath et al., 2010; Nevile et al., 2014).

It is important to note that in most conversation embodied actions are complex and that they mutually coordinate with talk (Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004; Streeck et
al., 2011; Heath and Luff, 2013; Mondada, 2016a, 2016b). The purpose of briefly sketching the embodied actions categories in this section is to inform on the types of multimodal resources that are involved in social interaction.

3.6 CA: Reliability and Validity

Having outlined the some of the underpinnings of the CA methodology that are relevant for this study, it is important to consider some of the issues concerning reliability and validity.

3.6.1 Reliability

As Peräkylä (2004) states, the key traits of reliability involve “selection of what is recorded, the technical quality of recordings and the adequacy of transcripts” (p. 288, italic as original). The first key trait - “selection of what is recorded” - arises from the research context that this study intends to study, which is non-educational/non-classroom L2 interaction. Even though a selection of the recorded settings was decided, another important choice to consider is how much to record (ibid.). To have a large number of databases undoubtedly has its advantages, but there is a limit to how much data the researcher can transcribe and analyse. However, as the analysis of the data starts from an unmotivated observation, the outset of the interactional phenomenon that one wants to focus on is not known at the onset of the recording session. Therefore, to achieve a position where the researcher can observe the interesting and relevant phenomena in the data, it is then important for the researcher to have access to a relatively large database to build up a collection of cases.

The second key trait is “the technical quality of recordings,” which the researcher needs to consider at the planning stage. The equipment and the arrangement of recordings are crucial aspects of recording quality, such as using video cameras that are set up on a tripod stand to ensure the stability of the vision and using a voice recorder to supplement an alternative audio sound quality that will assist with the process of transcribing data. Another aspect of reliability is the question of whether the criteria of results of the study are repeatable or replicable (Bryman, 2012, pp. 46-47).
Seedhouse (2005) suggested that the way data is presented in CA studies is significant for Bryman’s claim.

Following this, Peräkylä’s (2004) third CA reliability key trait - “the adequacy of transcripts” - reflects too on the standard practice that CA studies present their data. It is crucial to provide the transcripts of the segment that is analysed, as this allows reader or other researchers to analyse the data themselves and test the analytical procedures that are outlined in the study. Furthermore, the reliability of the study is also strengthened as it is standard practice within the CA community to discuss parts of their data analyses, such as in data sessions or conference presentations, before sending them for publication (Seedhouse, 2005). A rich transcript is a resource for analysis, and thus it is advisable to include the verbal and visual aspects.

3.6.2 Validity

Seedhouse (2005) noted that the validity in CA is concerned with three aspects: internal validity, external validity, and ecological validity. Internal validity refers to the soundness, integrity and credibility of the research findings (ibid.). In CA, the analytical results are built up solely from the recorded data, and evidence from the data should support what the researcher says what it proves. Furthermore, the analyses in CA are data driven, and interpretation of the data is from an emic perspective. With the provision of fine-grained analysis and detailed transcripts, CA does not use any existing theories when interpreting the data. It is through the details of the interaction presented in data and the transcription that justification claim is made strictly from an emic perspective and the internal validity of this study can be supported by following the principles of CA (ibid.).

External validity is concerned with generalisability, or “the extent to which findings can be generalised beyond a specific research context” (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 256). Generalisability in CA is closely dependent on the type of CA studies. Although in CA the analysis of data is at the micro-level, at the same time it is also possible to provide a generalisable description of the interactional setting, such as in an institutional setting (e.g., classroom), because it is seen as rationally organised towards an intuitional goal (ibid.). However, as the focus of this study is on the relationship between
multimodal resources in word searches in a mundane conversation between L2 participants, which is unique in many ways, it is not the scope of this study to generalise the findings to other L2 participants in general.

Another aspect discussed by Seedhouse (2004) is ecological validity. This refers to whether the findings apply to people’s everyday lives. The ecological validity can be considered weak in social science research if the studies are conducted in an experimental setting. Since CA studies social interaction, recording naturally occurring data and taking the participants’ perspective on the analyses are essential. Beholden to these principles, CA studies “tends to be exceptionally strong in comparison to studies employing other methodologies in terms of ecological validity” (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 257).

3.7 Rationale of Using Conversation Analysis

Previous studies have explored the role of gaze in word searches (e.g., Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Kurhila, 2006; Koshik and Seo, 2012). As the focal of this study is to examine the interplay between spoken language and embodied action in the L2 word search sequences, it is necessary to capture the multimodal resources mobilised by participants in the word searches.

CA allows for a holistic micro analysis of verbal and nonverbal face-to-face interaction in which naturally occurring data allow study of the organisation of everyday social interaction. CA has an interest in how people organise their daily lives, making sense of what is going on in their surroundings and how social action is accomplished collaboratively in and through social interaction (Stivers and Sidnell, 2005; Haddington et al., 2014). Building on this basis, the present study adopts the multimodal CA approach (Mortensen, 2013) to undertake a detailed account of the way talk and embodied resources are deployed by participants in the L2 word search.

The justification for determining the use of CA methodology is because, it allows the researcher to examine how talk, non-lexical resources (such as elongation sounds, cut-off word, pauses, “uhm”), intonation as well as embodied actions (such as gaze, gestures, body posture and object manipulation) are employed by participants in
word search sequences in L2 interaction. Furthermore, the use of multimodal CA approach allows this study to explicate how participants in L2 interaction employ various multimodal resources as valuable interactional resources to jointly resolve word searches and accomplish intersubjectivity.

3.8 Summary

Chapter 3 has described the CA methodological framework for this study. The concepts of CA and EM were outlined, including the emic perspective, and explanation of interactional organisation in CA research, such as turn-taking, sequence organisation, and repair were discussed. A brief description on the use of video in studying social interaction is also given. As the central focus of this study is on the interplay of embodied resources in word searches in L2 interaction, discussion of multimodality using CA approach was explained. The chapter has also attempted to delineate issues related to the reliability and validity of CA, as well as providing a brief rationale for using CA. As the focal of this study is to examine the interplay of talk and embodied actions in L2 word search sequences, detail of the procedure will be outlined in the next chapter on research design.
Chapter 4. Research Design

4.1 Introduction

In the previous sections, the description of the methodology and its rationale for this study were presented. In the following sections, I will describe the research setting in which this study takes place, as well as describing the process of data collection, ethical considerations, transcribing practice, the analysis procedures, and methodological and analytical considerations.

4.2 Research Setting

The context of this study is a mundane conversation between international university students in a non-educational setting. The data collected from the casual conversations among international university students were recorded at cafes near to Newcastle University, the students’ common rooms in Ridley building, and the Daysh Building at Newcastle University. In this study, there were eight sets of recordings with different groups of students, and the locations were decided on by the participants themselves.

Out of the six recordings, two of the locations were recorded at the student’s common rooms at their school building. The permission to do recordings at the school building or around the university’s premises are negotiable as, being a research student myself, permission to use video for this study around the campus is allowed. The other four recordings were made at a cafe near to the university. The reasons why cafes were chosen as a setting for this study was because the participants had chosen to have their conversation recorded during lunch break at the end of their lectures during the day. The cafe that the recording was made at is a small restaurant, and getting permission to video record at this cafe was challenging because it was known that it was a public location. It was time-consuming to choose a suitable cafe as there are other issues that need to be considered, such as getting permission from the owner, a possibly busy or noisy environment, and issues regarding setting up equipment. Fortunately, I know the owner of a cafe nearby the campus and, after some clarification and negotiation, secured his permission to record. However, the only time that the owner would allow the
recordings to be made were in the evenings as it was not peak time and the environment would be quiet.

It should be noted that the research aim is to investigate L2 interaction among international students in non-educational settings. Therefore, cafes and the students’ common rooms were found to be a suitable context for mundane conversation. Furthermore, the research settings will allow understanding and exploitation of how international students who are L2 speakers of English socialise and use the L2 ‘beyond the language classroom’ in the ‘outside world’ (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Wagner, 2004). Within the context of non-educational settings, this study focuses on a particular interactional phenomenon of word searches in L2 interaction. The focal point of the analysis in to investigate the diverse multimodal resources that international students rely upon in word searches.

4.3 Participants

The participants in this study were 20 international university students studying in Newcastle. They were all in the process of studying for a Bachelor Degree, a Master Degree, or a PhD, and the age range was between the early twenties to the early forties. All of the participants were second language speakers and were from different countries: Malaysia, Indonesia, China, Vietnam, Pakistan, Kazakhstan, South Africa, Turkey, Saudi Arabia and Iraq. Moreover, as these students were all studying at Newcastle University, their minimum level of English was determined by the fact that they had all achieved the requisite IELTS score required for university entry. The demographic information presented here is simply a reference to the participants’ backgrounds as the analysis will consider contextual details only if and when such details are made relevant by the participants in the interaction (Seedhouse, 2004).

The procedure of finding volunteers for participation started from making an informal request to close friends from each of the recorded group to allow me to video record their conversation with their international friends. When the request was made, the participants enquired about the purpose of their participation and recording as they needed to explain to their group of friends who had decided to join in the research. Following these enquiries, the participants were briefly informed that the aim of the
study is to explore second language conversations and their communication experiences with their friends. Thus, there will be no specific topics as they are free to talk about any subjects. To make the participants feel comfortable to talk with their friends, no researcher will join in the conversation or observe them when the recording took place. The cameras that are mounted on tripods will be left at the location and will be collected when the participants are ready to leave the location.

There were six groups of students who volunteered to be part of this study. The first group was three female students who are in their early twenties. The second group was two male students in their early forties. Group three involved three students, two females and one male, in their mid-thirties. Group four involved three students, two males and one female, in their early twenties. The fifth group involved five male students in their mid-twenties. The sixth group consisted of four females students in their mid-twenties and early thirties. The table below is a summary of the group and the details of the recordings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date recorded</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Group type</th>
<th>Length (hh:mm)</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>Participants Background</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cafe</td>
<td>multiparty</td>
<td>01:40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 Malaysia 1 Vietnam 1 Kazakhstan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cafe</td>
<td>dyad</td>
<td>01:40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 Malaysia 1 Ghana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Student common room</td>
<td>multiparty</td>
<td>00:30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 Malaysia 1 Saudi Arabia 1 Iraq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cafe</td>
<td>multiparty</td>
<td>01:20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2 Malaysia 1 China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cafe</td>
<td>multiparty</td>
<td>02:00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2 Malaysia 2 China 1 Pakistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Student common room</td>
<td>multiparty</td>
<td>00:50</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1 Indonesia 1 China 1 Turkey 1 Iraq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>08:00</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Data collection procedures

With the advantage of innovations in technology, both audio and visual data recording have enabled the researcher to record episodes of naturally occurring interaction in which unlimited rich empirical detail of an event can be captured in a way which it could never be produced by the ‘imagination’ (Ten Have, 2007). Furthermore, Heath et al. (2010) highlighted the importance of video-recorded observation in CA as it affords the possibility to capture features of the audible and visible elements of an ‘in situation’ of human conduct as it occurs within a ‘natural environment,’ which will provide researchers with unprecedented access to social actions and activities. Audio and video technology allow researchers to capture not only sound but also body postures, gestures, eye gaze, and much more (Knoblauch et al., 2008; Laurier et al., 2008; Broth et al., 2014).

In this study, two digital video cameras, mounted on tripods, were set at different positions to capture all details of the nonverbal conduct of the participants. As the locations were public areas, the cameras were placed where they would be likely to cause minimum disruption during the recordings. Two audio recorders were also placed near the speakers to capture the talk and to gain good voice quality for the analysis process. Other advantages of using the audio recorders were to capture any vocal sounds, such as in-breaths or out-breaths, softly spoken voices, overlapping talk, or as a backup if any technical problems occurred during the recording.

After the equipment had been set up and ethical procedures were clarified, the participants were given time to have their lunch without the presence of the researcher. Towards the end of all the recording sessions, the participants called the researcher via mobile to indicate that they were ready to leave the venue and, consequently, the researcher returned to the recording location to gather the equipment and thanked the participants for their participation.

The data collection period was from February 2015 to March 2015. The day, time and place were arranged by the participants at their convenience as all of them are occupied with their study schedules. Due to the time constraints and challenges of finding participants for the study, only six sets of recordings were made. The length of
the recordings varied and a total of approximately eight hours of video recordings constitute the databases for the study.

Other procedures that needed to be considered were storing the data, extracting the video and audio files, and converting the video files to MOV video files for transcribing. All the data files were large files and were stored on two different external hard drives; one as primary data and the second as backup data. In the process of merging the audio and video files, help was sought from computer-knowledgeable colleagues.

4.5 Ethical Considerations

Before the audio-video recordings were made, the participants were given an information sheet about the study in which the aim to study second language conversation was explicitly stated. Consent forms of ethical procedures to protect the rights of the participants were provided, and information relating to the participants was explained which stated that this information would remain the property of the researcher and would be used for research purposes only. Participants in this study were informed that the data would be treated confidentially and if presented in a thesis or at academic events and/or in academic papers, anonymity of the names would be applied.

Furthermore, permission was sought to allow the researcher to use the pictures and visual data in the thesis, publications among research colleagues, or academic events such as conferences. Prior to the recordings, all the participants were informed that participation in this study was voluntary and they had the right to withdraw from the study whenever they wished. Samples of the information sheet, consent letter and demographic information form are attached as appendices (Appendix B, Appendix C and Appendix D).

4.6 Transcription and Data Presentation

Most communication is intertwined with multimodal resources. Transcribing interactional and multimodal resources allows researchers to closely capture the diverse ways in which interaction is organised in situ. Seedhouse (2004) suggested that
transcripts are designed to make the primary data accessible for close analytical consideration. The production of transcripts for analytical reasons was also supported by Mondada (2007), who claimed that “transcripts are produced along with the analysis, and not previously to it” (p. 815). Accordingly, to make an empirically valid observation, it is important that transcripts and data recording should be used simultaneously as transcripts are used to assist in the data analysis.

In accordance with the tenets of CA, the aim is to work from data to theory, which is bottom-up and analysis is data driven; data driven approach does not begin with a hypothesis about the data. Before starting the process of transcribing for this study, I started by watching and listening to the video recordings and taking down notes on segments that were of interest, such as patterns or phenomena of L2 interaction. After I had identified several phenomena or features from the data that could be potential aspects for further investigation, I started to organise them in the list, beginning with transcribing the talk.

Transcribing the whole eight hours would probably not have been possible as this study has an allotted time frame. Thus, the identification of word search phenomena emerged from the process of unmotivated looking, and further notes were taken, noticing multimodal resources while considering Seedhouse’s (2004) guiding questions: “why this, in this way, right now?”. As such, I began to do a ‘rough’ transcription on segments and share the initial observations and findings in meetings and in data sessions. The processes of transcribing and analysis were then followed by building up collections on word search sequences.

The transcriptions in this study are based on the conventions devised by Jefferson’s (2004) in which symbols were added for overlap, volume, speed, intonation, and other relevant factors (Appendix A). I also adapted a relatively new tradition of transcribing that has been used by Leyland (2016) and Greer (2016). Following the transcribing method by these researchers, this enables to highlight the focus on spoken language and embodied actions. The transcribing process took several months and involved listening, watching segments multiple times, adding details to the transcripts, and formulating analyses. The transcribing process started with using the CLAN
software. To use CLAN the video files were converted to the .MOV format. A sample of the transcribing process using CLAN can be seen in the figure below (Figure 3.1).

![Figure 3.1: Transcribing video data using CLAN](image)

As for the presentation of the data, a permission was sought from the participants to allow the researcher to reproduce pictures and visual data in the transcripts. However, the names of the participants were changed to pseudonyms. As the aims of the study are to investigate the multimodal resources in word search sequence, transcribing the visible features of the interaction can be very challenging. To represent the embodied actions in the data, description of the embodied actions activities were annotated in double parentheses. Moreover, vertical lines were added to mark the onset of an embodied action relative to the talk in the line above and the description of embodied action in double parentheses. In representing the annotated of the visual action that involve different multimodal resources, still images from the video
data are provided in the transcription. The still images are used as ethical clearance and permission have been sought from the participants and thus, the full array of the visual will allow the reader to come to their own conclusion on how the multimodal resources are situated in the interaction. Below is a transcription layout sample from Greer’s (2016) paper, which this study adopted to present the data (Figure 3.2).

32 Ali |that’s okay that’s okay.<
   |((looking at screen))
33   |(3.5)
   |((Kei looks at Ali, Ali looks at screen))

34 Ali |huh (. ) it.
   |((shows phone to Kei))

35   |((0.7)
   |((Kei looks at phone))

Figure 3.2: Transcription layout example from Greer (2017, p. 221)

In all excerpts in the analysis chapters, the start of the word search is indicated with arrow in the transcripts. The full version of the excerpts presented in the analysis Chapters can also be found in the Appendices (Appendix E, Appendix F, Appendix G, Appendix H, Appendix I, Appendix J and Appendix K).
4.7 Data Analysis Procedures

The analysis process was initially started when the video recordings were watched, listened to, and observed while taking down notes on interesting episodes. At this stage, the observations were made without any particular research focus, and this was closely based on CA’s principles of ‘unmotivated looking.’ After the unmotivated looking had taken place, an interesting phenomenon that emerged from the discovery was on ‘repair’, and a further observation and notes were made to distinguish the types of repair identified. Therefore, this study aims to reach for a more detailed understanding of repair organisation, particularly to develop an understanding of word searches in L2 interaction.

Once the word search phenomenon was identified, a collection of similar sequences or occurrences were built up and notes were written down on the differences or similarities between each of the sequences. This stage is known as ‘building collections.’ A total of 44 word-searches occurrences were identified from the primary data. Extracts of the word search sequences were transcribed and analysed. Both verbal and embodied actions were also transcribed.

When examining the action sequences of word searches, transcriptions and the video data were used to analyse in detail the roles of talk and embodied actions. During the analysis, I discovered several patterns of word search, and I then distinguished the word search sequences into three categories: self-initiates/self-repairs, self-initiates/other-repair, and word search unresolved. Then the examination of the details analyses was carried out for each of the occurrences through examination of the turn-taking organisation, sequence organisation, repair organisation, and examination of how participants initiate and resolve the word search activities and also the accomplishment of intersubjectivity. Throughout the analytical process, further exploration of the data resulted in understanding the roles of multimodal resources in interaction, specifically in participation organisation, co-participant joint solution, resolving a word search without attaining the actual word, and the achievement of intersubjectivity.

At various times, parts of the analysis were presented at data sessions with the micro-analysis research group (MARG) in the School of Education, Communication and Language Sciences and at academic conferences. As CA takes an emic perspective
and the analysis is data driven, it would be beneficial to share one’s work-in-progress and analytic ideas with other CA researchers or audiences who are interested in the data presentation. Furthermore, when the analysis is presented, transcripts that are provided as a representation of the data allows readers to assess the interpretation work of the data and provide feedback that could be helpful for moving forward with the analysis and data interpretation.

4.8 Methodological and Analytical Considerations

A few methodological and analytical considerations that need to be reflected in this study. The most important concern lies in the fact that not all of the group sets of data collected could be used for this study. The interest to look at the specific phenomenon of word search started from ‘unmotivated looking’ (Ten Have, 2007). When I started to identify word search practices in my data, out of six groups of a total eight hours video recording, only three data group sets were used. ⁴

In terms of methodological aspects, audio from the video recording in the second data group was not clear. This was the first recording that was taken using a video camera only and the participants spoke in low voice which could not be heard clearly. Moreover, the participants in this group were my colleagues and, knowing my interest in looking at gesture, they may have exhibited different behaviour in talk. Although I was not present at the data collection, knowing that the video would be analysed may have influenced the interaction

As for the third and fourth data groups, the limitation was both of the data group sets lasted between twenty and thirty minutes, and most of the time the participants were just eating and the duration of conversation is short. Moreover, the venue for these two data collections was the students’ common room during the lunch break, which meant that a large number of sometimes noisy students was passing by. This disruption was compounded by other noises, such as the sound of the microwave and the conversations of groups of nearby students.

⁴ Summary of the data groups can be found in Section 4.3
Although I placed an audio recorder near the participants, the audio recorder captured the surrounding noise and the participants’ voice was also not clear and this made the transcription process challenging. Although these data were not used for this study on word search practices, they did contribute to other interactional practices, such as ‘multiactivity,’ which are worth considering for future research. Due to the methodological limitation for the second, third and fourth data groups, this study’s word search phenomenon collection was based on the first, fifth and sixth data group.

There were also issues surrounding analytical concerns, especially during the process of transcribing the nonverbal conduct in my data. It was also time-consuming to identify and position the nonverbal movements at the precise timing parallel to the occurrences of verbal utterances. As Mondada (2016a) stated, “analysis depends heavily not only on the detailed scrutiny of video materials at hand but also of their detailed transcription, allowing a precise interpretation of the trajectories, temporalities and qualities of these multiple resources” (p. 361). Considering that nonverbal conduct is the focal point of my analysis, I opted for the alternative to use still images to represent the embodied actions, as these allow the readers to interpret how these embodied actions are situated in the context of the interaction and the interpretation of “why that gesture or movement at that particular moment” depended heavily on the analysis of paragraphs. However, this is not to say that researchers are not dealing with these challenges, as there are studies on embodied actions that provide links to their video data for readers to view and make associations with the analysis (see, e.g., Laurier, 2013).

4.9 Summary

With the consideration of using a multimodal CA approach in this study, the design of the study has been outlined. Specifically, explanation of the research settings, participants, data collection procedures and ethical considerations have been described. Additionally, transcribing procedures, transcription and data presentation and data analysis procedures have also been sketched. The following three chapters present a detailed analyses of the extracts selected from the word search collection.
Chapter 5. Participation in the Word Search Practice

5.1 Introduction

Rather than seeing word searches as being merely a spoken phenomenon, this study highlights the diverse range of multimodal resources that people rely upon during word searches in naturally occurring interaction. The three analysis chapters (Chapter 5, Chapter 6 and Chapter 7) are organised in distinct ways to investigate the relationship between talk and embodied actions that are mobilised between L2-L2 speakers through their engagement in word search activities. Firstly, I will start with investigating how participants organise participation in a word search (Chapter 5) and then move on to enquiring how participants use embodied actions for constructing a joint solution to the word search sequence (Chapter 6). The final analysis section (Chapter 7) focuses on how embodied actions are mobilised by participants as a resource to resolve a word search when the searched-for word is not attained.

This chapter presents the first analysis chapter of word search phenomena as an interactional practice in a multiparty L2 conversation. As pointed out in Chapter 1, the setting of the study is a non-educational one, in which international students are having dinner together at a cafe. Moreover, the data presented is also in a multiactivity setting in which international students, are seen talking, eating, drinking and handling material objects (e.g., mobile phones, utensils, teapots, etc.) while meeting at the cafe. Therefore, in this chapter, talk and embodied actions, embodiment such as gaze, gestures, and body orientation are examined as the central component to understanding the organisation of participation frameworks (Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004), specifically in doing word searches. The complex and diverse shifting participation framework in a multiparty L2 interaction in word searches is explored. Furthermore, the significant role of multiple semiotic resources, multimodal resources, deployed in the interaction that is analysed from video-recorded data will enable us to understand how participants go about managing and structuring orderly interactive activities in word search sequences.

This analysis chapter is divided into three sections. Section 5.2 examines instances when the speaker shows his or her orientation with a particular participant in
seeking help when the search for a word is in progress. Section 5.3 analyses how speakers’ use of embodied actions in an ongoing word search triggers a request for co-participants to make an attempt for an anticipatory word solution. Section 5.4 presents instances of how non-speaking participants join in to assist another participant (e.g. a speaker or recipient) to resolve the word search and to assist in achieving understanding. In this analysis chapter, I aim to investigate how participation in word search sequences is negotiated and coordinated through the use of talk and embodied actions in multiparty and multiactivity L2 interaction.

5.2 Speaker Mobilises Embodied Actions to Seek Help in Word Searches

This section demonstrates how a speaker displays his or her orientation towards a particular participant to request help in his or her ongoing word search. Three examples are analysed in this section, each showing occasions of a speaker displaying troubles in talk, launching a word search, and then beginning to position his or her body posture and eye gaze towards a particular participant to seek for assistance in searching for a word.

The three examples in this section (e.g., Excerpt 1, Excerpt 2 and Excerpt 3) show similarities in which the speakers produce their candidate solutions in the search sequence with rising intonation and displays of body orientation towards another participant as a request for the candidate solutions to be confirmed or corrected. This is similar to Koshik and Seo’s 2012 word search study on rising intonation in the production of a candidate solution when requesting help, and Siegel’s 2016 study of the use of prosody-marked candidate solutions as an indication of assistance seeking.

However, in their data (Koshik and Seo, 2012; Siegel, 2016) the interaction was in dyadic conversations whereas in this study the interaction features a multiparty conversation that allows us to examine the complex and more diverse shifting participation framework. The analysis examines the roles of multimodal resources, when organising participation in word searches. The analysis in this section will consider the organisation of participation based on (1) who does the current speaker seek help from?; (2) why does the speaker shift his orientation towards the particular
participant? and (3) how does the particular participant or recipient respond for collaboration?

The first example in this chapter looks at occurrences when the current speaker seeks help from an addressed participant for confirmation to the speaker’s candidate solution to his/her word search. In Excerpt 1 (below), the conversation features a conversation over dinner between three international students (Amy, Ben and Kai) who are eating and talking together. In this segment, Kai is telling Amy about his visit to Hong Kong, which happens to be Amy’s hometown, and in his telling he shares his experiences and the things he noticed during his visit there. It should be noted that in this segment Ben does not participate in the conversation, and is instead seen browsing his mobile phone.

*Excerpt 1: Tsim Tsa Tsui (A place in Hong Kong)*

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1  KAI: but what I know in Hong Kong after eleven
2   o'clock there's no cars
 (0.4)
3  KAI: only public transport
 (0.6)
6  AMY: really↑
7→ KAI: I::: (0.4) | I::: stayed near (1.0) | uhm:::
   ((Kai shifts gaze away from Amy and moves body slightly to his right side [Fig. 5.1])
   |((Kai closes his eyes and puts his forefinger on the bridge of his nose [Fig. 5.2]))
   |((Amy returns gaze to Kai.))
8  I forgot that↓
   ((Kai covers his face with his hand as Amy maintains her gaze on him [Fig. 5.3]))
At the beginning of this excerpt, from line 1 to line 5, Kai orients towards Amy as his addressed recipient, and he turns his gaze to Amy as he begins his telling. Responding to Kai’s telling, Amy’s surprise is expressed through her high-pitched voice and emphasis intonation as she says “really↑” (line 6). Upon getting the response from Amy, Kai makes the continuation in his telling in line 7. However, Kai displays speech perturbation through the demonstration of an elongated sound, restarts, long pause, and hesitation, all of which indicate the launch of his word search. It is observed that as Kai starts to show the speech perturbation in line 7, he shifts his gaze away from Amy and pauses for 0.4 seconds, as shown in figure 5.1 in the transcript. Furthermore,
During the stretched vowel sound in the utterances “I::” and “nea::r” Kai closes his eyes which is then followed with his elongated hesitancy marker “uhm::” (line 7).

Turning now to analysis of how both Kai and Amy display their orientation towards each other in the word search sequence, at the start of Kai’s word search (line 7) he begins to shift his gaze away from Amy and turns to look to his right side. Along with his gaze shift away, he shifts his sitting position by leaning his body posture slightly to his right as he elongates “I:::” and pauses a moment (0.4 second), as shown in Figure 5.1. As Kai makes a continuation in the same turn, he shifts his body to a sitting position and puts his right-hand forefinger on the bridge of his nose with closed eyes, resembling a ‘thinking posture’ (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986), as illustrated in Figure 5.2. However, in Kai’s continuation he shows further speech perturbation, which is then followed by a 1.0 second silence. At this point Amy, who keeps her gaze on Kai at the start of Kai’s word search, begins to notice that Kai’s embodied actions of ‘doing thinking’ (Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1994 cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583) indicates that he is in a solitary word search.

Kai continues to display the same body posture and does not produce any eye contact with Amy, an indication that he is not inviting Amy into the search process (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986) and is making a preference for self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977). Thus, Amy withdraws her gaze away during the 1.0 second pause (line 7), indicating that she is giving space for Kai in his ‘doing thinking.’ She takes the opportunity to continue her eating activity. Following the long silence (1.0 second), Kai produces the hesitancy marker “uhm::” and remains in similar body posture, demonstrating his preference to make a self-repair and keep his turn. As Kurhila (2006) stated: “By producing some vocalization, speakers can take time for processing the utterance, but still hold turn for themselves by indicating that there is more to come” (p. 27).

At this moment, Amy turns her head towards Kai and directs her gaze towards him to display her recipiency towards his ongoing word search process. Even though Amy displays her recipiency towards Kai, Kai does not demonstrate any eye contact with her. Instead, he continues to show trouble in talk and remains with closed eyes and with part of his face covered by his hand, explicitly presenting his trouble in his word
search as he utters “I forgot that!” (line 8, as illustrated in Figure 5.3). It could also be observed that although Kai does not direct his eyes towards Amy, she shows her orientation towards him by keeping her gaze on Kai, indicating her continued listenership. Furthermore, the disengagement of eye contact and the lack of prosody in Kai’s utterance in line 8 demonstrates his engagement in a solitary word search and that he is not requesting help from his recipient (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986).

Showing his persistence to resolve his word search by himself, Kai holds his body posture by closing his eyes, covering part of his face with his head in a downward position as he continues his solitary word search in the 0.7 second pause in line 9. Following this, in line 10, Kai shows hesitation and makes a false start through the cut-off word (sh-) while he continues to disengage himself from Amy. However, as he recalls the possible name of the place that he is searching for, he then uncovers his face and directs his gaze at Amy and produces “Tsim Sha Tsui?” with a rising intonation, as shown in line 10 and Figure 5.4. Furthermore, the candidate solution “Tsim Sha Tsui?” with a rising intonation represents Kai making an attempt to produce a ‘try-marked’ word (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979). At this moment, it is observed that Kai’s eye gaze and body orientation towards Amy as he produces the candidate solution in a rising intonation are requesting Amy’s confirmation (Koshik and Seo, 2012) and Amy is then treated as the ‘knowing recipient’ (Heritage, 2012a; Heritage, 2012b) who has more knowledge about Hong Kong.

Following the mutual gaze between Kai and Amy in line 10, Amy, who has food in her mouth, manages to respond only with a token minimal “mhm” accompanied by a nodding action as she confirms Kai’s candidate solution proposal (line 11). The minimal token as confirmation and Amy’s head nodding display her agreement and understanding and thus Kai proceeds with the talk (line 12 – line 16). In this example, it appears that the current speakers have the authority to invite or not to invite a participant to join in the word search from the gaze direction (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986).

Although it is also shown that the current speaker explicitly displays trouble through with the explicit marker “I forgot”, his gaze disengagement demonstrates that he is engaged in a solitary word search. The analysis also indicates that the speaker is
persistent in making a preference for self-word completion, and the recipient displays listenership at the same time and continues to be involved in another activity (eating). Moreover, this example illustrates that the recipient shows herself to be observant towards the ongoing word search process, and, as the speaker invites the recipient through the gaze direction, the recipient collaborates to confirm the word being sought, thereby enabling the speaker to progress.

In the following example, the analysis shows how the co-participants’ responses to an opinion given by the first speaker and due to having trouble in talk, the co-participant seeks confirmation from a non-speaking participant for her candidate solution to her word search.

**Excerpt 2: Dessert or desert**

(Ann: Vietnam; Mus: Malaysia; Lea: Kazakhstan)

1  ANN: It's too: hot >and< of course but not as
2    hot I find Vietnam:
3  MUS: mm[:::]   
4  ANN: [ I don't ] think it's that hot as- as- Kazakhsta
5    n either
6    (0.5)
7  LEA: come on::: it's Africa::↑
8    ((Lea turns to gaze on Ann and halts from pouring tea to her cup.))
9  (0.7)
10 (Lea and Ann gaze on each other. Mus shifts gaze downward.))
11 LEA: >I mean< they have dessert
12    ((Mus gazes at Lea. Both Lea and Ann gaze at each other. [Fig. 5.5]))

**Figure 5.5**

10 (1.1)
11 ANN: I mean [where where
Excerpt 2 in this section is a conversation between Ann, Lea and Mus. In this segment, the three international students are having their desserts and drinking tea as Ann talks about the weather conditions when she visited Africa on her last vacation. In line 1 to line 5, Ann begins her telling by describing and comparing the weather conditions in Africa with her home country Vietnam (line 1 - line 5). During Ann’s
telling, Mus demonstrates her listenership with a minimal response token in line 3 and Mus also displays her recipiency towards Ann as she keeps her gaze on Ann.

In line 7, Lea halts her activity of pouring the tea and holds the teapot in mid-air as she brings her gaze towards Ann and says “come on::: it's Africa::↑”, ending in an elongated vowel sound and rising pitch. However, there is no uptake from Ann and this leads to a 0.7 second pause (line 8). The lack of response in the 0.7 second silence (line 8) indicates to Lea that Ann has trouble in understanding, and thus in line 9 Lea keeps her gaze on Ann and self-repairs in her next subsequent action as she says “>I mean< they have dessert” (shown in Figure 5.5). Nonetheless, there is another long, 1.1 second pause (line 10) following Lea’s utterance in line 10, and no such response is forthcoming from Ann. Instead, both Ann and Lea maintain their gaze on each other. At the same moment, Mus shifts her gaze, previously downwards at the plate of food, towards Lea. The long 1.1 second pause (line 10) due to no uptake from Ann is taken by Lea to mean that Ann is continuing to have trouble understanding. Hence, in line 12, Lea shifts her gaze, which was on Ann, towards Mus and makes a self-repair as she repeats her previous word “dessert” in a soft voice, which possibly displays her uncertainty (illustrated in Figure 5.6). Following this, Lea produces another word choice, “desert,” which she utters in a soft voice and rising intonation (Figure 5.7), and in the second utterance of the lexical word Lea shifts her gaze upwards to indicate ‘doing thinking’ (Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1994 cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583).

Lea’s soft utterance in line 12 to search for the correct lexical word can be considered as searching for the correct word even though she does not display any speech perturbation in her utterance (unlike in the previous example - Excerpt 1). Instead, Lea launches her word search through ‘doing pronunciation’ (Brouwer, 2004) as she utters in a soft voice “°dessert desert?°” (line 12). It is observed that as Lea produces the first lexical word “desert”, Lea directing her gaze to Mus indicates that she is requesting Mus’s help (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). However, Lea begins to shift her gaze upwards as she produces the second lexical word “desert” as a ‘try-marking’ it (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979) and demonstrating ‘doing thinking.’ Consequently, Mus nods her head slightly as Lea produces the second lexical word “desert” and maintains her gaze at Lea (Figure 5.7).
Turning to Mus’s co-participation in assisting Lea in her word search, following Lea’s gaze direction at Mus as Lea produces the word “dessert” (line 12), Mus recognises it as an invitation for her to enter Lea’s word search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). However, having the persistence to self-repair, Lea shifts her gaze away and brings it upwards when she produces “desert,” which is also followed by Mus’s embodied actions, where she gives a slight head nod to display acknowledgement of Lea’s candidate word. However, Lea does not notice the head nod from Mus as she has shifted her gaze upwards at this point.

Therefore, in line 13, Mus self-selects and echoes Lea’s candidate solution “desert”, which overlaps with Ann’s utterance in line 14. As Mus utters the word “desert” (line 13), she turns her gaze upwards to display ‘doing thinking,’ as illustrated in Figure 5.8. At this point, Lea keeps her gaze on Mus and also shows a slight smile. Furthermore, overlapping with Ann’s utterance (line 14), Mus returns her gaze at Lea and repeats “desert” in line 15, confirming that the lexical word “desert” is the correct word choice to Lea’s word search. Although Mus’s utterances overlap with Ann’s (line 13-line 15), Lea shows acceptance of the confirmation with token laughter and then repeats the candidate word at a faster pace in line 16. Following this, a mutual gaze is demonstrated between Mus and Lea, which co-occurs with Lea’s token laughter and word repetition in line 16. Following the laughter, Lea produces a gestural finger pointing movement towards Mus (as illustrated in Figure 5.9) in a playful manner, and Mus returns the smile to indicate that they have reached a mutual understanding.

The example analysed in Excerpt 2 shows that the speaker displays a shift of participation towards another recipient who is the non-speaking participant to request help in confirming the correct word lexical word. The analysis shows that seeking help in word searches can be through the speaker’s gaze direction (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986) and the ‘try-marked’ word in rising intonation can indicate a search for correction or confirmation from a co-participant (Koshik and Seo, 2012).

Furthermore, it is shown that the speaker displays an orientation towards a particular co-participant who the speaker positions as a person who has comparatively more knowledge as a second language user (Hosoda, 2006; Kurhila, 2006). Moreover,
this example also shows that the participants manage and organise their relevant participation framework to resolve the word search and demonstrate a further collaborative work to find the solution to the word search to achieve understanding. It can be interpreted that Lea’s smile, which co-occurs with Mus’s utterance in line 13, is possibly ‘flagging for markedness’ (Firth, 2009) for the candidate word produced. Then, as Lea displays an understanding and acceptance to the candidate solution, the accompanying token laughter in line 16 can be interpreted as displaying her embarrassment (Wilkinson, 2007).

The next example in this section will be another analysis of how the speaker launches a word search and then shifts his participation and orientation towards a third, non-speaking participant, for help.

Excerpt 3: Blessings

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1  BEN:  er::: our prayer ↑is (0.4) oh::: God (0.2) give us:
2  ble:ssings (0.4) and give us:::
3  (0.8)  ((Ben starts to shift his gaze away from Amy.))
4   BEN:  ah::::::
      ((Ben gazes downwards towards the table as Amy keeps her gaze on Ben. [Fig. 5.10]))

Figure 5.10

5  (0.8)
6  BEN:  op- ↑what's rezke:y?  ((tr. Malay word: a state of being grateful))
      | ((Ben turns his gaze to Kai and Kai gazes at Ben. Amy keeps her gaze on Ben. [Fig. 5.11]))
In Excerpt 3, Ben explains to Amy about how his religion observes saying a meal prayer before eating. Thus, as Ben recites a sample of his prayer to Amy, he begins to show trouble, which is indicated through numerous pauses and stretched words, showing an upcoming trouble in talk (line 1-line 2). Following Ben’s
incomplete turn construction in line 2 for the stretched word “us:::” is a long 0.8 second pause (line 3), while he starts to shift his gaze away from Amy.

In line 4, Amy keeps her gaze on Ben although Ben shows further hesitation through the elongated hesitation marker “ah::::::”, and, co-occurring with the hesitation marker, Ben looks downward, indicating the onset of his word search (Figure 5.10). As Ben demonstrates his trouble in talk and then launches his word search (line 4), Amy leans her body posture slightly forward towards Ben and keeps her gaze on him. At this point, Amy does not interrupt Ben and instead shows listenership and gives space to Ben to do his solitary word search, which then leads to another long 0.8 second pause in line 5.

In line 6, Ben makes a false start through the cut-off word in his turn beginning. Ben then abruptly turns his head and directs his gaze towards Kai and explicitly displays his trouble of locating a word by asking Kai “↑what's rezkey?”.

Following Ben’s talk and embodied actions and shift in orientation towards Kai (as illustrated in Figure 5.11), the multimodal resources displayed by Ben through the utterance end in a rising intonation and gaze direction, demonstrating his request for help in his word search (Kurhila, 2006; Koshik and Seo, 2012).

Thus, Ben makes the explicit request “what is?” which is equivalent to using formulaic expression such as “how can I say?” (Brouwer, 2003; Jung, 2004) and provides the searched-for word “rezkey” through code-switching as an invitation for Kai’s co-participation. It is noteworthy that the word “rezkey” is from the Malay language and means ‘a condition of being grateful,’ and as both Kai and Ben share the same L1, Ben clearly makes the searched-for word recognisable to Kai. Thus, in this occurrence Ben’s code-switching utterance co-occurring with his embodied action of gazing towards a specific recipient, form a new participant constellation and restrict another recipient in his word search (Greer, 2013).

In line 6, Ben shifts his orientation towards Kai and makes the explicit request, Kai is bringing a spoonful of food to his mouth, and at once Kai slightly glance towards Ben as recognising the searched-for word invitation is addressed to him (as illustrated in Figure 5.11). Kai is now seen as the ‘knowing recipient’ (Heritage, 2012a; Heritage, 2012b).
Following the explicit invitation to join the word search comes a pause of 1.5 seconds (line 7). Notably, the silence here is not an empty moment but occupied with embodied actions displayed by the three participants. During the silence (line 7), Kai brings his head up and shifts his gaze to his right towards the wall to display a ‘thinking face characteristic’ (as illustrated in Figure 5.12) and engages in a solitary word search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Furthermore, in Kai’s thinking moment he continues to chew his food and thus his embodied actions and state of eating display his multiactivity involvement while doing a word search (Haddington et al., 2014). On the other hand, both Ben and Amy keep their gaze on Kai throughout the long 1.5 seconds pause (line 7), showing their orientation towards him.

Following the long silence in line 7, no verbal response from Kai is produced, and, possibly realizing that Kai has food in his mouth, Ben self-selects himself to take the subsequent turn. However, Ben’s turn beginning overlaps with Kai’s hesitation (line 8 – line 9). Due to the overlap between Kai and Ben, there is a micro pause (line 10), and then Ben makes an attempt to make a self-repair as he provides a candidate solution to his word search and says “a blessings” and then repeats his candidate solution “[blessings]” with emphasis. Kai also shows his confirmation to the candidate solution in which he jointly repeats the word “[blessings]”, which overlaps with Ben’s repetition (line 11 – line 12).

Although Ben and Kai show collaboration in their joint utterance in line 11 and line 12, at this point Ben has shifted his orientation towards Amy, where both he and Amy show mutual eye contact (as illustrated in Figure 5.13). Conversely, although Kai does not direct his gaze onto any of the other participants (as he is looking down on his plate and continuing in his eating activity), he displays an orientation in attending to the talk by producing his joint utterance with Ben (line 12). Furthermore, Kai also shows further agreement with Ben’s candidate word solution by nodding his head in a sideways position as he utters the change-of-state token (Heritage, 1984a) “AH::” in an elongated vowel sound in a loud voice. At the same moment, Amy begins to show an understanding as she nods her head and enters a mutual gaze with Ben (Figure 5.13).

The example above shows that Ben mobilises the use of gaze direction and speech to orient towards a specific co-participant to seek assistance in the search.
sequence. Furthermore, Ben requests help from Kai, the latter being the language expert, through alternating to a similar language that they share (line 6). Kai accepts the request and shifts into thinking position (Figure 5.12), delivering his ‘affiliation’ as to have shared cultural knowledge (Hosoda, 2006).

The three excerpts analysed in this section show similarities where the current speaker shifts his/her gaze and displays an orientation towards a particular participant to seek assistance in the word search. Both Excerpt 1 and Excerpt 2 show that the speaker is seeking help through making the request for confirmation from their co-participants, who are regarded as someone with more content knowledge of the topic (Excerpt 1), or someone who the speaker positions as a person who has more knowledge in the second language (Hosoda, 2006; Kurhila, 2006).

Similarly, in Excerpt 3, the speaker particularly shifts his orientation to a particular participant who shares the same cultural knowledge to seek assistance. It should be noted that in Excerpt 1 the speaker directs his invitation in the word search towards an addressed participant for help. Nonetheless, Except 2 and Excerpt 3 show a similar pattern, such as the speaker mobilising his talk and embodied actions towards a non-speaking participant to seek assistance.

The analysis in this section focuses on a speaker who displays a shifting participation towards a particular participant in the word search sequence when seeking help. The next section shows occurrences in which the speakers utilise talk and embodied actions when doing a word search, and thus the multimodal resources deployed by the speaker become a resource that triggers the recipients to make an attempt to join in the search and produce an anticipatory word completion.

5.3 Speaker’s Talk, Gesture and The Use of Object Trigger Co-Participation

This section examines instances where the speaker displays trouble in mid-turn construction and the trouble in the mid-turn indicates a word search, provides a place for an anticipatory completion by another participant (Lerner, 1996). Therefore, the next example in this section focuses on how the speaker’s use of gestures in the ongoing word search triggers an anticipatory word completion by a co-participant.
In Excerpt 4, the participants show joint orientation when interacting with each other, in which a mobile phone becomes a shared object for the ongoing talk (Nevile et al., 2014). The conversation in this segment begins by Ben enquiring if Amy has seen the ‘galaxy note four’ mobile phone model in the Samsung store in town. Additionally, Ben holds in his right hand a mobile phone and he positions it slightly towards Amy (line 1 – line 6).

**Excerpt 4: Bend screen**

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1. **BEN:** it's in:: Samsung store right now↓
2. (0.5)
3. **AMY:** it's already there?
4. **BEN:** ye:s↑
5. (0.3)
6. **BEN:** a::nd you >could< also see:: galaxy note (.).|edge
7. (0.7)
8. **BEN:** the o- [the one]
   ((Ben gazes at his mobile and places the mobile from right hand to left hand.))
9. **AMY:** |[e:dge? ] (. ) hh haha
   |((Both Amy and Ben gaze at each other.))
10. **BEN:** yah
11. ( . )
12. →**BEN** the one- the one that has ↑a:::
   ((Ben turns mobile screen to face Amy. Amy brings her body posture forward. [Fig. 5.14]))
13. (0.5)
   ((Ben gazes upwards and moves posture backwards.))
91

14 BEN:  tch
((Ben gazes at a space in front of him. Amy gazes at Ben.))

15 AMY:  co[ver↑]
((Ben and Amy gaze at each other))

16 BEN:  │[↑ah]: (. ) │bend ↑scree:n
│((Ben gazes at Amy.))

((Ben tilts his head and makes a curve movement around his mobile. Amy makes an open-book hand gesture. [Fig. 5.15]))

Figure 5.15

17 (0.4)

18 AMY:  is it goo::d to have a bend scree:n?

In line 8, Ben’s turn beginning shows verbal perturbation through the cut-off word as he repeats his utterance “the one”, and his speech perturbation overlaps with Amy’s utterance in rising intonation “e:dge?” (line 9). The rising intonation in Amy’s turns indicates that she is seeking clarification from Ben as the main speaker, and her laughter token in line 9 is possibly showing her uncertainty or ‘flagging for markedness’ (Firth, 2009) for the word produced in line 9. Ben then acknowledges with a token “yah” (line 10) to Amy’s clarification request in line 9. However, as Ben makes a continuation in line 12, he shows trouble in his turn through speech perturbation, in which he repeats his utterance “the one” and elongates a high pitch vowel sound “↑a::” in his incomplete turn construction, indicating the launch of his word search activity.

Thus, observing Ben’s embodied action in line 12, he shifts his gaze direction, previously at Amy, to the mobile phone in his right hand. An interesting point here is that at the onset of Ben’s word search in line 12, in Ben’s incomplete utterance “the one- the one that has ↑a::” (line 12), his utterance synchronises with his hand
movement. As shown in the video data, Ben transfers the mobile phone from his right hand to his left hand and slightly bends his body to his left side, which moves along with his hand movement. Ben then flips the mobile with his left hand to have the screen facing towards Amy, and brings his right palm above the mobile phone (as illustrated in Figure 5.14). Following line 12 is a 0.5 second pause in line 13, in which Ben halts his hand’s movement, shifts his gaze upwards, and positions his body posture slightly backwards and makes a clicking sound “tch” in line 14. The silence, shifting gaze at a space as if ‘doing thinking,’ and the clicking vocal sound are features indicating that he is in his ongoing word search.

Another striking feature in this excerpt is to examine how Amy, as the addressed recipient, recognises the opportunity to attempt to provide an anticipatory word completion in the word search activity. At the onset of Ben’s word search in line 12, Amy shows her orientation towards Ben, keeping her gaze on the Ben’s hand, and she leans her body slightly forward to have a closer view at the mobile’s front screen, as illustrated in figure 5.14 above. Then, as Ben progresses in his word search activity, he makes a vocal clicking sound “tch” (line 14) and gazes into space. Simultaneously, Amy shifts her gaze and turns to look at Ben. Ben does not appear to be gazing at Amy at this point, and thus it could be understood that no invitation is given to Amy to join in the search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Moreover, Ben’s gaze away is taken by Amy to indicate that Ben is involved in a solitary word search (ibid.).

However, although there is no invitation to join in the word search, Ben’s talk, hand movements and the use of the object provide valuable resources as an opportunity for Amy to proffer a possible candidate solution. Consequently, Amy offers an anticipatory word solution as she utters “_cover↑_” (line 15), which begins with emphasis and rises in pitch as she moves her body posture backwards. Furthermore, Amy’s anticipatory high-pitched word solution could be taken as her ‘try-marking’ it (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979). Amy’s utterance “_cover↑_” overlaps with Ben’s elongated hesitancy-marker “_ah:::_” (line 16), and during the overlap both of them maintain their gaze at each other. Following Ben’s elongated hesitation marker (line 16) is a micro-pause, and then he produces his candidate solution to his word search as he says “_bend ↑scree:n_” (line 16), in which he stresses the word “bend” with emphasis and ends his utterance with a rising pitch.
Moving to the multimodal resources displayed in Figure 5.15 (proceeding the utterance in line 16), it can be observed that the synchronised demonstration of embodied actions between Ben and Amy to support the different candidate word produced in the search sequence. In line 16, Ben makes eye contact with Amy after the micro-pause and provides his candidate solution “\texttt{bend \uparrow screen}”, which co-occurs with his hand gesture making a curve movement around the mobile phone. At this point too, Amy performs an open-book hand gesture which synchronises with Ben’s talk and hand movement.

The simultaneous hand gestures can be said to serve two purposes. Firstly, Ben’s hand gestures are to support his candidate word completion and to secure Amy’s understanding. Secondly, Amy’s hand movement, in which she demonstrates open-book hand gestures is to provide further description of her previous utterance “\texttt{cover\uparrow}” (line 15), and an attempt to disambiguate a possible non-understanding to her anticipatory word completion “\texttt{cover\uparrow}” (line 15). Furthermore, although Ben’s talk and gestures overlap with Amy’s hand gestures, Ben, being the first speaker, has the authority for his solution to be accepted (Lerner, 2004). Furthermore, Ben displays his preference to make a self-repair in his ongoing word search (Schegloff et al., 1977) and Amy displays acceptance of Ben’s candidate solution to his word search, which then allows the talk to progress with Amy producing the next enquiry in line 18.

Section 5.3 has illustrated how a speaker’s talk and gestures become a resource to prompt a recipient to make an anticipatory word completion. In the previous section (Section 5.2), we examined the ways in which a speaker’s gaze direction at a particular recipient constitute an invitation to co-participate in the ongoing talk. However, the outcome in the example shown in Excerpt 4 differs from the examples in Section 5.2, in which (Excerpt 4) the recipient displays her co-participation without receiving an invitation through eye gaze or verbal invitation, as in previous studies by Goodwin and Goodwin (1986), Kurhila (2006) and Koshik and Seo (2012). This section has illustrated that the recipient shows orientation by displaying her gaze at the speaker’s hand gestures and by attending to his utterance, which has become a resource for her to anticipate a word completion. Furthermore, the negotiation that is also displayed through both speaker and recipients’ synchronised hand gestures show their
collaboration in the search sequence and thus, finally, acceptance of the current speaker’s candidate solution.

5.4 Non-Speaking Participant Joint Solution in Search Sequences

This section analyses two excerpts (Excerpt 5 and Excerpt 6) from the same group of international students: Ben, Kai and Amy. The two excerpts present word search sequences that are launched by Ben (the main speaker) and then Ben makes a self-repair to resolve his word search. Although a candidate solution to the word search is produced, the addressed recipient displays a non-understanding for the candidate solution given. Thus, the search sequence is extended to a longer series for the participant to reach a mutual understanding (Egbert et al., 2004).

However, an interesting phenomenon of the joint solution to the word search is a conjoined manner by a third person, who is a non-speaking participant, in the interaction. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that the non-speaking participant, who is initially involved in a multiactivity (e.g., eating and listening), joins in the ongoing word search sequences to provide an explanation or additional information for a further solution to the word search. Thus, the analysis in this section will look closely at how the participants display their orientation in the ongoing word search and how they achieve a collaborative solution to search sequences.

Excerpt 5 below is a continuation of the conversation “blessings” presented in Excerpt 3 (Section 5.2), in which Ben talks about saying a meal prayer before eating. The following excerpt begins with the last two lines from the transcript in Excerpt 3. The line numbers are kept the same for consistency.

Excerpt 5: The fire

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

11 BEN: a blessings [blessings↑]
12 KAI: [blessings ] AH::
13 → BEN: ↑a:::nd
14 (1.1)
   {(Ben keeps his gaze at Amy.)}
15  BEN: put us a [faːr↑ froːm↑] [(Ben stretches both hands apart. [Fig. 5.16])]

\[Figure 5.16\]

16  AMY: >sin< [(Amy shifts her body posture backwards.)]
17  (0.2)
18  BEN: NO [(Ben shakes his head.)]
19  (.)
20  BEN: [theː [the fire↓]] [(Ben pushes his palms downwards.)]
21  AMY: [eːvil] [(Amy leans forward and Kai shifts his gaze towards Ben. [Fig. 5.17])]

\[Figure 5.17\]

22  (0.3)
23  BEN: the fire↓ [(Ben tosses both hands towards the back. [Fig. 5.18])]

\[Figure 5.18\]

24  AMY: oh fire
In line 11 to line 15, when Ben re-enacts his prayer, he begins to show trouble in his talk through displaying word repetition, long pauses and elongation in his utterance, thus launching a word search. It is notable that at the beginning of this excerpt both Ben and Amy show their orientation towards each other by fixing their gazes on each other. As Ben launches his word search (line 13), he keeps his gaze on Amy, and it appears that he maintains his gaze on Amy during the long, 1.1 second pause (line 14). Thus, Ben’s gaze direction at Amy is an invitation for her to join in his word search (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986). However, there is no uptake from Amy in the next turn, and this leads to a long, 1.1 second pause (line 14). Furthermore, Amy’s non-response during the silence in line 14 is displaying her attentiveness as a listener and giving time
for Ben to make a self-repair in his word search. Then, Ben makes a continuation in line 15 by lifting both his hands and positioning them below his chest level and placing both of his palms facing downwards. As Ben stretches both hands at a distance, his hand movement co-occurs with his utterance “put us a faːr↑ froːm↑”, as shown in Figure 5.16.

Consequently, the hand movement that accompanies Ben’s end utterance, produced in an elongated vowel sound and upward intonation, are recognised as valuable resources for an opportunity for co-participation. Amy takes the opportunity to attempt to produce an anticipatory word solution as she produces a ‘try-marked’ (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979) and says “>sin<” in fast tempo (line 16) and shifts her body posture by leaning backwards. A possible reason that prompts Amy’s production of the anticipation completion in line 16 could be the visible hand movement accompanying Ben’s utterance, which became a resource for Amy’s co-participation in the emerging turn (Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi, 2005).

However, Ben declines the word proposed by Amy with a headshake and disagreement token “NO” in line 18, and at the same moment halts his hands movement, which are still stretched apart. In line 19 is a micro-pause, after which Ben resumes his word search and keeps his gaze on Amy and pushes both of his palms downwards as he elongates “theː” in line 20. As Ben elongates the word “the” with his hand movement and keeps his gaze on Amy, Amy recognises Ben’s talk and embodied actions as resources that give her the opportunity to co-participate. Thus Amy offers her second ‘try-marked’ word as a candidate solution and utters “[eːvil” (line 21). However, Amy’s anticipatory completion overlaps with Ben’s word search completion “[the fire↓”, in line 20.

An interesting observation made in this segment is on the timing of the anticipatory word completion produced by the co-participant. In the first instance, it could be observed from Excerpt 5 that the currents speaker elongates and ends his utterance with an upwards intonation while progressing in his word search (line 15). Therefore, the speaker’s utterance co-occurs with the hand movement and a gaze direction at his addressed recipient (line 15). Furthermore, in this example the speaker’s
vocal and visual display provide an opportunity for the recipient to co-participate, and thus the co-participant offers a possible candidate solution as a ‘try-marked’ word.

Likewise, the second opportunity for Amy’s anticipatory completion in the word search (line 21) is also recognised by from the visibly available resources that are produced through speaker’s talk and embodied actions (Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi, 2005). It is notable that the current speaker’s gaze direction at his intended recipient is maintained throughout the talk in this segment. The speaker’s gaze at a recipient indicates an invitation and the recipient recognises the gaze direction as an opportunity for co-participation (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986).

Furthermore, in the word search sequence, as Ben provides his candidate solution to his word search in line 18, Ben keeps his gaze on Amy as he synchronises his utterance “the fire↓” with his gestures of patting the air downwards with both hands (Figure 5.17). At this point, Kai, who is the non-speaking participant, shifts his gaze slightly towards Ben (as illustrated in Figure 5.17). As Ben recognises his candidate solution overlaps with Amy’s anticipatory word solution (shown in line 20 and line 21), Ben repeats his candidate solution and forms a different gesture movement.

In the next turn, Ben tosses both of his hands backwards and says “the fire” (line 23), as illustrated in Figure 5.18. Then, in line 24, Amy displays a change-of-state token response and repeats Ben’s candidate solution as she says “oh fire” to display that she had noticed (Heritage, 1984a). Despite Ben producing a candidate solution as making a self-repair to his word search in line 23 and Amy displaying noticing in line 24, Amy demonstrates non-understanding as she seeks further clarification with “why the fire?” (line 26). Therefore, the clarification enquiry projected by Amy creates a longer series in the sequence for a further solution to the word search. When Amy seeks clarification from Ben, both she and Ben maintain their gaze at each other, and as Amy utters “fire?” Kai lifts his head up and turns to gaze at Amy, as illustrated in Figure 5.19.

The next phase in this sequence looks at the further solution to the search sequence, in which the participants demonstrate collaboration for a further solution to
the word search to achieve understanding. A striking feature in this segment is the investigation into Kai’s participation, in which it is observed from the video data that he is gazing downwards and is engaged in his eating activity. However, Kai begins to halt his hand movements when he handles his fork and spoon and shifts his gaze to Ben, as illustrated in Figure 5.17 in line 21. As Kai continues halting his eating activity, he slightly shifts his gaze down when Ben makes a self-repair in line 23. It could be observed that Kai’s body position and halting movement in Figure 5.17 display his recipiency and also demonstrate his listenership. Following Amy’s clarification request in line 26, Kai lifts his head up and turns to look at Amy.

In addressing Amy’s clarification request, Kai self-selects himself and takes the next turn in line 27 and produces an alternative to Ben’s candidate solution, in which he reformulates part of Ben’s candidate solution to “he:ll of fi:re” in line 27. At this point, Kai directs his gaze to Amy, and both Ben and Amy turn to look at Kai (as illustrated in Figure 5.20). Following Kai’s reformulation (line 27), Ben returns his gaze to Amy and reformulates parts of his and Kai’s utterances to “hell fire” (line 28). Kai then repeats Ben’s reformulation in line 29 as partly displaying his acceptance for the word phrase produced. Although accepting Ben’s reformulated words, Kai utters his repetition with emphasis and a slight elongation “he:ll fire” and keeps his gaze on Amy (line 29). At this point, this may suggest that Ben attempts to re-claim Amy’s understanding when she seeks for clarification in line 26. Thus, in line 30 Amy returns her gaze towards Ben and elongates her change-of-state response token “↑OH:::” in a loud voice and in a rising pitch intonation, showing her understanding.

Throughout the analysis in Excerpt 5, I have shown that besides the perturbation features in the current speaker’s turn-in-progress, the embodied action displayed, such as gaze direction, has a significant role for the recipient’s co-participation. Moreover, it could also be observed that the speaker’s hand gestures also provide interactional resources for a recipient’s joint solution to attempt to produce an anticipatory word solution.

It is noteworthy that the non-speaking participant is attentive in monitoring the other participant’s talk, although he does not show any active involvement. In other words, Kai shows an involvement in listenership in the word search sequences, and this
could be seen from his shifting participation demonstrated through his gaze shifting and body positioning occurrence, beginning line 21 through line 30. The shift gaze direction shows an occasion where Kai looks at Ben (Figure 5.17), shifts his gaze downwards (Figure 5.18), and then starts to bring his gaze towards Amy (Figure 5.19) and produces a candidate solution (Figure 5.20). Thus, Kai makes a shifting participation from being a non-speaking participant to being a co-participant, and this may suggest that Kai’s conjoined participation in the collaborative word search is an attempt to help Ben.

The next example (Excerpt 6) is an examination of an occasion when the current speaker shows his orientation to his addressed recipient and in his telling displays numerous speech perturbations indicating the launch of his word search. However, unlike the previous excerpt, the addressed participant does not provide an anticipatory word completion in the ongoing word search. Instead, she shows attentiveness through token acknowledgements (Jefferson, 1984). Furthermore, the next analysis also focuses on how the non-speaking participant, who is engaged in another activity (e.g., eating), anticipates an agreement to support the speaker in the resolving the word search, and thus, the collaborative solution of the ongoing search sequence has managed to re-claim the addressed recipient’s understanding.

Excerpt 6: Disney movie
(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1 BEN: do you watch Disney movies?
2 (1.2)
   ([Amy chews and swallows her food.])
3 AMY: I like it↑
4 KAI: who doesn’t watch Disney mo[vies]
5 BEN: [ah ] [okay
6 AMY: [ahahahaha
7 BEN: no apparently they have this (. ) some sort of
8 theory that says (0.2) all:: Disney movies are::
9 somehow what are (0.5) some related
10 (0.8)
11 KAI: oh yah::: >yah[yah yah<
12 → BEN:  

[like- like- uhm:: (1.1) ah::::]  

((Ben gazes downwards and taps his hand on the table. [Fig. 5.21]))  

((Ben & Amy gaze at each other. Kai is eating his food. [Fig. 5.22]))

---

13  

|the story::: | about Ariel?  

((Ben keeps gazing downwards and taps on the phone. [Fig. 5.23]))  

((Ben meets Amy's gaze. Ben stops tapping the phone. [Fig. 5.24]))

---

14 AMY:  

mm mm

15  

(0.5)

16 BEN: the mermaid  

((Both Ben and Amy gaze at each other. Ben gestures with his hand slightly.))

17 AMY:  

mm

18  

(1.1)  

((Ben shifts his gaze away and lifts his right hand. Amy keeps her gaze at Ben. Kai is still eating his food. [Fig. 5.25]))

---

19 → BEN: took place (0.7) some:::where::: near:::  

20 |er::: (0.6)| where Frozen took place
102

| ((Ben shifts his gaze away.))
| ((Ben returns his gaze at Amy. Ben gestures with his hand slightly. [Fig. 5.26]))

![Figure 5.26](image)

21

((Kai shifts his gaze at Amy. Ben stops his hand gestures. Ben and Amy maintain gaze at each other. [Fig. 5.27]))

![Figure 5.27](image)

22 KAI: >yah yah yah< (. .) yah it's true (. .) yah
((Kai gazes at Amy and then gazes at his food again. Amy smiles and Ben returns the smile as both maintain their gazes at each other. [Fig. 5.28]))

![Figure 5.28](image)

23 (0.6)

24 KAI: yah

25 AMY: so the scene is real

26 BEN: yes:: (. .) it's it's some what (0.6) uhm=

27 AMY: =close=

28 BEN: =inter connected

29 (0.5)

30 BEN: and it-
In Excerpt 6 (above), the participants are having a chat about Disney movies while eating at the same time. The segment begins with Ben enquiring if Amy watches Disney movies. Amy confirms that she likes watching Disney movies, and then all the participants display acceptance and agreement of watching Disney movies through their display of laughter and token acknowledgement responses (line 1 – line 6). Next, Ben keeps his gaze on Amy and makes a continuation in his telling, in his long turn in line 7 to line 9, of how all the Disney movies have an association with one another. Although both Amy and Ben are gazing at each other during Ben’s telling (line 7 – line 9), there is no uptake from Amy in the following turn, and instead she keeps her gaze on Ben in the 0.8 second pause (line 10). Following the 0.8 second silence, Kai, who is eating and gazing downward at his plate, displays his agreement through the demonstration of a change-of-state-token response (Heritage, 1984a) and further acknowledgement with his repetitive token response as he says “oh yah::: >yah[yah yah<” (line 11).

In line 12, Ben makes a continuation in his telling, which overlaps with parts of Kai’s response in line 11. He begins to show speech perturbation, indicating trouble in his talk, thereby launching his word search. Ben demonstrates several restarts and hesitations as he says “[like- like- uhm::” in line 12, which co-occurs with shifting his gaze away from Amy, and then he looks downwards and taps his hand on the table, as shown in Figure 5.21. Ben then pauses for 1.1 seconds and continues to show hesitation through his elongated hesitancy marker “ah::: :” as he returns his gaze to Amy. During the 1.1 second silence, Amy keeps her gaze on Ben while scooping food into her mouth (Figure 5.22).

Next, in line 13 Ben displays further speech perturbation as he utters and elongates his word phrase “the story::: :” and shifts his gaze downwards and continues tapping on the table (Figure 5.23). Ben then returns his gaze and produces his candidate solution “about Ariel?” in a rising intonation (Figure 5.24). It is observed that as Ben produces his candidate solution, which ends in a rising intonation and a gaze direction towards Amy, he requests a confirmation from Amy (Koshik and
Seo, 2012). In response, Amy, who is eating, provides her token acknowledgement response token “mm mm” (line 14), indicating that she displays her understanding or acknowledging the Disney story about “Ariel”. Following the token response from Amy is a 0.5 second silence (line 15), following which Ben provides more additional information by saying “the mermaid” (line 16), which is then confirmed by Amy again through her token acknowledgement response token “mm” (line 17) while having food in her mouth.

In the long, 1.1 second pause in line 18, Ben shifts his gaze away from Amy as he lifts his right hand, which perhaps indicates that he has another trouble in the talk or ‘doing thinking’ (Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1994 cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583). In the long, 1.1 second silence, Amy keeps her gaze on Ben and continues to show that she is an attentive listener giving space for Ben to do his thinking. In line 20, Ben returns his gaze on Amy and continues his telling but he further displays speech perturbation through the pause and elongated hesitancy marker “er::: (0.6)”, which indicate another phase of his word search sequence. As Ben shows hesitation (in line 20), he looks away from Amy and demonstrates his thinking posture, suggesting he is doing a solitary word search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Following this, Ben returns his gaze to Amy, moves his hand gesture slightly, and completes his utterance as he says “where frozen took place” (line 20), as illustrated in Figure 5.26. However, there is no uptake from Amy in the following 0.8 second pause (line 21); instead, both Amy and Ben keep their gaze on each other.

An interesting point of analysis of the instance is during the 0.8 second pause in line 21, when Kai, who is involved in an eating activity, earlier begins to display his orientation to the talk through embodied actions in which he lifts his head up and turns his gaze to Amy, as illustrated in Figure 5.27. As there is no response from Amy, Kai then takes the next turn and contributes his token response “yah”, which he utters repetitively and at a fast pace. Kai then pauses slightly and displays further confirmation and agreement through his display of multiple affirmative token and positive response, indicating his strong agreement (line 22). At this moment, Kai keeps his gaze on Amy and then later shifts his gaze downwards and begins scooping his food, as illustrated in Figure 5.28. Moreover, as Kai displays his agreement in line 22, Amy
curves her mouth into a smile and following Amy’s smile, Ben returns a curved smile too (illustrated in Figure 5.28), showing that they display a mutual understanding.

However, there is no uptake from either Ben or Amy in the next 0.6 second pause (line 23), and so Kai self-selects in order to contribute further agreement through his token response “yah” (line 24). Amy, who shows her orientation towards Ben from the beginning of this excerpt, seeks further clarification as she utters “so the scene is real” (line 25) and Ben then confirms this in line 26. As the talk progresses, both Ben and Amy show alignment when they demonstrate collaboration turn sequences in line 26 to line 28 (Lerner, 2004). Amy then shows understanding through the “minimal post-expansion” (Schegloff, 2007) and her elongated minimal token sound “mm↑[: :: ↓]”, which also overlaps with Ben’s token confirmation “[yeah” (lines 31 and 32).

In this example (Excerpt 6), I have shown that although a candidate solution has been produced for the word search, participants provide a further solution to the word search sequence in order to regain the addressed recipient’s understanding in the ongoing talk. An interesting phenomenon in this instance is that although the non-speaking participant engages in his eating activity and does not get an invitation from the current speaker (either verbal or nonverbal conduct), the opportunity for a joint solution could take place.

In sum, it is observed that in both of the examples shown in Section 5.4 the non-speaking participant demonstrates his participation in a multiactivity environment. It is noteworthy that the non-speaking participant is attentive in monitoring the recipient’s status of understanding and demonstrates listenership even though he does not show any active verbal involvement in the conversation due to his engagement in his eating activity. Therefore, the non-speaking participant shows his orientation in the collaborative word search and achieves a joint solution in providing an explanation or additional information for a further solution to the word search. Furthermore, the joint solution achieved through the use of talk and embodied actions in the ongoing word search is significant enough to regain the addressed recipient’s understanding in the ongoing talk (Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi, 2005)
5.5 Summary

The analysis in this chapter is an examination of how participants organise collaborative participation in the ongoing word search. Section 5.2 has shown three examples of the speaker showing his or her orientation to a particular participant to seek help in the ongoing word search. The analysis in this section has found that as the speaker displays an orientation towards a specific co-participant to seek help, this could be due to several explanations. To be precise, the explanations demonstrate that the co-participant has more content knowledge of the topic, or someone shared the same cultural knowledge, or the speaker positions someone as a person who has more knowledge as a second language user (Hosoda, 2006; Kurhila 2006).

Section 5.3 has shown that the recipient establishes her orientation to attempt to anticipate a candidate word solution in the search sequence. Through the analysis, the speakers’ talk and gestures were a resource for the addressed recipient to anticipate a candidate solution for the word search. Furthermore, both speaker and recipient showed collaboration through negotiation, which is displayed through both the speaker’s and the recipient’s synchronised hand gestures and finally how both show agreement to accept the current speaker’s candidate solution (Excerpt 4 “bend screen”).

Finally, Section 5.4 has shown how participants organise participation by demonstrating orientation to one another’s talk and embodied action in the ongoing word search and also displaying their alignment in a further solution to the word search. Specifically, I have shown a detailed analysis on how the non-speaking participant displays his participation and demonstrates a joint solution in the ongoing word search and also assists other participants in achieving understanding.

In sum, the focus in Chapter 5 has been on investigating word search organisation which focuses on how participants organise participation in the enablement for a collaborative solution in an ongoing word search. Consequently, the aim of this chapter has been to explore the complex and more diverse shifting participation framework in a multiparty interaction which includes not only speaker and addressed recipient but also the non-addressed participants in the ongoing talk. The next chapter focuses on examining how talk and embodied action are coordinated by participants in the current word search become publicly available resources for collaborative action.
Chapter 6. Multimodal Joint Solutions in Word Searches

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 focuses on how the use of talk and embodied actions deployed by participants in a conversation form available resources for recipients to achieve a joint solution in word search sequence in a multiparty L2 conversation. This chapter is divided into two sections. The next section (Section 6.2) explores how talk and embodied actions in an ongoing word search provide visibly available resources for co-participation entry in the search sequences. In this section, the analysis is on examining co-participant completion in search sequence by an addressed participant (Section 6.2.1) and co-participation completion in search sequence by a non-speaking participant (Section 6.2.2). Section 6.3 examines how a speaker and recipients in a multiparty talk coordinate the use of spoken language and embodied actions as resources to negotiate meaning in the word search sequence. During the course of negotiating meaning, such embodied practices deployed by the speaker and the addressed recipients become available resources for the third person (e.g., non-speaking participant) to make an entry for a joint solution in the search sequences.

6.2 Co-Participant Completion in Word Searches

In this section, the examination focuses on how the current speaker’s talk and embodied actions such as gaze, hand gestures and body posture in the ongoing word search have a significant role as valuable resources that are recognised as an opportunity for co-participation. Thus, the first sub-section (Section 6.2.1) is on examining the multimodal resources that provide an opportunity for the addressed participant to make a collaborative entry in word searches.

6.2.1 Providing Opportunities for the Addressed Participant

The excerpt below presents a group of five international students (two Malaysian, two Chinese and one Pakistani) having a conversation about a country that shares a border with China. As they are having the conversation as a whole group, the conversation breaks into multiple conversations. Thus, the segment in the excerpt below
(Excerpt 7) is a conversation that has broken away from the previous single conversation that involves all five participants (a phenomenon as ‘schism’, Egbert, 1997). As the central focus of the analysis is on the collaborative word search, I will not focus on investigating the schism but only focus on the word search practices in the interaction. Consequently, Excerpt 7 below is a conversation between Johan and Kenny in which Kenny continues to talk about the previous topic on North Korea as discussed previously in the whole group conversation before they move into the schism. Furthermore, Excerpt 7 is at the beginning of the schism.

Excerpt 7: North Korea (schism)

Conversation between Johan (Malaysia) and Kenny (China)

1  KENNY: very poor country
   (Wong gazes at Johan.))

2  (0.5)
   (Johan shifts his gazes upwards and blinks a few times.))

3  JOHAN: i- i- | yah wait< | ah::: you mean | the North ko-
   (Johan raises his right hand and rests his elbow on the table.))
   (Johan closes eyes and points at Kenny. [Fig. 6.1]))
   (Johan gazes at Wong and puts both palms together while Kenny gazes at him. [Fig. 6.2]))

4  (Fig. 6.1)
   (Fig. 6.2)

4  oh you mean the north ko-
   (Johan gestures both palms apart. Both Johan and Kenny gazes at each other. [Fig. 6.3]))
   (Johan gazes downwards and puts both hands downwards. [Fig. 6.4]))
5 KENNY: North Korea not South Korea
   | (Mutual gaze between Johan and Kenny. [Fig. 6.5])
   | (Kenny waves his hand slightly while maintaining his gaze with Johan. [Fig. 6.6])

6 JOHAN: not South Korea

7 KENNY: yah ya:h

In line 1, Kenny moves his body posture slightly to his right as he gazes at Johan and begins to give his assessment about North Korea being a poor country. Following this is a 0.5 second pause (line 2) during which Johan, who has his gaze on Kenny, begins to withdraw his gaze from Kenny as he moves his head position, tilts his head up and, as he looks up, blinks a few times. It is observed that as Johan gazes upwards and blinks his eyes several times, his embodied actions demonstrate a thinking character (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986) as if he is ‘doing thinking’ (Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1994 cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583). In the subsequent turn, Johan returns his gaze at Kenny as he takes the next turn in line 3. However, in Johan’s turn beginning, he shows numerous speech perturbations, such as false start and re-start, cut-off word, hesitation and also repetition in his incomplete utterances, occurring along with a visible display of his embodied actions (line 3-line 4). Thus, the speech perturbation features and the display of his embodied actions, such as the thinking posture in Johan’s incomplete TCU in line 3 to line 4, indicate the launch of his word search.
Looking closely at how Johan organises his talk and embodied actions at the onset of his word search, in line 3 Johan makes a slight shift of his upper body torque to face towards Kenny to display his participation orientation (Schegloff, 1998) and returns his gaze at Kenny. Johan keeps his gaze on Kenny, and as he begins his turn in line 3 he displays trouble in his talk through the occurrence of the false start and a restart “i- i-” (line 3).

Johan then disengages his gaze away from Kenny and moves his right hand upright by resting his elbow on the table as he quickly utters “>yah wait<”, equivalent to expressing “yeah hold on”. As he still holds the turn in the talk, he shows hesitation through the elongated vowel sound “ah:::” and he points his right finger towards Kenny and closes his eyes at the same time as demonstrating a search for a word, as illustrated in figure 6.1. Following this, in Johan’s mid-turn in line 3, he begins to open his eyes and re-engages his gaze on Kenny as he forms a hand gesture movement by raising his hands slightly up at his chest level, placing both palms close together as he produces “the north ko-”, as illustrated in figure 6.2.

Thus, in line 3, the speech perturbation and the thinking characters indicate the onset of Johan’s word search. However, the search sequence is not immediately resolved in the next turn. Instead, Johan abandons his search in line 3 and makes an attempt to reformulate his utterance in the next turn. In line 4, with his hands positioned in front of his chest, Johan keeps his gaze on Kenny when he produces the token change-of-state (Heritage, 1984a) “oh”, possibly displaying his noticing, and he then repeats parts of his previous utterance and says “oh you mean the north ko-”. However, at the end of his utterance in line 4, Johan continues to show trouble in his talk through the cut-off word for the similar word sound “ko”.

Co-occurring with the speech perturbation in line 4 is a synchronised hand movement in which Johan keeps both his hands forward at chest level, and he gradually moves his hand by placing both of his palms slightly apart and, keeping his gaze on Kenny, displays restart and word repetition for the article “the” (Figure 6.3). Thus, making the third repetition of the article “the”, Johan brings his gaze away from Kenny and gazes downwards and simultaneously moves both hands, which are positioned in parallel downwards, as he elongates the vowel sound “the:::” (line 4, figure 6.4).
Hence, in line 4, although Johan reformulates his utterance in his new turn, he displays trouble in talk, and these features of repetition, stretched word sounds and gaze away indicate Johan’s word search sequence.

It is also noticeable from the video that there are a few occasions in which Johan directs his gaze at Kenny during his speech perturbation, indicating an invitation for Kenny’s co-participation in his ongoing word search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Hayashi, 2003), such as when Johan utters “the north kō-” (line 3) and in his restart in his mid-utterance “the- the:” (line 4). It is also noteworthy that the demonstration of Johan’s hand gestures in his ongoing word search is structured in three gestural movements. In the first gestural movement, Johan moves his hands in front of body posture and puts both of his palms together (Figure 6.2). Next, Johan separates both palms (Figure 6.3) and brings them closer again and lowers them down (Figure 6.4). In Johan’s third gestural movement (Figure 6.4), which co-occurs with his elongated vowel sound “the:::”, he gazes downwards as he does a solitary word search in line 4. Thus, the demonstration of Johan’s multimodal resources, such as hand movements and talk in his ongoing word search, appear to be useful resources for Kenny to make an entry to offer a collaborative solution to resolve the search and to progress in the talk (Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi, 2005).

Recognising Johan’s use of talk and embodied actions as publicly available resources, Kenny takes this as an opportunity to offer help as a joint solution in the search sequence. In the subsequent action, Kenny offers a candidate solution when he says “North Korea” (line 5), and at the same time as he produces his candidate solution Johan turns to look at Kenny and both Kenny and Johan show their eye contact with each other, as illustrated in figure 6.5. As both Johan and Kenny maintain their gaze, Kenny, who has his right arm resting on the table, slightly demonstrates a waving hand gesture as he further provides a clarification to support the candidate solution that was offered previously and says “not South Korea”, as illustrated in Figure 6.4. Thus, the collaborative candidate solution produced by Kenny completes Johan’s word search sequence. Following this, Johan accepts the candidate word solution produced by Kenny and then Johan seeks further clarification in line 6, which is then followed by Kenny’s acknowledgement token “yah yaːh” (line 7).
In this example (Excerpt 7), it appears that Johan’s use of talk, gaze and hand gestures have become a publicly valuable resource inviting Kenny to take the opportunity to offer a collaborative solution in the ongoing word search (Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi, 2005). In the next example (Excerpt 8) in this sub-section, an occurrence where the speaker heavily mobilises the use of language and hand gestures in her telling is examined, and these multimodal resources play a crucial role for co-participation joint solution in the word search sequence.

The group of international students shown in Excerpt 8 below are Ben, Kai and Amy. In this segment, the conversation is between Ben and Amy. Kai has disengaged himself from joining the talk as he is seen browsing through his mobile phone when the conversation takes place.

*Excerpt 8: Legs*

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1. **AMY:** because I was wearing the shoes with

   |((Amy puts her right-hand fingers on her left palm. Ben gazes at Amy’s hand movement.))|

2.  

   | nails |

   |((Amy taps her fingers on her left palm. [Fig. 6.7])|

3.  

   (0.7)

   |((Both Amy and Ben gaze at each other. Ben then nods slightly.))|

4.  

   **AMY:** so my front |

   |((Amy lifts her right elbow upwards while she holds her right arm. Ben and Amy maintain gaze at each other. [Fig. 6.8])|
Before the segment in Excerpt 8, Amy talks about a previous accident she had when she was playing hockey that caused her knee injuries. In line 1, as Amy begins explaining to Ben about the incident, she keeps her gaze on Ben and raises both of her hands up to make them visible to Ben. As Amy moves her left hand, she positions her right-hand palm forward with the inner palm facing upwards at almost the same level as the upper body part. She then puts her right-hand fingers on top of her left-opened palm (as shown in Figure 6.7) and this movement synchronises with her stretched vowel sounds “weari:::ng” (line 1). At the point where Amy stretches her vowel sounds, she shifts her gaze away from Ben and turns to look at her hand movement, while Ben brings his gaze onto Amy’s hand gestures too. Maintaining the hand position, Amy
halts her hand movement as she continues her utterance in line 1, and then she taps her right-hand fingers on her left palm as she says “na:ils↓” (line 2).

Subsequently, in line 3, there is a 0.7 second pause in which Amy halts her hand movement as both she and Ben look at each other. Although there is no verbal response from Ben in the long, 0.7 second pause (line 3), he begins to display non-verbal conduct as he nods his head slightly towards Amy, possibly displaying his attending to Amy’s telling and showing his listenership. Following recognition of Ben’s head nod, Amy takes it as an indication to allow her to continue her telling, and thus in line 4 she continues. However, as Amy makes her continuation she begins to display speech perturbation through the occurrences of the stretched word sound, a long pause, and, furthermore, her incomplete utterance ends with an upward pitch intonation “so my:::
(0.7) front::↑”, demonstrating the onset of searching for a word.

Along with Amy’s speech perturbation in line 4, it can be observed that the utterance is synchronised with embodied practices of the hand movements. Precisely, Amy changes her hand position during the 0.7 second pause (line 4); she positions her right hand by raising her elbow upward and lowering her right palm downwards in a vertical shape, and she grasps her right arm with her left hand (Figure 6.8). As she displays her hand gestures, she keeps her gaze on Ben. Similarly, Ben holds his gaze on Amy and, as he is seated directly opposite Amy, it is possible that Ben’s eye direction towards Amy is also monitoring her hand movement.

Following Amy’s launch into her word search (line 4) is a long, 1.4 second pause (line 5). During this long pause, Amy halts and maintains her hand position similar to her bodily conduct in Figure 6.8, and she keeps her gaze on Ben, indicating that she is inviting Ben into her word search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Even though Ben recognises the invitation from Amy through the gaze direction, he does not immediately offer any candidate solution, which probably shows that he does not know the missing word. Instead, he gives a slight head nod and keeps his gaze on Amy. Although Ben gives a head nod, Amy does not provide a response, and instead both of them hold their gaze on each other throughout the long, 1.4 second silence in line 5. The configuration of Amy’s talk and her embodied actions and the mutual gaze between Amy and Ben during the long silence appear to indicate that Ben’s co-participation in
the word search is relevant. Following the long silence, Ben takes the next turn in line 6 and offers a ‘try-marked’ word “<legs.>” as a candidate completion to resolve Amy’s word search.

What is significant about Ben’s collaborative entry is that the opportunity to produce the co-participation completion here is achieved through recognising the interactional resources of Amy’s hand movements and talk. It is noteworthy that Amy’s hand movements, which co-occur with her speech, play an important role in meaning-making by informing the recipient that the hand movements are worthy of attention (Streeck, 1993). Amy’s hand position (Figure 6.8) can stand as a resemblance in gesturing parts of the body posture that has an association with her injuries. Hence, in line 6, Ben maintains his gaze on Amy and produces a collaborative entry as he says “<↓legs>” in a slow pace and falling intonation. Amy then repeats the utterance “<↓legs>” in a similar pace and intonation (line 7), showing acceptance for the word “leg” as a candidate solution to her word search.

Immediately after accepting the candidate solution for the word search, Amy moves towards progressivity in her talk, and she continues in her telling (line 9 - line 10) as she says “stick on the ↑ground and ↓I:: (0.2) be::nd this ↓one”. Nonetheless, as Amy makes a continuation to progress in her talk in lines 9 to line 10, she shows further speech perturbation through the elongated vowel sound and a pause, which are features of word searches. Despite the trouble in her talk, Amy makes a preference for a self-repair or self-completion in her ongoing word search (Schegloff et al., 1977) and progresses in the talk.

An interesting phenomenon on Amy making the self-repair in the search sequence (line 9 – line 10) in this example is that she resolves her word search by using the demonstrative pronoun “this” as a placeholder (Hayashi, 2003). In line 10, Amy utters with an emphasis and falling pitch intonation “this ↓one”. Furthermore, as Amy makes a self-completion to her word search with the use of the placeholder, she synchronises her speech with her hand gestures, such as demonstrating a bending movement in which, from the previous position in Figure 6.8, she grabs her upper right arm and moves her elbow downwards as she utters “this ↓one” (as shown in Figure 6.9). Even though Amy has not managed to find the exact word, she uses the
demonstrative pronoun “this” to complete her utterance (more discussion on the use of ‘placeholder’ will be in Chapter 7).

In both of the examples above, Excerpt 7 and Excerpt 8 present occasions of the current speaker’s word search in which the speaker organises the use of talk and embodied actions to extend an invitation in the search sequence towards a specific participant (the addressed participant). It is worth noting that the speaker’s hand movements and talk in the ongoing word search provide valuable resources for the opportunity for an addressed recipient to provide a collaborative co-participation completion. The next sub-section (Section 6.2.2) examines how collaborative entry is achieved through a joint solution from non-speaking participants in the word search sequences.

6.2.2 Providing Opportunities for the Non-Speaking Participant

Excerpt 9 (below) focuses on the occurrence of the current speaker performing a visible description of his speech content through the use of gesture when language is not available during his word search. It is noteworthy to look at the moment-to-moment on how the current speaker’s talk, which synchronises with the coordination of different series of hand gestures and shifts in gaze direction, becomes a resource that provides an opportunity for a non-speaking participant collaborative solution in the word search sequence.

In the excerpt, four international students (Johan, Husin, Jason and Kenny) are talking about the location of their accommodation and how far it is from the University. Two places are mentioned in the conversation, in the Fenham area and in South Gosforth, and both locations are situated close to the University campus. Preceding this segment, Kenny says that he stays in the University accommodation, which is located in South Gosforth. The excerpt begins with Jason debating about Fenham being much closer to the University.
Excerpt 9: The same distance

(Johan: Malaysia; Husin: Malaysia; Jason: Pakistan; Kenny: China)

1  JASON: you should live in Fenham↑(.) that's so: close
to the uni(.) you only live closer (.)
3  |you can−(0.2) [{   }
   |((Johan turns his body posture towards Jason.))
4  KENNY: [wait the−
5  JOHAN: [NO: ↑ma::n
6  (0.3)
7  JOHAN: |the Fenham and |the South Gosforth is
   |((Lifts both hands apart. [Fig. 6.10]))
   |((Moves both hands to his left side. [Fig. 6.11]))
8  (0.4)
   ((Johan tosses hands downwards.))
9  ➔  |the sa::me↑ (0.2) di− sa::me↑
   |((Johan points both palms inwards.))
10 (0.5)
   ((Johan looks down and brings his hands forward and moves his palms in an inwards
   movement. [Fig. 6.12]))
11 KENNY: |a:::h (.) yah
   |((Kenny gazes at Johan and nods while Johan gazes at Jason.))
12 (0.1)
In line 1 to line 3, Jason starts his turn by giving his opinion that Kenny should live in the Fenham area because it is closer to the University. As Jason takes the turn in line 1 to line 3, his gaze direction is at Kenny, the addressed recipient. Although Jason’s utterance is not complete yet due to a self-interruption through the cut-off word and the short pause, Kenny and Johan recognise this as an opportunity to interrupt Jason’s talk. Therefore, Kenny and Johan start their turns simultaneously, which overlap with Jason’s utterance too (line 3 – line 5).

It is worth noting that at the beginning of Johan’s turn in line 5 he moves his upper body posture and turns his gaze directions towards Jason, which indicates his readiness to claim the next turn. Even though the simultaneous talk occurs between Kenny, Johan and Jason in line 4 and line 5 leads to overlapping, Johan keeps his turn in line 5 as he increases his voice volume when he produces his token negative “NO“ and
elongates his word “↑ma::n” in a high pitch. Following the short pause in line 6, Johan self-selects to take the subsequent turn (line 7 – line 9), maintains his body posture facing towards Jason, and at the same time forms gestural hand movements that co-occur with his utterance. However, Johan begins to show trouble in his talk through word repetition, elongation and the rising pitch intonation in his incomplete utterance in line 9.

There are two distinct aspects to consider in this segment: Johan’s word search initiation and Kenny’s co-participation. The first aspect is the occurrence of Johan’s numerous hand gesture movements during his speech production, which are interactionally significant as he progresses in his turn. A close analysis reveals that at the beginning of Johan’s turn in line 7 he orients his position to face Jason as his intended recipient and says “the Fenham and the South Gosforth is”. As Johan begins his turn in line 7, he demonstrates two forms of hand gestures to represent the two locations, “Fenham” and “South Gosforth”. Note that in the first half component of his utterance in line 7 he begins to shift his gaze direction towards his hands and brings both of his hands slightly apart in front of his body to represent “the Fenham,” as illustrated in Figure 6.10.

Keeping the same hand position, Johan glides his hand position to his left side to represent “the South Gosforth” (Figure 6.11) and then tosses both of his hands downwards at 0.4 seconds in line 8. Johan then changes his hand movement, moving both hands to make an inward pointing cupping gestures as he says “the sa:me↑ (0.2) di- sa:me↑” (Line 9). However, in line 9, Jason begins to show trouble through the cut-off word “di-” and partially repeating the word “sa:me↑” in a high pitch, showing an incomplete turn construction which indicates the launch of his word search.

Furthermore, as Johan displays his trouble, he keeps his gazes downwards on his hand and halts his hand position of the inward pointing palm gesture in front of his body. Following the onset of the word search in line 9, there is a 0.5 second silence in which Johan performs the inwards pointing beating gestures, as illustrated in Figure 6.12. The embodied practices demonstrate a visual display of his self-completion to his word search by deploying the use of embodied actions, known as ‘embodied completion’ (Olsher, 2004). Furthermore, as Johan displays the embodied completion
to his search sequence (line 9) the other three participants monitor his hand movement. When Johan takes the turn, he directs his gaze to Jason and, as he launches his word search, does not direct his gaze at any of the participants, but instead gazes downwards as if making an attempt for the preference to make a self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977).

Following the next turn, Kenny self-selects and displays noticing with the change-of-state token (Heritage, 1984) “Ah” and another token response “yah” in line 11. Even though Johan completes his search with an embodied completion (Olsher, 2004), which is noticed and understood by Kenny, he continues to progress in his search, possibly trying to find a suitable candidate word (line 13). However, Johan’s turn in line 13 overlaps with Kenny’s utterance in line 14. As Kenny produces his turn in line 14, he takes this as an opportunity for him to offer help and provide a collaborative solution.

The second aspect in this segment is the moment of co-participant entry by Kenny, the non-speaking participant. From the video data, Kenny shows his active role as a listener by keeping his gaze direction on Johan as the current speaker after he fails to take a turn in line 4 due to the overlaps. Thus, throughout Johan’s turn, Kenny keeps his gaze on Johan and observes Johan’s hand gestures, which co-occur with his speech perturbation and thus indicate that a search for word is launched in the ongoing talk. Johan’s series of hand gestures, which co-occur with his talk, are ‘not just there’ but also provide important visual information for the participants as something ‘to be looked at’ (Streeck, 1993). Thus, the interactional hand gestures and movement demonstrated by Johan contribute a ‘conceptual imagery to the content’ of his unfolding talk (ibid), which also seems to prompt Kenny’s understanding.

Kenny’s utterance in line 11, “a::h yah”, displays noticing and token acknowledgement, which synchronises with his head nod movement to show his understanding. Following this, Kenny then proposes his co-participation candidate solution as he says “I think it's the same distance” (line 14). Notably, at this point too, Johan lifts his head and looks at Kenny, and both of them show a mutual gaze as shown in Figure 6.13. In line 15, Johan accepts Kenny’s contribution, and in doing so he returns his gaze to Jason, presenting a token acknowledgement token and repeating the candidate solution as he says “ya:h↑ the same distance".
Moreover, Kenny also produces hand movements, which synchronise with Johan’s utterance in line 15. Kenny stretches his hands apart, resembling distance, and shifts his gaze directions towards Jason, showing his conjoined manner to support Johan and also supporting his candidate solution offered previously in line 14 (as shown in Figure 6.14).

Previous word search studies have shown that recipients usually wait while the speaker’s gaze is withdrawn to show engagement in a solitary search and provide help if the speaker’s gaze is directed for a co-participation request in the ongoing word search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi, 2005). However, the example presented in Excerpt 9 shows a different outcome for co-participation in the word search sequence. The interactional phenomenon analysed in this excerpt reveals that the non-addressed participants in the present data are closely attending the current speaker’s talk and embodied actions in the ongoing talk, which provides interactional resources to make an entry for a collaborative word search solution.

It can also be argued that when the speaker launches his word search he eventually completes his search by deploying hand gestures or through embodied completion (Olsher, 2004). However, the embodied actions displayed do not only complete the current speaker’s word search sequence but turn out to be useful resources as an opportunity to co-participate in the ongoing talk. Therefore, recognising the word search occurrences and the visual display of hand movements produced by the current speaker, the spoken language and embodied actions become valuable interactional resources that provide co-participants with the opportunity to make an entry for a collaborative solution and accomplish intersubjectivity. Furthermore, in the current data, the use of gestures is not only limited to the current speaker but also to the co-participant. In so doing, the co-participant displays his mutual understanding and thus supports the current speaker’s candidate solution and works together with the current speaker to gain another participant’s understanding through embodied practices (Figure 6.14).

The next example in this sub-section presents another instance of opportunity for a non-speaking participant to offer help in the word search sequence, which is recognised from the invitation extended by the speaker through gaze direction. Excerpt
10 is a conversation between Ben, Kai and Amy. Prior to the conversation, the three participants had discussed students’ events organised by the University. Ben had informed Amy about a cultural event week organised by the Malaysian Society (‘Malaysian Night’) that was held previously. In this segment, Ben talks about a friend who plays in a theatre play during ‘Malaysian Night’. He begins to show trouble in his talk, indicating the onset of his word search (line 3-line 4).

Excerpt 10: Folklore story

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1 BEN: so we had that and he (0.2) is one of the cast
2 AMY: [mhm]
3 ➔ BEN: [so::] we played the— they played | er::: (0.2)
   | ((Ben shifts gazes at a space.))
4 | about our:::
   | (Ben gazes at Kai while Amy gazes at Ben’s hand gestures. [Fig. 6.15])

Figure 6.15

5 (1.7)

Figure 6.16

((Ben shifts his gaze away. His forefinger touches the side of his head. Kai looks at Ben. [Fig. 6.16]))
123

Figure 6.17

(Ben adjusts his glasses slightly. Kai shifts his gaze downwards. [Fig. 6.17])

Figure 6.18

(Ben and Kai mutual gaze. [Fig. 6.18])

6 KAI: folklore:: traditional folklore::
    ((Ben and Kai gaze at each other while Amy gazes at Ben. [Fig. 6.19])
        ((Kai maintains his gaze at Ben and shifts his posture backwards. Amy turns to gaze at Kai. [Fig. 6.20]))

Figure 6.19   Figure 6.20

7 BEN: traditional folklore story
    ((Ben turns to gaze at Amy. Both Kai and Amy gaze at Ben.))

8

9 AMY: what↑ is this?
    ((Amy shifts her posture backward and maintain gaze at Ben.))

10

11 BEN: yah

12 (1.6)
    (Both Amy and Ben maintain gaze at each other. Kai scoops his food.)

13 BEN: so [he- ]

14 AMY: [folk]lore story?
As Ben begins to talk about the theatre play in line 3 to line 4, he directs his gaze at Amy, as the addressed recipient, and says “so:: we played the- they played”. Ben then displays hesitancy-marking “er:::”, pauses for a length of 0.2 seconds, and shows an elongated word “about our:::”. It can be observed that Ben launches a word search from the indication of his speech perturbation, such as hesitation, cut-off word, and the stretched word sound. Besides the verbal utterances, it is noteworthy to examine the embodied actions displayed by Ben, such as gaze and gestures.

Hence, in line 3, as Ben begins to show numerous speech perturbations he shifts his gaze away from Amy to look at a space in front of him and gestures with his hand slightly when he utters a hesitation marker “er:::” (line 3). Ben’s shift of gaze, co-occurring with his hesitation, demonstrates the onset of his word search. Following this, Ben then directs his gaze towards Kai and lifts both his hands up slightly above the table as he utters “about our:::” in line 4. It can be understood that Ben’s embodied action of shifting his gaze direction and turning his head posture towards Kai are an invitation for Kai to join the word search activity (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986).
However, at this point, Kai does not look at Ben as he gazes downwards towards the table, as shown in Figure 6.15.

Following Ben’s incomplete utterance in line 4 is a long, 1.7 second pause (line 5). It is worth noting that the long silence is not an empty moment. Instead, there are episodes of gaze shifting between Ben and Kai, which will be analysed in detail. Furthermore, during the long pause, although Ben disengages his gaze away from Amy, Amy still keeps her gaze on Ben, to demonstrate that she is attending to Ben’s word search activity. She allows time for Ben to produce the word being sought.

Moving to analysis of the instances in the long, 1.7 second silence in line 5, this moment is filled with several embodied practices, providing a valuable resource for all participants in the ongoing talk to negotiate their participation. A striking feature at this point is how Kai who is the non-speaking participant recognises the embodied resources deployed by the current speaker at the onset of the word search sequence as an opportunity for co-participation.

Hence, in line 5, at the start of the 1.7-second pause, Ben moves his body posture towards his left side, which synchronises with his hand movement, and shifts his gaze at Kai and then towards a space between Kai and Amy. In doing so, Ben’s shifted gaze and body posture coordinate with his hand gesture movement, in which he lifts his right hand up and touches the side of his side head and rests his right elbow on the table, resembling a ‘thinking’ posture and while gazing at a space (Figure 6.16).

While keeping his gaze downwards, Ben then gradually moves the hand on his head, touches the frame of his glasses, and adjusts it slightly as he engages in doing a solitary word search. At this moment, Kai, who is chewing his food, brings his gaze towards Ben, as illustrated in Figure 6.16. However, Ben does not return his gaze towards Kai, showing that he is doing a solitary search. Kai shifts his gaze downwards, possibly giving Ben a moment for ‘doing thinking’ and also giving space for him to do a solitary word search, as illustrated in Figure 6.17. Subsequently, both Kai and Ben shift their gaze again. They both show a mutual gaze, which is recognised by Kai as Ben making a request for help in his word search, as illustrated in Figure 6.18. Furthermore, it is also worth mentioning that throughout the shifting gaze movement
between Kai and Ben Ann keeps her gaze on Ben while chewing her food during the long silence.

In line 6, Kai keeps his gaze on Ben and makes an entry to contribute a candidate solution as he utters “folklore::” (Figure 6.19), and then reformulates his candidate solution and utters “traditional folklore::” and shifts his body posture backwards, as illustrated in Figure 6.20. Likewise, in line 6, Ben keeps his gaze on Kai as Amy turns to gaze at Kai and display her recipiency towards Kai (Figure 6.20). In line 7, Ben shows an acceptance towards Kai’s contribution. However, as he takes the next turn, he recycles Kai’s candidate solution and reformulates his utterance as he says “traditional folklore story” and directs his gaze back to Amy. At this moment, both Amy and Kai have displayed their recipiency towards Ben as both of them bring their gaze to Ben.

The following paragraphs analyse the extended search sequences which show that the participants have moved to a next phase. The next phase in this sequence looks at the further solution in the ongoing word search, in which the participants demonstrates collaboration for a further solution to the word search to achieve understanding (line 8 – line 27). To ease readability the transcripts provided below are from part of the segments in Excerpt 10 (line 8 - line 27).

8     AMY:  (0.7)
9  what↑ is this?
10      ↑((Amy shifts her posture backwards and maintains her gaze at Ben. [Fig. 6.21]))

11 BEN:  yah

Figure 6.21
(1.6)
((Both Amy and Ben maintain their gazes at each other. Kai scoops his food. [Fig. 6.22]))

Figure 6.22

13  BEN:  so [he- ]
14  AMY:  [folk]lore story?
15  (0.6)
16  BEN:  <folk>
17  KAI:  |folklore story
|((Kai is gazing downward as Ben turns to gaze at Kai.))
18  BEN:  [old folk stories
19  AMY:  [hahaha
20  (0.4)
21  BEN:  yah
22  KAI:  like traditional::: you know those s- stories when
23  you hear when you going to |sleep?
|((Kai gazes at Amy and Ben gazes at Kai. [Fig. 6.23]))

Figure 6.23

24  (0.3)
25  KAI:  those |[old stories yah
26  AMY:  |[ah:::
| ((Amy nods and Ben gazes at her. Kai gazes downwards.))
27  BEN:  °yah:::*
Although a candidate solution is produced in the search sequence (line 7), Amy does not provide any response, and instead keeps her gaze on Ben in the following turn. Due to the non-response, there is another 0.7 second silence (line 8). Ben waits for Amy’s response, and in line 9 Amy displays her lack of understanding as she seeks clarification, “what is this?” (line 9), in a rising intonation, and shifts her posture backwards, as shown in Figure 6.21. Since Amy shows non-understanding of the candidate solution produced, “traditional folklore story” (line 7), the search sequence is extended for a further solution to the word search.

However, Ben does not provide any clarification to Amy’s trouble, and instead he responds “yah” (line 10) to provide his acknowledgement and confirmation. This is then followed by a 1.6 second pause in line 11, and at this point both Amy and Ben keep their gaze on each other, as illustrated in Figure 6.22. There are two possibilities for why both Amy and Ben keep the silence. Firstly, Ben expects Amy to take the next turn; secondly, Amy awaits further explanation from Ben to clarify her lack of understanding.

Ben takes the turn in line 13 but his utterance is interrupted and overlaps with Amy’s utterance in line 14. In the overlap, Amy again displays her trouble understanding as she explicitly repeats parts of Ben’s word completion “folklore story?” in a rising intonation (line 14) to show that she is seeking clarification. In response to Amy’s clarification request, Ben recycles his previous word “<folk>” in a slower pace and stresses the last consonant sound of the word “k”.

A striking feature in this analysis is that Kai, as the non-speaking participant, takes the opportunity to provide an explanation to Amy’s request as he self-selects himself and takes the turn in line 17. Despite the fact that he engages in his eating activity when the conversation takes place in line 9 to line 16 and keeps his gaze downwards, he makes his co-participant relevant as he joins in to resolve a further solution to the search sequence. Furthermore, Kai, as the non-speaking participant, eventually displays himself as an active listener and monitors the talk between Ben and Amy. Thus, as he recognises Amy displaying her trouble in understanding, and also recognises Ben’s attempt to resolve Amy’s trouble in understanding (line 9 – line 16), Kai jointly collaborates to help in resolving the search sequence.
During Kai’s further explanation (line 22 – line 23), he looks downward as he meddles with his food on his plate, and then halts his activity and turns to gaze at Amy towards the end of his turn-construction unit when he says “sleep?” with a rising intonation, as illustrated in Figure 6.23. At this point, as he turns his gaze to Amy at the end of his utterance in line 23, he demonstrates that he is checking if Amy is showing any signs of understanding. As no uptake comes from Amy, which is shown in the 0.3 second pause in line 24, Kai makes a continuation in line 25 as he utters “those [old stories yah],” a mid-utterance which overlaps with Amy’s change-of-state token (Heritage, 1984a) in line 26 as she elongates “[ah:::]” and nods her head. It is also worth mentioning that as Amy provides an acknowledgement she has her gaze downward to scoop her food. Furthermore, as Amy acknowledges her understanding through her vocals and noticeable head nod, Ben confirms Amy’s understanding with his token response token “°yah::°” in a lower voice (line 27).

The example in Excerpt 10 offers rich detail on how a non-speaking participant recognises the opportunity to make an entry for co-participation. Furthermore, this example shows how participants format their engagement in a multiactivity in different ways (Haddington et al., 2014). As Kai is involved in eating, he displays his participation in the joint solution to the word search as managing together as active listener and co-participant (ibid.). Kai, as the non-speaking participant, monitors the conversation and attends to the current speaker’s turn and treats the gaze direction as interactionally significant. As in Ben’s ongoing word search, the gaze direction given by Ben to Kai is taken as an opportunity to make an entry for co-participation and produce a candidate solution (Hayashi, 2003). Furthermore, the example shown (Excerpt 10) goes beyond offering a candidate solution to resolve the word search sequence. I have shown that the non-speaking participant offers help in explaining a further solution of the search sequence to the addressed recipient in order to reclaim understanding and thus accomplish intersubjectivity.

The next example looks at how both addressed participant and non-speaking participant work together to resolve the current speaker’s word search sequence. Excerpt 11 is a conversation between Johan, Jason, Husin, Kenny and Wong. In this conversation, as Johan talks about his last visit to China in the year 2005, he shows
trouble in remembering the name of China’s former Prime Minister, thereby launching his word search.

Excerpt 11: Hu Jin Tao (China’s Former Prime Minister)

(Johan: Malaysia; Husin: Malaysia; Jason: Pakistan; Kenny: China; Wong: China)

1 JOHAN: two thousand five?
2 (0.4)
3 WONG: at two thousand five
4 (0.2)
5 JOHAN: ↑yaːh
6 HUSIN: with [who? (Johan glances at Husin.))

7→ JOHAN: [at- at that ↑time ↑er::: (0.3) if I am
       [(Johan looks at Wong. Johan's left hand on the side of his neck. [Fig. 6.24])]
       [(Johan shifts gaze away and rests his head on his left hand wrist. All participants gaze at Johan. [Fig. 6.25])]

Figure 6.24

Figure 6.25

8 not mistaken Lim Muzhe Tong?
   [(Johan gazes at Wong as he utters a Chinese name, "Lim Muzhe Tong". [Fig. 6.26])]

Figure 6.26

9 (0.8)
JOHAN: ah: who's the: I forgot
((Johan closes his eyes, rests his head on his hand, and taps on the table. [Fig. 6.27]))
((Johan holds his head and shifts his body backwards. [Fig. 6.28]))

Figure 6.27
Figure 6.28

your: your [super] supervise "is"

KENNY: [ahh ]

HUSIN: your brain do that
((Husin turns his gaze to Wong))

JASON: not Xi Jing:ng (.) the guy before
((Jason gazes at Husin. Husin, Wong and Kenny gaze at Jason. Xi Jinping, which is pronounced /Shee Jinping/, is a Chinese name. [Fig. 6.29]))

Figure 6.29

JOHAN: [yah not-

HUSIN: "Mao Zedong"
((Mao Zedong is a Chinese name.))

WONG: [ah::: Hu::: Jin Tao↑
((Wong shifts gaze to Johan and utters a China’s President’s name Hu Jintao. [Fig. 6.30]))

Figure 6.30

(0.2)
(0.1)
The excerpt begins with Johan telling the other participants that he visited China in the year 2005, and as he recalls the year that he visited China he directs his gaze at Wong and all the other four participants keep their gaze on him (line 1 – line 6). Although Husin asks him a question in line 6, Johan swiftly glances at Husin and returns his gaze to Wong in his continuation in line 7, which overlaps with Husin’s question (line 6).

Therefore, in line 7, as Johan makes his continuation, he demonstrates speech perturbation through making a restart, displaying hedges, pauses and showing uncertainty, all of which indicates the onset of his word search. It is observed at the beginning of his utterance, in line 7, that Johan gazes at Wong as his addressed recipient, and his left-hand is placed near to his neck with his elbow resting on the table, as shown in Figure 6.24. Johan then shifts his gaze away from Wong as he looks to a space in from of him and rests his head on his hand, displaying a thinking character
(Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986) when he shows hesitancy “er:::” (line 7, Figure 6.25), indicating the onset of his word search. However, in line 8 Johan returns his gaze back to Wong as he produces a ‘try-marked’ word, which can be a Chinese name “Lim Muzhe Tong?”, ending with a rising intonation which shows he is seeking Wong’s confirmation (illustrated in Figure 6.26).

What follows in the next turn (line 9) is a 0.8 second silence in which Wong shows no response. As Johan makes a continuation in line 10, he maintains a similar body posture (shown in Figure 6.26) as he displays hesitation and then closes both eyes as his right-hand taps on the table, further indicating a solitary word search (Figure 6.27). Further elongation and pause are seen in the same utterance in line 10. Johan then explicitly displays his trouble with “ah::: I forgot”, which co-occurs with his embodied actions, displaying frustration in which he puts both of his hands on his head and moves his body posture backwards, as shown in Figure 6.28. Johan then brings his body posture forward as he leans slightly forward and lowers his head as he continues to make an attempt to make a self-repair through giving description “your:: your [super] supervise °is°” (line 11).

A striking feature of this analysis is to look at Jason displaying his co-participation. To make sense of Jason’s co-participation, it is crucial to investigate his gaze direction as a non-speaking participant. At the onset of Johan’s word search in line 7, Jason has his gaze on Johan. However, in line 8 Jason withdraws his gaze from Johan and brings it down towards his mobile phone as he begins tapping on its screen during Johan’s utterances (line 8 to line 11). Although Jason does not fix his gaze on any of the participants at this point due to his involvement in handling an object (tapping his phone screen) (Nevile et al., 2014), he is in fact showing his attentiveness as a listener in a multiactivity which leads his contribution as co-participation in line 14 (Haddington et al., 2014).

The phrase word “supervise,” uttered by Johan in line 11 earlier is ambiguous. However, Jason takes it as Johan is searching for someone who supervise. Furthermore, Jason also recognises the embodied action displayed by Johan in his trouble and the try-marked name “Lim Muzhe Tong” as resources that provide an opportunity for his co-participation. In line 14 he directs his gaze at Husin and shows possible understanding.
that the name of China’s former Prime Minister is required in the word search, as he says “not Xi Jinping (. ) the guy before”, as illustrated in Figure 6.29.

Following Jason’s initiation in line 14, there is a short, 0.2 second gap in line 15, and in the next sequences Johan, Husin and Wong show a simultaneous response in which their responses overlap (line 16 to line 18). As observed in line 16 and line 17, Johan produces a token acknowledgement “yah,” which overlaps with Husin offering a possible candidate solution by producing a try-marked of a possible Chinese politician’s name uttered in a soft voice “°Mao Zedong°”. Simultaneously, Wong, as the addressed recipient earlier in this excerpt, produces an elongated sound of a change-of-state token “ah:::” (Heritage, 1984a).

The change-of-state token presented in Wong’s utterance displays noticing, as he elongates his token response and directs his gaze to Johan while providing his candidate solution “[ah::: Hu:: Jin Tao↑]”, which ends with a high pitch sound (line 18, figure 6.30). Jason then shows agreement by repeating the candidate solution “Hu:: Jin Tao↑=”, which co-occurs with his pointing hand gestures towards Wong to signposting to Wong that “he is right” (line 20, Figure 6.31). Jason’s display of agreement utterance is latched with Johan’s utterance in line 21, in which Johan makes similar pointing gestures, repeats the candidate solution, and confirms it as he says “=Hu Jin Tao yah” (line 21, Figure 6.32). Following this, other participants show agreement and display their understanding through word repetition of “Hu Jin Tao”, a token acknowledgement and also laughter, as shown in line 22 to line 25.

The three examples above (Excerpt 9, Excerpt 10 and Excerpt 11) have shown how non-speaking participants recognise an opportunity for demonstrating co-participation in the word search activity through the speaker’s talk and embodied actions in the word search sequence. The analyses has shown that the non-speaking participants are attentive listeners observant to the current speaker’s talk and embodied action demonstrated in the word search sequences though they show involvement in multiple activities, such as eating, browsing a mobile phone, and talking and listening at the same time (Haddington et al., 2014; Nevile et al., 2014).
It is significant that the embodied resources provide visible resources for other participants to take the opportunity to make an entry for a collaborative solution in the search sequence (Hayashi, 2003). Furthermore, this section has demonstrated that embodied completion (Olsher, 2004) does not only complete the speaker’s word search. Instead, it is also utilised as a valuable resource for a co-participation collaborative solution. Gaze direction is also significant and plays a significant role in the organisation of multimodal participation not only between the speaker and addressed participants but also for the entire participation framework involving non-speaking participants to accomplish collaborative solution in word search sequences.

The final section of this chapter examines participants’ use of embodied actions as forms to embody a negotiation for the reference word in the ongoing word search and accomplish joint participation in resolving a collaborative word search sequence.

6.3 Embodied Negotiation Prompts Joint Solution

This section explores how both speaker and recipient synchronise their talk and hand gestures in parallel to negotiate for meaning of an item that they are searching for in the ongoing talk. The embodied practices used in the negotiation of meaning in these examples are what I will term as ‘embodied negotiation.’ The next example will examine the embodied negotiation in the search sequences featuring the use of talk and embodied actions deployed by the speaker and the addressed recipient. The embodied negotiation demonstrated by the speaker and the addressed recipient become available resources for the third person who is the non-speaking participant to produce a joint solution. Excerpt 12 is a conversation between Mus, Lea and Ann, in which Lea talks about her brother’s college experience living in a room with five other students. Before this excerpt, Ann has expressed surprise that the room that Lea’s brother lives in can accommodate five people.

Excerpt 12: Double decker

(Ann: Vietnam; Mus: Malaysia; Lea: Kazakhstan)

1 ANN: I think semi- I think they give= ((Ann gazes at Mus.))

2 LEA: =like=-
3 ➔ ANN: │=single:: the::(0.4)°>kind of known as<°
│((Ann looks at Lea’s hands movement upwards & downwards. Ann makes similar
hand movement downwards & upwards. [Fig. 6.33]))

4 │semi:: ↑
│((Ann shifts her gaze to Mus and moves hands upwards & downwards. [Fig. 6.34]))

Figure 6.33

Figure 6.34

5 (0.7)
6 MUS: mm::
7 (0.2)
8 ANN: be:d >I don’t know< how to say it like-
      ((Ann gazes at Mus.))
9 LEA: be:ds
      ((Lea moves her hands upwards & downwards. Both Ann & Lea gaze at each other))
10 (0.4)
11 ANN: yah [like- like-]
12 LEA: [ yah yah   ]
13 (0.2)
14 LEA: they have [two=
15 ANN: [like-
16 LEA: │=like [two levels
       ((Lea gazes at Ann and moves her fingers apart. [Fig. 6.35]))
17 ANN: │[two (.) levels
       ((Ann gazes at Mus and moves her right hand away from her left hand. [Fig.
       6.35]))

Figure 6.35
18 MUS:↑ mm::
((Mus nods and gazes at Ann.))
19 (0.3)
20 MUS: oka:y
21 ANN: | what is it ca:ll↑ si- call semi::↑ "be:d"
 |((Both Ann and Mus gaze at each other.))
22 MUS: er:: (.) dou[ble decke:r?
23 ANN: [forgo:t
24 (0.2)
25 ANN: a double decke:r maybe↑
26 MUS: maybe↑
27 LEA: "don't know"
28 MUS: ["haha"]
29 ANN: [maybe ] I think it's double decker
30 MUS: ↑ mm ↓ hm

The segment in Excerpt 12 begins with Ann making an attempt to describe the types of bed that are provided in the room. However, Ann shows trouble in her turn, through repetition, a cut-off word, and recycling parts of her word, and also displays an elongation vowel sound in her incomplete utterance, which show the launches of her word search (line 1 – line 4). As Lea recognises Ann’s trouble in talk in line 1, Lea brings her gaze towards Ann and begins her utterance in line 2. It is observed that Lea makes an attempt to assist Ann when she takes the turn in line 2. As Lea self-selects herself to take the next turn (line 2), she abruptly self-interrupts through the cut-off word “like-”, and she completes her turn through displaying embodied completion (Olsher, 2004), which overlaps with Ann’s utterance in line 4.

When Lea demonstrates an embodied completion, she moves her right hand by placing her right palm forward with closed fingers facing down and moves her hand gestures in an upward and downward movement as she visually describes the bed. The entry timing of hand gestures movement begins simultaneously with Ann’s utterance in line 3. Moreover, Ann’s turn in line 3 latches with Lea’s cut-off word in line 2, and as
she makes a continuation she produces similar hand movements to Lea’s hand gestures, as illustrated in Figure 6.33.

Furthermore, at the onset of Ann’s word search activity (line 3), Ann gazes at Lea’s hands and also puts her right hand up to align it with Lea’s hand position (Figure 6.33). Then, Ann moves her right hand downwards and upwards in harmony with Lea’s hand movement. Ann’s hand gestures are quite interesting here in a way that she is visually echoing to Lea’s hand gestures. Following this, Ann turns to direct her gaze to Mus, and Ann repeats similar hand gestures by moving her right hand downwards and upwards as she utters “semi:: ↑” (line 4) in an upward pitch, as shown in Figure 6.34.

It is noteworthy that Ann’s rising intonation, gestures and gaze directions towards Mus demonstrate that she is seeking Mus’ assistance in her word search (line 4). What follows is a 0.7 second silence (line 5), after which Mus provides a token response “mm::” (line 6) as a continuier, possibly showing her listenership to Ann (Gardner, 2013). Recognising Mus’ response in line 6, a short gap follows (line 7). Ann maintains her gaze on Mus and makes a continuation as she explicitly displays her trouble in searching for the word by using a formulaic expression (Brouwer, 2003; Jung, 2004) as she says “be:d >I don’t know< how to say it like−” (line 8).

It can be understood that as Ann explicitly displays her trouble in her word search and directs her gaze at Mus, this entails an invitation for Mus to help her in her word search (Kurhila, 2006). However, Lea self-selects herself and produces and gesturally repeats a similar hand movement when she produces the embodied completion (Olsher, 2004; Olsher, 2008), moving her hands upward and downward and repeating the word “be:ds” with emphasis (line 9). At this point, both Ann and Lea maintain their gaze at each other as they continue to show further negotiation in line 10 to line 17. Although they use short phrases in their utterance, both Lea and Ann display further hand movements in line 16 to line 17, visually forming negotiation for the lexical item “bed” and the demonstration of their hand movements are used as embodied negotiation (Figure 6.35)

What is significant in the embodied negotiation stage between Lea and Ann is that both produce resemblance gestures in their overlap utterances in line 15 and line 16. A close analysis of the resemblance gestures shows that in line 15 Lea extends her hands
forward and moves her two fingers slightly apart as she gazes at Ann. At the same moment, too, Ann looks at Mus and extends both her hands slightly apart in front of her body posture by placing her left hand below and her right hand above. Ann then moves her right hand upwards as she says “two level” (line 16). Although both Ann and Lea do not direct their gaze at each other, both show a resemblance of hand gestures that move in synchronisation to present a similar context of their talk, as presented in Figure 6.35.

Analysing Mus as the non-speaking participant it is noticed that during the embodied negotiation phase she keeps her gaze towards Ann and Lea to show that she is observing both their both embodied actions. Following the talk and embodied practices demonstrated by Lea and Ann, Mus produces a token response “↑mn::” with head nods as she gazes at Ann in line 18, and then produces another token response “oka:y” with a falling intonation, which could be considered acknowledgement of her understanding. Following Mus’ token response, Ann looks at Mus and displays an explicit marker in her word search sequence when she says “what is it ca:ll↑ si- call semi::↑ “be:d” (line 20), inviting Mus to co-participate in her search activity.

Mus returns her gaze to Ann and recognises the gaze directed at her as an opportunity for her co-participation. Thus, in line 21, Mus proposes a candidate solution “double decker?”, which ends in a rising intonation. The rising intonation in Mus’ collaborative word solution demonstrates that she is ‘try-marking’ it (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979), and the rising intonation also shows that she is seeking confirmation from Ann (Koshik and Seo, 2012). Following the candidate solution proposed by Mus, Ann gives her a partial clarification by repeating the candidate solution produced and using an ‘uncertainty’ modulation markers such as “maybe” and “I think” (Schegloff et al., 1977). However, Ann then shows acceptance for the candidate solution produced, and Mus shows agreement through displaying a minimal token response (line 29 – line 30).

This section shows the ‘embodied negotiation’ of participants working together to accomplish a collaborative solution in the word search sequence. In so doing, the participants creatively use spoken language and embodied actions as resources to negotiate meaning in the word search sequences to accomplish joint participation in
resolving collaborative word search sequence and thus achieve understanding. The analysis further shows that recurring hand gestures and talk not only support the speaker’s word search process but also form embodied negotiation for participants to align their understanding in the conversation.

6.4 Summary

Section 6.2 of this chapter has shown how the co-participant recognised the current speaker's talk and embodied actions in the search activity as an opportunity to make an entry for a collaborative solution in the word search sequence. Significantly, the addressed participant and the non-speaking participant constitute the role of co-participation in the collaborative word search sequence. Notably, multimodal resources such as vocals, gaze direction and hand gestures of the current speakers became a valuable resource that creates the opportunity to achieve a collaborative solution in the ongoing search.

Section 6.3 examined how both speaker and recipients demonstrate similar hand gestures occurring simultaneously to refer to the searched-for word in the on-going talk. The form of ‘embodied negotiation’ by the participants prompts the third person, acting as a listener in the conversation, to offer a candidate solution for the word search sequence. Additionally, participants creatively use embodied actions as forms of embodied negotiation to create meaning for the searched-for word. Therefore, the organisation of talk and embodied action by the participants became useful resources to accomplish joint participation in resolving the collaborative word search sequence. The analysis has also uncovered how non-speaking participants display their attentiveness as active participants in the ongoing talk and work towards accomplishing intersubjectivity in word search sequence.

The study next moves to the final analysis chapter, which focuses on how participants make use of talk and embodied actions as resources for collaboration in meaning-making and resolve the word search even though the actual word is not acquired.
Chapter 7. Joint Searches Without Getting the Actual Word

7.1 Introduction

The final analysis chapter (Chapter 7) focuses on the investigation of L2 interaction that is significant to the use of spoken language and embodied actions in resolving a word search. The analyses show instances in which participants achieve a collaborative word solution and proceed for progressivity in talk although the seemingly sought-after word is not attained.

Section 7.2 investigates how the current speaker utilises spoken language and embodied actions as resources in making a preference for self-completion. Two examples are analysed in the occurrence of the speaker making a preference for self-repair or self-completion in the resolution of search sequences. Section 7.2.1 analyses how the speaker forms new word coinage along with gestures, and Section 7.2.2 looks at how the speaker uses the distal demonstrative pronoun “this” as a placeholder along with embodied completions.

Section 7.3 examines how multimodal resources are organised between the participants to accomplish the joint solution to the ongoing word search. There are three instances in which participants accomplish a conjoined resolution to the search sequence although the actual searched-for word is not attained. In Section 7.3.1, the analysis shows how speaker and recipient demonstrate the use of recurring gestures as meaning-making during the course of the ongoing search. The next section, 7.3.2, shows how all participants in the multiparty conversation negotiate meaning for the candidate word searched through the use of multimodal resources, circumlocution and spelling for embodied negotiation. In Section 7.3.3, the analysis shows how all participants work together through the use of spoken language and embodied actions in the process of collaboratively constructing a concept of the unidentifiable word. Thus, the ‘collaborative concept construction’ becomes a sufficient reference for the participants to achieve an understanding.
7.2 Multimodal Resources in Preference for Self-Completion

This section looks at instances in which the speaker shows delay in his talk as he demonstrates that he is searching for a word and then completes the search by himself. The word search sequence in this section is similar to the self-initiated repair or forward oriented self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977; Schegloff, 1979; Carroll, 2006; Greer, 2013). What is salient about the analyses in this section is that the speaker accomplishes a solution to the word search even though the actual word searched-for is not attained. In doing so, the speaker mobilises the use of multimodal resources along with creative new word forms such as word coinage when making a self-completion (Section 7.2.1).

On another occasion, the speaker makes an attempt at self-completion through the coordination of multimodal resources and linguistic practices, such as the use of the distal demonstrative pronoun in situations where the word searched-for is not known (Section 7.2.2). The first sub-section is an examination of the speaker showing a preference for self-completion in his ongoing word search, in which the embodied resources are integrated and embedded with the use of word coinage to achieve multimodal completions (Mondada, 2015).

7.2.1 The Use of Word Coinage with Gestures

In this particular segment, while discussing job opportunities the participants are involved in multiple activities, such as talking, eating, drinking, and manipulating objects (Haddington et al., 2014). Excerpt 13 is a conversation between five international students in which jobs related to their study programmes are discussed. Prior to this excerpt, Jason and Johan had asked Husin about the job options that agricultural graduates can consider after they complete their studies. Husin then explains to Johan and Jason that there are many jobs besides becoming farmers in the agricultural industry, and he further explains that many of the agricultural graduates incline to work as analysts in different research fields.
Excerpt 13: Big fry

(Johan: Malaysia; Husin: Malaysia; Jason: Pakistan; Kenny: China)

1 JOHAN: so basically you- you're not (0.2)

2→ | the un- not- | (0.6) not ↑ the:

| ((Husin turns to gaze at Johan and Johan extends his left hand outwards. [Fig. 7.1]))

| ((Johan brings his hand in and places it on the table.))

3 (1.2)

((Johan gazes downwards. Husin and Kenny gaze at Johan while eating))

4 JOHAN: what we call

| ((Johan gazes downwards towards the table.))

5 (1.0)

((All the participants look up to gaze at Johan.))

6 JOHAN: the small fry

| ((Johan gazes at Husin and extends his left hand outwards below shoulder level and demonstrates a sort of claw-like gesture. [Fig. 7.2]))

7 (0.2)
In line 1 through line 8, Johan seems to have trouble formulating his talk, which is indicated through the display of several perturbations, such as a cut-off word, elongated words, and several pauses (line 1 – line 2). Towards the end of Johan’s turn in line 2, he launches a word search through the stretched word sound “the::” with an upward intonation, which is then followed by a lengthy pause of 1.2 seconds (line 3).

As Johan projects his delay, he keeps his gaze on Husin as he extends his hand outwards to the left side of his body, which co-occurs with his cut-off word “the un-not- (0.6) the::”, as shown in Figure 7.1. At this moment, Husin, who has his gaze downwards at his plate, shifts his gaze towards Johan. When Husin’s gaze is on Johan, Johan shifts his gaze away and brings it downwards along with the withdrawal of the hand movement and places it on the table in his normal sitting position during the 0.6 second pause. Simultaneously, in the long 1.2 second silence in line 3, Johan engages in a solitary word search and as he engages in the solitary word search, he slightly lowers his head down and keeps looking downwards to indicate ‘doing thinking’ (Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1994 cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583). At this moment,
Husin and Kenny turn their heads up and bring their gazes on Johan while continuing to eat their food. Although both Husin and Kenny show their recipiency towards Johan, who shows that he is progressing in the search, Johan does not direct his gaze at any of the recipients, which shows that he is not extending an offer for co-participation in his word search activity.

In line 4, Johan then overly displays his trouble in searching for a word by explicitly saying “what we call” (line 4), along with leaning his body posture forward, lowering his head, and keeping his eyes downwards to indicate ‘doing thinking’ over the ensuing 1.0 second pause (line 5). Despite the overt display of difficulty in searching for a word, Johan does not brings his gaze to any of the other recipients. At this point, too, all four recipients secure their gaze on Johan and pay attention to him as he engages in a solitary word search. In the subsequent action, Johan shows that he is not giving up, and instead displays an attempt to make a preference for making a self-repair or self-completion (Schegloff et al., 1977). In line 6, he makes a self-completion as he produces a candidate solution to his word search “the small fry,” and then he further resolves his ongoing search by producing “the big fry” in line 8.

The most striking thing about this segment is Johan’s demonstration of his hand gestures, which co-occur with his word search completion in line 6 to line 8. Looking more closely at how Johan combines his gestures and his talk to resolve his word search reveals that Johan looks at Husin as he extends his left hand outwards below his shoulder level, in the shape of a claw-like gesture, and produces his utterance “the small fry,” as illustrated in Figure 7.2. Then in line 8, Johan shows further perturbation features that indicate his trouble in his talk, launching a second word search. Eventually, he manages to resolve his search by making a self-repair and then further offers another candidate solution that co-occurs with his gestures. It can be observed that as Johan lifts his claw-like hand gestures upward above his shoulder level, he pounds his left hands in three beat gestures that co-occur with his utterances in line 8. The shaded parts shown in the example below indicate the three beat hand gestures that co-occur with the spoken language:

Line 8 Johan: you- you are the big- big- the big fry
The first beat gesture in the first occurrence of the cut-off word “the big-”, the second beat gesture in the next cut-off word ”big-”, and finally the third beat gesture occurs in his word completion, “the big fry” (Figure 7.3). Following Johan’s completion of his word searches, Wong demonstrates laughter, which Johan joins and then prolongs beyond Wong’s token laughter (line 9 – line 10). Later, in line 12, Husin then joins in as he produces laughter within his speech “I(h) hope so(h):”. Then Wong and Johan coordinate their response by both showing mutual understanding through joint laughter, behaviour which is then followed by Wong repeating Husin’s utterance, which is also produced through laughter within his speech “I ho(h)pe so(h)”, after which he continues laughing (line 13 – line 14).

In this excerpt, there are two occurrences of word searches in Johan’s long turn (line 1 – line 8). Johan manages to resolves both of his word searches with the organisation of his talk and hand gestures. It is noteworthy that when Johan launches his second word search (line 8), it appears that he is searching for a word that is opposite to “small fry”. As such, Johan is successful in making a self-completion as he produces the candidate word solution “big fry”. An interesting phenomenon here is Johan’s production of the word solution “big fry,” as this word phrase is not the actual words or word phrase. Instead, Johan creates a word coinage to resolve his word search.

In previous studies, due to a learner’s lack of linguistic knowledge, word coinage is used as a communication strategy when a word in the target language is not known (Færch and Kasper, 1983). However, in this example, Johan can be seen as a creative language user who is successful in getting his message across. It is evident in the data that when Johan produces the word coinage he furnishes it with embodied resources so as to ‘normalise’ the word (Firth, 1996) and for his participants’ understanding. Hence, the organisation of the speaker’s multimodal resources, along with the word coinage, have accomplished his word searches. As a result, both current speaker and recipients indicate their agreement through the display of joint laughter, which shows that they have reached an understanding, at which they display further orientation to potentially end the topic (Holt, 2010).
7.2.2 The Use of a Placeholder with Gestures

This sub-section addresses a situation where the current speaker encounters trouble searching for a word and uses the demonstrative pronoun as a referential expression for the unavailable word searched for (Hayashi, 2003; Mori and Hayashi, 2006), which is then followed by an embodied completion (Olsher, 2004). Previous studies have found that the use of demonstratives as filler words have a distinct role in word searches. They are known as ‘placeholders’ for a word that is temporarily not available to the speaker but then later replaced by a more accurate word item (Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi and Yoon, 2006).

However, what is different in the following instance is that the speaker does not replace the placeholder with a more accurate word. Instead, the speaker is unable to produce an actual word for her word search. Instead, she completes her word search with an embodied completion (Olsher, 2004). The analysis below Excerpt 14 thus looks at a situation where the current speaker demonstrates multiple word searches and use the demonstrative pronoun “this” as a placeholder and then resolves the search with embodied completion.

Excerpt 14 below is a conversation between Ben, Kai and Amy, in which they are talking about the latest Samsung brand mobile model (‘Samsung Edge’), which has a curved screen design. It is worth mentioning that in their conversation they refer to the curved screen design as a “bend screen”. Furthermore, Excerpt 14 a follow-on from a conversation from Excerpt 4 in the previous analysis chapter (Section 5.3).

Excerpt 14: Just like this

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1  AMY: is it good to have a bend screen?
2  (0.6)
3  BEN: [I don’t I-]
4⇒ AMY: |I:: sa:::]w |I saw a::: |(0.4) pho::ne
  |((Amy gazes at her arms and lifts her arm up))
  |((Amy points at her left wrist and looks at Ben))
  |((Amy gazes and points at the mobile))
5  |ju:st (0.4) |like this.
  |((Amy grips her wrist))
  |((Amy gazes towards Ben. Ben and Kai gaze at Amy. [Fig. 7.4 ]))
Figure 7.4

6 (0.4)

7 → AMY: | and the::n (0.5) |er::: [scre:::n |like thi::s.
| ((Amy moves her fingers to her upper left arms))
|((Amy shifts her gaze to Ben. Ben turns to gaze at Kai.))
|((Amy looks at Kai and Kai looks at Amy’s hand movement. [Fig. 7.5]))

Figure 7.5

8 BEN: [ya::h,

9 (1.0)

((Amy gazes at Kai and then at Ben. Ben gazes at Amy.))

10 BEN: it's [ I- ↑I don't ↓know =

11 AMY: |[^“like calculator”]
| ((Amy gazes at Ben while tapping her inner left arms. [Fig. 7.6]))

Figure 7.6

12 BEN: = that depends really::: on the preference of the person
In line 1, Amy begins her utterance by asking Ben if it is good to have a curved screen mobile phone. Following the 0.6 second gap in line 2, Ben attempts to answer Amy’s questions but his turn overlaps with Amy’s utterance (line 3 – line 4). Nonetheless, when Amy produces her turn in line 4 to line 5, she seems to have trouble formulating her turn construction unit, which indicates the use of a stretched words sound such as delaying her turn and then making a restart (Carroll, 2004). She pauses a moment and then further shows speech perturbation in her talk, indicating the launch into her word search. Additionally, in Amy’s word search in line 4 to line 5, she shows different embodied movements, such as gaze shifting and hand movements, which also synchronise with her talk.

In line 4, Amy lifts her left arms upwards towards Ben, turns to look at her hands, and says “I::sa::w”. When she makes a restart “I saw a:::”, she keeps her gaze on her hand movement and points at her left wrist with her right index finger and turns her gaze direction towards Ben. Amy then pauses for 0.4 seconds, during which she begins to bring her gaze to look at the mobile which is in Ben’s hand and points to the object as she says “pho::ne” (line 4).

In line 5, Amy shifts her gaze to look at her wrist, holds it with her right hand, and makes a soft movement around her wrist as she produces “ju:st”, and then pauses again for a moment. Amy then shifts her gaze to Ben as she continues holding her wrist softly, and lowers her arms towards Ben and produces “like this”, which ends with a downward intonation. Following the use of “this” as a placeholder, Amy continues demonstrating her hand movement of circulating the gripping gesture around her wrist (resembling a bracelet, as illustrated in Figure 7.4). The embodied actions (such as the use of gestural hand movement) displayed after the use of “this” demonstrate Amy’s attempt to describe visually the unavailable word such, representing the embodied completion.

It is observed that when Amy directs her gaze at Ben during her ongoing search (line 5), the gaze direction indicates that she is inviting Ben to join in her search (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). However, Ben does not provide a response in the following 0.4 second pause as he keeps his gaze on Amy’s gestures (line 6). Likewise, during the 0.4 second pause, Amy keeps her gaze on Ben as she continues
demonstrating her hand movement. Furthermore, as Amy demonstrates the hand movement, which co-occurs with her utterance “like this”, both Ben and Kai bring their gaze on her hand movement and at the same time Ben puts the mobile down on the table (Figure 7.4).

In line 7, as Amy continues her utterance, she demonstrates further speech perturbation features through the elongated words, pauses, and hesitations as she says “and the::n (0.5) er:: [scree]::n”, which launches another word search. At the onset of Amy’s word search, she shifts her gaze, which was on Ben, to look at her left hand wrist again, which is in a similar body position as in her previous utterance (Figure 7.4). As she continues to show her left hand in an upward position, she brings her hand forward and then she moves her right index finger on top of her inward left arm. With the index finger touching her inner arm, she then makes an upward and downward movement on her inner arm and brings her gaze to Ben, then turns to look at Kai and says “like thi:s” in a falling intonation. Simultaneously, Kai turns to look at Amy’s hand movement, as illustrated in Figure 7.5.

It is observed that when Amy gazes at Ben for the second time at the point she utters her mid utterance in line 7, this indicates that she is inviting Ben to co-participate in her word search activity (ibid.). Nonetheless, Ben does not provide any candidate item to assist Amy in the resolution of the word search. Instead, Ben says “ya::h” in a slightly rising intonation (line 8) and begins to shift his gaze and orients his body posture towards Kai, which can indicate that he is extending the invitation to Kai to join in the search sequence. However, having noticed Ben’s gaze shifting towards Kai, Amy turns to look at Kai and says “like thi:s”. In Amy’s second occurrence of her word search she also makes use of “this” as a placeholder to indicate the word that she is searching for. Following her end utterance “like this” in line 7, she continues to moves her finger in an upward and downward movement on her arm, representing her embodied completion.

Following the embodied completion in line 8 comes a long, 1.0 second gap in line 9, and there is no uptake from Kai. Thus, Amy turns to gaze at Ben, who has kept his gaze on her from earlier. Ben then self-selects himself to take the turn, his utterance overlaps with Amy’s utterance as he says in a lower voice ““like calculator””
(line 10 to line 12), and Amy taps her inner arm randomly with her index finger, which seems to provide further visual description for the unavailable word (Figure 7.6). Although it is not known if both Ben and Kai achieve understanding of Amy’s explanation, the salient feature that can be noted in this segment is how Amy organises her talk and embodied actions as interactional practices in making the attempt to make complete her word search despite not getting the actual word searched-for.

In mobilising her utterances and her embodied actions such as displaying hand gestures and using the demonstrative pronoun “this” as a placeholder (Hayashi, 2003; Hayashi and Yoon, 2006) Amy is making her thinking process in her ongoing word search visible to her recipients (Hayashi et al., 2013) in order to support the referential expression for the unavailable word searched-for. Furthermore, when Amy points towards the mobile in Ben’s hand and then brings her gaze on Ben during her utterance in line 4, she makes the object relevant in her ongoing word search. Thus, as Amy progresses in her word search, the use of the object in her talk develops a shared referent with Ben for the word that is searched-for (Mondada, 2007; Nevile et al., 2014).

Although Amy extends her invitation to her recipients for co-participation in her search sequence through directing her gaze towards Ben and Kai (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986), she also demonstrates the attempt to resolve her word search through making a self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977). Hence, the representation of her embodied actions accompanying the use of the demonstrative pronoun “this” seems to play a role in Amy’s search sequence (line 5 and line 7). Furthermore, the coordination of her talk and embodied actions allows Amy to project an understandable frame of valuable resources that is significant for her to complete her search even though she does not achieve the actual word.

Thus, the embodied actions displayed by Amy are similar to the embodied completion in the study by Olsher (2004), which showed that the partial turn of the speaker is completed through gestures. Similarly, in this study Amy completes her search sequence with the display of embodied completion. However, this example has a different outcome to the studies by Hayashi (2003) and Hayashi and Yoon (2006) on the use of the demonstrative pronoun as a placeholder. In their studies, Hayashi (2003) and
Hayashi and Yoon (2006) showed that the speaker uses a placeholder for a word that is temporarily not available to the speaker, and which is then later replaced by a more accurate word item. In Excerpt 14, the actual or accurate word is not provided. Instead, the speaker completes her search with embodied completion. Furthermore, Olsher’s study shows that the embodied completion is presented unaccompanied by a word, whereas in this example the embodied completions co-occur with talk (i.e. the use of the demonstrative pronoun “this”).

Excerpt 14 has shown how a speaker does not need an actual word to resolve a word search to progress in a talk. It is evident from the data that the speaker utilises talk and embodied actions with the combination of using a placeholder (Hayashi, 2003) and embodied completion (Olshers, 2004) as resources in the word search resolution. Hence, the hybrid interactional moves of the use of “this” as placeholder and embodied completion represent the multiple multimodal resources mobilised by the speaker as ‘multimodal completion’ (Mondada, 2015). These multimodal completions reveal that the speaker uses and configures ‘complex multimodal gestalts,’ such as the talk, gestures, the body, and body movements (ibid.), and so the roles of multimodal resources demonstrated by participants are significant in L2 word searches.

7.3 Multimodal Resources in Joint Solution

At times, when a search sequence is launched, there can be a phase where the participants in the present data dedicate more time and effort to negotiate and work together to resolve the search sequence. Thus, the phase of negotiation and co-operation among the participants illustrated in the present data reveals that the participants show a multimodal joint turn construction in longer word search sequences to achieve intersubjectivity. Thus, in the examples below a detailed analysis of instances in which participants resolve the word search sequence through participants’ multimodal collaboration is carried out. The first sub-section below (Section 7.3.1) examines how participants organise the use of recurring gestures for meaning-making for the unavailable word searched-for and for understanding.
7.3.1 Meaning-Making through Repeating Gestures

Excerpt 15 looks at how the current speaker uses hand gestures as representative devices to support a word search, and then a recipient displays co-participation by using gestures in the joint construction for meaning-making. The analysis shows an example of the speaker demonstrating recurring finger gestures to replace the unavailable word in a search sequence as an attempt to resolve a search and also to achieve the recipients’ understanding. Thus, the coordination of the speaker’s talk and gestures provide an opportunity for the addressed recipients’ co-participation. Furthermore, the joint construction of negotiating meaning between the speaker and the addressed recipients triggers the third member (e.g., non-speaking participant) to work together to achieve a collaborative solution of the ongoing search.

Excerpt 15: A lot of money

(Ben: Malaysia; Kai: Malaysia; Amy: China)

1 BEN: is it expensive?
   ((Both Amy and Ben gaze at each other.))

2 (0.4)

3 AMY: so:: expensive.

4 (0.7)

5 → AMY: aba:::t,

6 (1.5)
   ((Amy gazes upwards & Ben gazes at Amy.))

7 BEN: °mm:°

8 AMY: wait a mi:nute.

9 (4.6)
   ((Amy gazes downwards at her hand movement where she demonstrates counting gestures with both hands. [Fig. 7.7]))

Figure 7.7
AMY: five zero zero zero zero zero (0.4) pounds.

((Amy demonstrates counting gestures towards Ben. [Fig. 7.8]))

((Ben & Kai gaze at Amy. [Fig. 7.9]))

Figure 7.8

Figure 7.9

BEN: nine?

((Ben turns to gaze at Amy. Both Amy and Kai maintain their gazes at Ben. [Fig. 7.10]))

Figure 7.10

((Ben gestures movement in the air with his index finger. [Fig. 7.11]))

Figure 7.11

AMY: five zero zero zero zero zero pounds

((Amy demonstrates counting gestures with both hands. Ben gazes at Amy. [Fig. 7.12]))
Figure 7.12

15

((Ben and Kai gaze at each other. [Fig. 7.13]))

Figure 7.13

16 AMY: ah::I don't know (0.1)'how to [say®

((Amy lifts both hands with open palms. Ben picks up his mug & gazes at Amy. [Fig. 7.14]))

Figure 7.14

17 BEN: [five,

18

(2.0)

19 KAI: [a: lot of money let's just [say

((Both Kai and Amy gaze at each other. [Fig. 7.15]))
In Excerpt 15, the participants are talking about house prices in Hong Kong as Ben enquires with Amy in line 1. Following the enquiry, Amy provides an assessment by saying that house prices in Hong Kong are high. As Amy is about to provide an expansion to her assessment in line 5, she begins to show trouble in her talk, indicated by the stretched word “about,” with a slight upward intonation, showing the onset of her word search. Following the elongation of the vowel sound (line 5) is a lengthy, 1.5 second pause in line 6, in which Amy tilts her head upwards as if doing thinking. Ben orients to what Amy is doing as she shows herself to be in a solitary word search, Ben displays a token response “mm” in a soft voice (line 7) as a continuer. In this way, Ben shows his listenership (Gardner, 2013) and thus the fact that he is not taking up speakership (Jefferson, 1984). Once Amy hears the response from Ben, Amy makes a request for Ben to give her a while and then continues to remain silent in the subsequent line, showing a long, 4.6 second pause (line 8 - line 9).

A striking feature of the conversation in this excerpt is how Amy utilises her talk and embodied actions from line 9 to line 14 by turning her hand as an interactive resource to support her word search activity. In the very long, 4.6 second silence in line 9, Amy disengages her gaze from Ben and starts to shift her gaze downwards towards her hand. As Amy looks down, she lifts both her hands in front of her body and demonstrates a counting gesture, which seems to suggest she is doing her own private counting process with gestures while making her thinking process visible to her recipients (Hayashi et al., 2013), as illustrated in Figure 7.7. Following this, Amy then raises her head up and brings both of her hands forward towards Ben with open palms, and then demonstrates a counting gesture such as demonstrating counting with her left hand as she says her utterance in line 10, as illustrated in Figure 7.8.
In doing so, she brings her left hand forward and moves each finger in a beat gesture that starts from her left little finger and moves towards the thumb direction as she utters each word “five zero zero zero zero zero”, and then pauses for a moment. During the slight, 0.4 second pause in her mid-utterance in line 10, Kai and Ben turn their gaze to Amy. As Amy gets a return gaze from Ben in the following pause (line 10), she keeps her gaze on him and completes her utterance as she produces “pounds” in a falling intonation. At this point, Amy keeps both of her hands forwards with her palms facing outwards towards Ben, and at the same time both Ben and Kai turn their gaze to Amy, as illustrated in Figure 7.9.

It is noticeable that as Amy demonstrates her finger counting gesture, which co-occurs with her utterance in line 10, the coordination of her embodied actions and talk operate as a device to support her ‘try-marked’ candidate word solution (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979). Furthermore, as she moves her hand movement towards Ben, she keeps her gaze on her hand gesture while she demonstrates the counting gesture. In so doing, she informs Ben, as the addressed recipient, that the visual display of her hand movements is ‘not just there’ but is rather ‘worthy of attention’ and is relevant to her emerging talk (Streeck, 1993). Furthermore, when Amy shifts her gaze to Ben at the end of her utterance in line 10, this indicates that she is seeking whether Ben is showing any understanding of the ‘try-marked’ candidate solution that she produces.

Following Amy’s gaze directions at Ben, Ben orients this as Amy waiting for his response. Hence, in line 12 Ben utters “nine?” with an upwards intonation, which can be seen as ‘try marking’ his candidate understanding and, with the rising intonation, indicating that he is seeking Amy’s confirmation. At this point, both Amy and Ben keep their gaze on each other and at the same moment too Kai shifts his gaze, previously on Amy, towards Ben, as illustrated in Figure 7.10. However, Amy does not provide any response, and instead keeps her orientation towards Ben throughout the long, 2.2 second pause (line 13).

Interestingly, the long, 2.2 second silence is not an empty moment. Instead, it is filled with embodied actions demonstrated by the participants. At the start of the silence, Ben and Amy maintain their gaze on each other, and as there is no uptake from Amy Ben makes a gestural writing movement in the air with his index finger, as
illustrated in Figure 7.11. As Ben writes in the air with his index finger, Kai and Amy bring their gaze on his hand movement (Figure 7.11), and towards the end of the silent moment Ben puts his hand down and keeps his gaze on Amy. It is noticeable that Ben’s hand gesture (writing in the air) can indicate that he is also making his thinking process visible to his recipients (Hayashi et al., 2013), and thus displaying his joint construction for meaning-making in the search sequence.

In the subsequent line, Amy displays a repeating hands gesture (line 14), gesticulating again with both of her hands as she recycles her words, as in her previous turn (illustrated in Figure 7.12). This may project that Amy is making a second attempt to gain her recipients’ understanding for her ‘try-marked’ candidate word solution. However, there is no uptake from either Ben or Kai, and instead both of them gaze at each other, as shown in Figure 7.13. It is not known if the gaze between Ben and Kai in the 1.0 second silence is indicating that they are checking for each other’s understanding or if they are displaying trouble in understanding Amy’s counting or if Ben is extending an invitation for Kai’s co-participation. But as Amy notices the exchange of gazes between Ben and Kai, she keeps her gaze on Ben and demonstrates an opened-palm hand gestures, explicitly displaying her trouble with uttering “ah:: I don’t know (0.1) “how to [say”", which ends in a softer voice (line 16).

At this moment, Ben picks his cup up and as he brings it towards his mouth he halts his movement and produces another ‘try-marked’ candidate word solution (five, which overlaps with Amy’s utterance (line 16-line 17). What follows is a 2.0 second pause during which Amy keeps her gaze on Ben, indicating that she is now inviting Ben to help her in her search sequence. At this moment, Ben keeps holding his cup and keeps his gaze on Amy, showing that he is halting his activity of drinking (Haddington et al., 2014) and engaging in ‘doing thinking’ (Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1994 cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583).

Although Amy extends her invitation towards Ben to assist her in her word search by directing her gaze at Ben, the latter shows no uptake, and thus Kai, who is the non-speaking participant, self-selects himself and takes the next turn to join in the ongoing search. It is interesting to note that at the beginning of the conversation Kai is seen to be engaging in his eating activity. However, he shows himself to be an attentive
listener from line 10 through line 23 by shifting his gaze direction between Ben and onto Amy, showing that he is monitoring their conversation and also observing the exchange of gazes between the two participants. Therefore, when Ben turns to gaze at Kai during the silence in line 15, it is at this point that Kai displays his readiness to co-participate in the ongoing search.

Thus, in line 19, Kai self-selects himself and turns to look at Amy as he produces a possible solution to the ongoing word search by saying “a: lot of money”, and then further says “let’s just say”, possibly to get Amy’s agreement. Amy then shows acceptance and says “↑YAH” in a loud and high-pitched intonation as she brings her gaze to Kai (Figure 7.15). Following the candidate word solution from Kai, Ben displays his agreement as he repeats Kai’s utterance “a lot of money”, which overlaps with Kai’s repetition (line 21-line 22). Following this, both Ben and Amy display a mutual gaze and Amy repeats the candidate solution offered by Kai in a laughing voice, and slightly brings her posture forward (line 23). Hence, as Kai self-selects himself and offers the alternative solution to Amy’s search sequence, the produced phrase is not the actual word that Amy is searching for. However, Kai’s production of the alternative word solution is accepted by Ben and Amy as they display their mutual agreement to conclude that house prices in Hong Kong are expensive and cost “a lot of money.”

In the example provided in this excerpt, it is noticeable how Amy uses her hand movements as supportive devices to assist her in completing her word search and also to gain her recipients’ understanding. Amy demonstrates on numerous occasions that she is providing an explanation in a numerical form from the event of aligning her utterances with similar hand movements as an attempt to negotiate meaning in her word search resolution. Similarly, Ben also displays his co-participation to join in negotiating the meaning of the word searched-for through the display of his embodied action. Thus, Ben’s and Amy’s talk and embodied actions demonstrate in their negotiation for the unavailable word or phrases provide a publicly visual resource for Kai’s joint construction in the ongoing search sequence. Although Kai does not provide the actual word that Amy is searching for, it is observed that the coordination of the talk and embodied action produced by the participants in the talk succeed in conveying the message and content of the topic in the conversation. Thus, the participants progress
with the talk and accept the phrase “a lot of money”, similar to the ‘let it pass’ strategy (Firth, 1996). This is evident as Ben and Amy demonstrate their agreement through repetition and token laughter, showing that they have achieved an understanding (line 19 to line 23).

7.3.2 Embodied Negotiation as Interactional Strategy

Excerpt 16 examines how the participants combine gesture and exploit circumlocution, as well as spelling as an interactional strategy to resolve the word search sequence. The analysis focuses on how participants organise their talk and embodied action as resources to negotiate meaning for the word searched-for. The joint construction in meaning-making is developed as a concept and references that are related to the word searched-for. However, in the process the main speaker displays her negotiation for meaning of the word that she is searching for, and the search sequence is expanded to a longer series as another participant joins in to elicit more information and seek clarification of the trouble source arising in the search sequence.

Excerpt 16: Wax and wasp

(Ann: Vietnam; Mus: Malaysia; Lea: Kazakhstan)

1  ANN: and there were some insect
2       (0.5)
3  ANN: and-
4  MUS: Hahaha
5→ ANN: ya:h so they were having a kind of │like-
6       | (0.8) you know the │wax?
       | ((Ann shifts gaze upwards.))
       | ((Ann brings her hand to her lips and gazes downwards. [Fig. 7.16]))
       | ((Ann makes a cupping hand gesture and gazes at Mus. Mus and Lea gaze at Ann. [Fig. 7.17]))

Figure 7.16

Figure 7.17
7 (0.2)
8 ➔ ANN: uhm (0.6) tch (0.4) it's >kinda like< a:: hh
9     | hone::y er:::
     | ((Both Mus and Ann maintain gazes at each other. Lea turns her gaze upwards. [Fig. 7.18])

Figure 7.18

10 MUS: hone::y,
11 ANN: honey but it's the wax uhm↓
12 MUS: oka:y
13 ANN: | a place that they stay and >I don't know how< to call it?
     | ((Ann brings both hands apart in front of her body as Mus turns to look at Ann's hand gesture. [Fig. 7.19]))

Figure 7.19

14 MUS: yah yah
15 ANN: ya::h↓
16 MUS: |the hone:y co:mb in the:: [mi-
17 LEA: ]]>I didn't< know what insect this?
     | ((Lea shifts her gaze to Ann. Ann turns to gaze at Lea.))
18 19 ANN: | called wax (. ) it's ve:ry like honey but it cannot: produce honey,
     | ((Ann and Lea gaze at each other. Mus puts food into her mouth and gazes at Ann.))
20 21 |
     | ((Lea gazes upwards as Mus gazes at Lea.))
22 MUS: [oh:: ↓]
23 ANN: [like ] bees it | cannot produce produce [wh:y= |
| ((Mus turns to gaze at Lea. Lea frowns. [Fig. 7.20]))

![Figure 7.20](image)

24 MUS: [↑oh:
25 ANN: = it's called wax
26 (0.3)
27 MUS: it's um | >double< you: aye es pee right? |
| ((Mus spells out the word 'wasp' with a pointing gesture and gazes at Ann. Both Lea and Ann gaze at Mus. [Fig. 7.21]))

![Figure 7.21](image)

28 ANN: >yah<
((Mutual gazes between Mus and Ann and Ann smiles.))
29 (0.6)
30 LEA: wasp
((Mutual gazes between Mus and Lea. [Fig. 7.22]))

![Figure 7.22](image)

31 (0.4)
32 MUS: [↑ya::h
33 LEA: [↑oh:: yah [I know that |
| ((Mutual gazes between Mus and Lea. Mus brings her left hand forward and nods once.))

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At the beginning of the excerpt, Ann talks about her visit to the insect exhibition in a museum, and as she begins her telling both Mus and Lea are involved in cutting baklava (a Turkish dessert). However, as Ann talks about her experience (line 5 to line 6) she makes an abrupt stop, shifts her gaze away from Mus, and looks downward as she touches her lips and displays a thinking face (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986) during the 0.8 second pause (as illustrated in Figure 7.16), indicating that she is launching her word search. Following this, Ann offers a try-marked word “wax,” pronounced /waks/ with a rising intonation (line 6) as her candidate solution. When Ann produces her candidate solution to her word search she directs her gaze at Mus as an invitation for her co-participation (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Hayashi, 2003). Produces the word “wax” in a rising intonation indicates that she is seeking Mus’s confirmation (Koshik and Seo, 2012). Co-occurring with her utterance is her hand gestures, which she brings forward towards Mus as she forms a cupping hand gesture, at which Mus halts her activity of cutting the baklava and brings her gaze to Ann, as illustrated in Figure 7.17.

When Ann does not get a response from Mus in the subsequent line (line 7), Ann continues to progress in her word search sequence (line 8). Despite the fact that Ann shows hesitation and makes several pauses in her talk, she also shows that she is not giving up and provides further description of the candidate word produced earlier
through the use of circumlocution, producing associated synonym words (“wax” and “honey”) in expressing meaning for her word search (line 8 – line 9). Furthermore, it is observed that Ann uses similar gestures of cupping her hand when she produces the lexical word “wax,” which she later repeats as she elongates the vowel sound word “hone::y” (line 9), as illustrated in Figure 7.18. At this point, both Ann and Mus have their gazes on each other. At the same moment, Lea moves her gaze away from Ann and turns to look into space and display a thinking character (Figure 7.18).

In the subsequent action, Mus displays herself to be an active participant as she repeats Ann’s circumlocution “hone::y,” (line 10) and provides a minimal token “okay.” Following Mus’s minimal token “okay,” Ann consider Mus’ “okay” as an incomplete solution to the ongoing trouble in understanding the lexical word “wax” (Beach, 1995), and thus Ann continues to provide more description in the following turn. In line 13, Ann brings both of her hands in front of her body with both of her palms slightly apart as she utters “a place that they stay”, and at this moment Mus shifts her gaze towards Ann’s hand movement. Then Ann overtly displays trouble in producing the actual word for her search as she furrows her eyebrows and keeps her gaze on Mus and explicitly says “I don't know how to call it?” in a rising intonation, as shown in Figure 7.19 (line 13).

It can be understood that Ann’s gaze direction, when she explicitly displays her trouble in her search activity, indicates an invitation to Mus to co-participate in the search process. Thus, Mus displays her co-participation as she joins to further negotiate meaning for the unavailable word with Ann in line 13 through line 16. However, in line 16, as Mus begins to share her understanding, her turn overlaps with Lea’s utterance in line 17. At this point, Lea turns to gaze at Ann and interrupts Mus as she displays her trouble in understanding towards Ann, “[>I didn't know what insect this?” (line 17). Notably, Ann, who has made most of her eye contact with Mus from the beginning of the excerpt, now turns to look at Lea when Lea displays her trouble in understanding, and thus Ann begins to align to Lea’s trouble and shows her orientation towards Lea from line 19 through line 25.

Note that when Lea displays her trouble in understanding of the type of insect that Ann is referring to, the search sequence moves on to another phase (i.e. a further
meaning negotiation process). Furthermore, it is also interesting to note that Lea, as the non-speaking participant, shows herself to be an active listener, observable through her embodied actions such as her gaze aversion and body posture.

In line 19 to line 25, Ann turns her body position and directs her gaze towards Lea, describing the insect and recycles her previous use of circumlocution such as “wax” and “honey”. As Ann provides the description, Lea displays a thinking posture as she gazes upwards (line 21), and then she looks downwards to continue cutting the baklava as she listens to Ann’s explanation. Furthermore, in Ann’s explanation, she adds additional information to say that the insects are similar to bees but they cannot produce honey (line 23). Moreover, as Ann provides her description Mus keeps her gaze on Ann and produces a change-of-state token “[oh : ↓]” (line 22) to display noticing, and then Mus produces another change-of-state token “[↑oh]” in a high pitch, indicating that she is displaying understanding (Heritage, 1984).

It can be noted that Lea shows no understanding noticeable through facial gestures, as shown in Figure 7.20. Following this, Mus begins to seek confirmation from Ann as she starts to spells out the word “wax” in line 27, which co-occurs with her pointing gesture into mid-air and also directing her gaze at Ann, as illustrated in Figure 7.21. Furthermore, as Mus spells out the word, both Ann and Lea display their recipiency towards Mus as both keep their gaze on Mus. At the end of Mus’ spelling, Ann provides her acknowledgement and smiles at Mus (line 28), which might indicate that an understanding between her and Mus is reached.

In line 30, Lea keeps her gaze on Mus as she utters “wasp,” which she pronounces /wɔsp/, which is followed by a mutual gaze between her and Mus, as shown in Figure 7.22. Mus confirms Lea’s contribution (line 31), which overlaps with Lea’s utterance as she continues to display her understanding, and Mus gesturally confirms Lea’s understanding when she points an open palm gestures towards Lea and nods once (line 32 - line 33).

It is worth mentioning that in line 13 Ann explicitly displays her trouble searching for the word to describe “a place that they stay”, which is associated with the use of circumlocution as she produces “honey” and “wax”. It can be interpreted that Ann is potentially searching for a word that refers to the insect’s place,
which she refers to as “wax”. However, Mus and Lea display their understanding of the type of insect that Ann is referring to as “wasp”. Therefore, after an understanding is shown by Mus and Lea, Ann then makes a continuation in her search sequence even though the word that she is searching for is related to the place where the insects live (line 34). However, Ann chooses to ‘let it pass’ (Firth, 1996) and decides to progress her talk as she replaces the word searched-for with the placeholder “that” (Hayashi, 2003) as she says “I saw that and I thought it’s whole belong to:: to the:: bee” (line 35-line 38), as illustrated in Figure 7.23.

The examination in this excerpt shows that participants demonstrate collaboration through talk and embodied actions where they express meaning by use of interactional strategies with embodied actions in meaning-making for the unavailable word. Furthermore, it has been shown that the search sequence results in a longer series as all the participants demonstrate a joint construction in a further meaning through embodied negotiation. Even though the speaker’s initial word searched for is not successfully attained, the participants have successfully managed rely on the reference word (wasp) for the unattainable word, which is sufficient to clarify the meaning of the trouble source in order to accomplish mutual understanding.

7.3.3 Embodied Actions as Sufficient Reference

Excerpt 17 examines how participants make the relevance of their talk and embodied actions in building a concept as a sufficient reference to resolve a word search. The segment in below is from the same conversation as Excerpt 16. Preceding this segment, Mus, Lea and Ann were talking about holiday places, and then Ann says that she will avoid going to places like forests due to her experience having bad dreams out of a fear of insects. As Ann begins to describe the insects that she saw in her dreams, she starts to show trouble in her talk (line 1).
Excerpt 17: Krok

(Ann: Vietnam; Mus: Malaysia; Lea: Kazakhstan)

1 → ANN: but - cuz | there's a picture | the::: [I don't know=
| ((Ann gazes at Mus and gestures with her hand. [Fig. 7.24]))
| ((Ann shifts gaze downwards))

Figure 7.24

2 MUS: | °oh::°
| ((Mus gazes at her food))

3 ANN: | =the:: °krok°(0.5) °krok?°
| ((Ann furrows eye brows and gazes at Mus. [Fig. 7.25]))

Figure 7.25

4 (0.9)
5 MUS: the:::
| ((Mus keeps gaze on Ann))

6 ANN: °the kro:k? what's the-°

7 (0.6)

8 MUS: mm:: (0.4) | the krok.
| ((Mus shifts gaze to Lea.))

9 (0.6)
| ((Lea turns to gaze at Ann while both Ann and Mus gaze at each other. [Fig. 7.26]))

Figure 7.26
ANN: I don't know [*ho:w,*
MUS: [oka:y.
ANN: you know where the bro::wn [*ho:w,° I think of
ANN: you know where the bro::wn (0.2) (>HH< I think of
((Ann shifts gaze away from Mus and lifts both shoulders upwards & clasps both hands.))

it I'm already:: ee=
((Ann lifts both shoulders upwards and Lea gazes upwards. [Fig. 7.27]))

Figure 7.27

MUS: =>okay okay<
((Mus moves her posture backwards and waves her hand. [Fig. 7.28]))

Figure 7.28

MUS: [haha ]
ANN: [it's-] I don't know how to spe::ll it
ANN: [it's-] I don't know how to spell it
(0.4)
LEA: [what] is it like?
LEA: [what] is it like?
(0.5)
LEA: the::m.
(Lea gestures with her left-hand fingers. [Fig. 7.29])

Figure 7.29

ANN: it's like ↑bro:wn (. ) it's the insect (. ) it lives for a very lo:ng ti::me.

(1.5)

ANN: it's ve::ry di::rty.

(0.4)

ANN: it rea::lly dirty.

(0.9)

MUS: mm: ↓

((Mus makes disgusted facial gestures while both Lea and Ann gaze at her.))

(0.6)

ANN: I don't know how to say it,

((Lea furrows her brows as she gazes at Mus & lifts her shoulders upwards.))

MUS: Hahaha

ANN: I’m sure you kno::w but any[way

LEA: [ya:h

(0.3)

LEA: [>maybe<]

ANN: [because]of ↑tha:t animal that come (. ) I got really upset with insect

(1.8)

((Lea gulps her drink as her body posture moves upwards & downwards while sitting still. Ann makes a disgusted facial gesture. ))

ANN: that's wh:y I- I- I canno:t vi:sit fo:rest

MUS: ha[hahaha ha ha ]

ANN: [that's my conclu:sion

MUS: HAHA HAHA [haha haha

ANN: [ca:nnot

(0.2)

ANN: forest is the no:::

MUS: HAHAhahaha
In line 1, Ann brings her right hand forward towards Mus and begins gesturing her finger as she gazes at Mus and says “there’s a picture”, as shown in Figure 7.24. Ann keeps her hand gestures in the same position and begins to shift her gaze downwards while she elongates the vowel sound “the:::”, indicating that she is launching her word search, and then she explicitly expresses her trouble by saying “[I don't know=”. When Ann elongates her word “the:::”, Mus, who is gazing downwards at her food, responds in a soft voice with a token response “[oh::: °” (line 2), and Mus response token overlaps with Ann’s end of utterance in line 1. Mus’ change-of-stage response token “oh” could suggest that she is responding to Ann’s informing (Heritage, 1984). Following Ann’s speech perturbation and her explicit trouble displaying her word search, launched in line 1, she continues holding her hand and begins to furrow her eyebrow and say “=the:: °krok°(0.5) °krok?°”, at which point both she and Mus show gaze at each other.

It is observed that as Ann produces the lexical item “krok” she shows uncertainty for her candidate solution, which she has uttered in a softer voice, pauses, and then repeats the word with a rising intonation as she gestures her hands and settles her gaze on Mus (Figure 7.25). A possible explanation for Ann’s production of her candidate solution in a soft voice, a pause, and a rising intonation is her ‘try-marking’ it (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979) and ‘flagging for markedness’ (Firth, 2009).

It is observed that in the long, 0.9 second pause in line 4 both Ann and Mus continue to keep their gaze on each other. In the subsequent line, Mus utters an elongated vowel sound as she says “the:::” (line 5), a speech perturbation indicating that there is trouble in the talk. It is not known if Mus’ indication of trouble is perhaps displaying her uncertainty at Ann’s proposed candidate solution or perhaps seeking clarification from Ann for a possible mishearing. However, as Mus keeps her gaze on Ann, this indicates that she is extending an invitation for Ann to help her (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). As such, in line 6 Ann repeats in a soft voice her candidate solution in an upward intonation as she overtly requests help from Mus with “what is” (equivalent to the use of the formulaic expression “how can I say” and “Wh-” formulation, (see Brouwer, 2003; Jung, 2004).
Following Ann’s repetition of her candidate item and her request for Mus’s co-participation, Mus then repeats the word as she says “the krok” in line 8 and shifts her gaze towards Lea. At this point, Mus gazes at Lea to invite her to co-participate in the search sequence. Therefore, during the pause in line 9, Lea, who is the non-speaking participant, halts her activity of cutting the cake and shifts her gaze to Ann to display her recipiency and to attend to Ann’s word search activity, as shown in Figure 7.26. At the same time, Ann and Mus keep their gazes on each other during the pause in line 9.

As there is no uptake from Mus (line 9), in line 10 Ann explicitly expresses her trouble getting the word in her word search as she says “I don’t know” (0.1) [°hoːw, °], and she keeps her gaze on Mus. Although Ann’s request to Mus to help her in her word search, and also through her explicit trouble expression, Ann tries to gain Mus’ understanding as she begins to use semantic contiguity in which she provides explanation about the unknown word to her recipients (Kurhila, 2006). Thus, Ann keeps her gaze towards Mus and begins describing her word search as she says “you know where the brown”.

However, Ann’s utterance is incomplete as she pauses a moment and then shifts her gaze away from Mus to a downwards direction, clasps both of her hands, and jitters her body as she takes a quick intake of breath “>.HHH<” and says “I think of it I'm already: ee” (line 13 – line 14). As Ann jitters her body again and lifts both of her shoulders upwards, it looks like she shows a feeling of repulsion as she makes and emphasises her vocal sound “ee=”, as shown in Figure 7.27.

At the same moment, Lea turns her gaze away from Ann and brings her gaze upwards, as if displaying a thinking character (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986), as illustrated in Figure 7.27. Following Ann’s expression of repulsion through her non-vocal sound and through her body movement, Mus similarly demonstrates a feeling of repulsion feeling as she jitters her body and waves her hands close to her chest and provides a response “=>okay okay<” (line 15), which latches with Ann’s utterance, as illustrated in Figure 7.28.
It is worth mentioning that Ann’s embodied actions of jittering her body are an enaction of her thoughts and her feeling of repulsion for the unknown insect, which co-occurs with her utterance in line 13 to line 14. Similar embodied actions are then demonstrated by Mus, who appears to show a mutual feeling of repulsion towards the unknown insect (line 15).

When Ann notices that Mus is showing an understanding, she once again expresses her trouble to get the actual word she is searching for as she explicitly says “I don't know how to spell it” (line 18) and keeps her gaze on Mus, possibly indicating that Mus’ co-participation is required at this moment. Even though Mus displays her understanding through her embodied actions (line 15 – line 17), she does not provide any uptake in the following 0.4 second pause in line 19. Following the silence in line 19, in taking the subsequent turn Ann is showing that she is not giving up on her word search. She shifts her gaze to Lea and makes an attempt to resolve her search through initiating spelling (line 20). As Ann spells out the third letter, her utterance overlaps with Lea’s clarification request (line 21). However, Ann does not show an uptake in the 0.5 second silence in line 22, and Lea produces a plural noun word “the:m.” (line 23) with a falling intonation followed by a fingering gesture movement, which is perhaps a reference to the insect (line 24), as illustrated in Figure 7.29. Similar to the previous example (Excerpt 16), a further solution to the word search is also demonstrated in this example, in which the search sequence is extended for further meaning negotiation for the candidate word solution produced in the search sequence.

The following paragraphs analyse the extended search sequences which show that the participants have moved to a next phase (i.e. further meaning negotiation for the candidate word solution). To ease readability the transcripts provided below are from part of the segments in Excerpt 17 (line 25 - line 51).

25  ANN: it's like ↑bro::wn (.) it's the insect (.) it lives
26          for a very lo::ng ti::me.
27 (1.5)
28  ANN: it's ve::ry di::rty.
29 (0.4)
30  ANN: it rea::lly dirty.
31 (0.9)
32 MUS: mm: ↓
((Mus makes disgusted facial gestures while both Lea and Ann gaze at her. [Fig. 7.30 ]))

Figure 7.30

33 (0.6)
34 ANN: I don't know how to say it,
((Lea furrows her brows as she gazes at Mus & lifts her shoulders upwards. [Fig. 7.31 ]))

Figure 7.31

35 MUS: Hahaha
36 ANN: I'm sure you know but any[way
37 LEA: [ya:h
38 (0.3)
39 LEA: [>maybe<]
40 ANN: [because]of that animal that come(.) I got
41 really upset with insect
42 (1.8)
((Lea gulps her drink as her body posture moves upwards & downwards while sitting still. Ann makes a disgusted facial gesture. [Fig. 7.32 ]))

Figure 7.32

43 ANN: that's why I-- I-- I cannot visit forest
44 MUS: ha[ha ha ha ha]
Following the gestural movement demonstrated by Lea (line 24), Ann begins provides more description about her candidate solution produced earlier, something known as “exploiting the use of semantic contiguity” (Kurhila, 2006). Ann turns her gaze to Lea and produces relevant descriptive characteristics related to the word search from line 25 through line 30. She describes “krok” as “it's like ↑brown”, “it's the insect”, and “it lives for a very long time” (line 25 – line 26). Following this is an extended silence of 1.5 seconds (line 27) and Lea shows no response, indicating her non-understanding. Ann thus provides more description, saying “it's very dirty” (line 28) and repeats the fourth characteristic with emphasis “it really dirty” (line 30). Again, Lea shows no response (0.9 seconds, line 31), and Ann then turns to gaze at Mus to check if Mus shows any understanding.

However, as Mus returns her gaze to Ann she shows uncertainty with a frowning facial expression as she responds with “mm: ↓” in a lower pitch (Figure 5.30, line 32). Following the 0.6 second silence (line 33), both Lea and Ann exchange glances and express uncertainty through their facial expressions displaying confusion and lifting their shoulders to indicate lack of knowledge. Furthermore, as Mus and Lea shrug their shoulders their embodied actions co-occur with Ann’s explicit trouble providing the actual word for her search as she says “I don’t know how to say it,” which ends with a slight rising intonation (Figure 7.31, line 34).

Mus demonstrates token laughter (line 35) to defuse the situation, thereby mitigating her effort (Holt, 2012) to help Ann in proposing a candidate solution for the actual word in Ann’s word search. Eventually, due to their inability to figure out the name of the insect that Ann is referring to as “krok”, Ann then decides to progress with her talk and utters “I’m sure you know but any[way]” (line 36), and continues
with “[because] of ↑that: animal that come(.) I got really upset with insect” (line 40 – line 41). At this point, Ann chooses to ‘let it pass’ (Firth, 2009) and resolves her word search through the use of the demonstrative pronoun “that” as a placeholder (Hayashi, 2003) and the use of the noun “animal” to refer to the insect that she is afraid of.

What follows is a long, 1.8 second silence (line 42) in which Lea lifts her cup to her mouth and sips her tea, moving her body posture in upward and downward motion to show repulsion, indicating her response to Ann’s utterance in line 40 to line 41 (i.e. when Ann says how the unknown insect affects her). Lea’s body movement shows that she is making her thinking process visible to her recipients (Hayashi et al., 2013), as illustrated in Figure 7.32. At the same moment, Ann makes a disgusted facial expression, also as shown in Figure 7.32.

In line 43, Ann makes a closure to her topic, and thus ends her word search sequence by uttering “that's wh:y I- I- I canno:t vi:sit fo:rest”, which she provides as her justification for the unattainable word for the insect which she refers to as “that animal”. Ann concludes her topic by expressing how she does not favour forests as a holiday destination. This is then followed by Mus’s laughter and Ann’s confirmation about visiting forest and the smiles from Lea and Ann, which indicate they have reached a mutual understanding (line 44 – line 51).

The examination in this excerpt has shown that although the actual word is not achieved in the long sequence the participants make use of multimodal resources in making sense of the word search-for in the word search practices. The embodied negotiation demonstrated by the participants in meaning-making results in a longer series of search sequences. It is notable that the embodied negotiation demonstrated by the participants through the use of semantic contiguity, embodied thinking (i.e. making thinking process visible), embodied negotiation and embodied movement in enacting the insect’s name somehow managed to build a concept to establish a sufficient reference about the word searched-for, thus resolving their understanding in the search sequence. Thus, the references built through the use of talk and embodied actions have enabled Ann to progress in her talk, serving to achieve intersubjectivity.
7.4 Summary

This chapter has examined word search sequences from an L2-L2 conversation over dinner, in which it is not necessary for the participants to get the actual word to resolve their word search for them to move on towards progressivity in the conversation. It was shown that the participants organise their talk and embodied action as resources for collaborative accomplishment and achieving understanding.

Without getting the actual word, the collaborative word search resolution examined in this chapter includes the current speaker making a preference for self-completion by collaborating in talk and embodied actions as a resource in the word search activity. The examination has shown that the speakers applied creative ways to produce language forms, known as word coinage (e.g. big fry) and the use of demonstrative pronouns such as “that” as placeholders, and also employed hand gestures, gaze and body posture as supporting devices in resolving the word search sequences.

The analyses in this chapter have also demonstrated that participants establish multimodal joint work to negotiate and co-operate to accomplish understanding in extended word search sequences. Instances in this chapter of the multimodal joint construction in resolving word search sequences without having to produce the actual word have shown that conjoined participation is significant in establishing intersubjectivity. In doing so, the participants collaboratively construct talk and embodied actions: (1) in negotiating meaning-making; (2) as multimodal interaction strategy in meaning representation, and; (3) in building concepts as sufficient references.

It has thus been shown that getting the actual word is not necessarily required to resolve a word search. It could be argued that participants apply various methods, such as coordinating their talk and embodied actions, which show them as innovative and resourceful language users in the resolution of the word search sequence.
Chapter 8. Discussion

8.1 Introduction

Although there is a growing interest in CA studies that include the roles of multimodal resources to study social interaction, there is relatively little documentation of work focused on: (1) how spoken language and embodied actions are associated with word searches; (2) the interactional dynamics of L2 users outside formal educational settings, and; (3) how informal conversation is carried out between L2 users who do not share same mother tongue. Therefore, the point of departure for this study was an attempt to redress these noticeable gaps in the Second Language Interaction (SLI) research.

Using multimodal CA as an approach (Mortensen, 2013), this study has investigated L2 interaction among international university students socialising beyond the classroom setting (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Wagner, 2004; Firth and Wagner, 2007), in the ‘wild’ (Theodórsdóttir, 2011; Wagner, 2015), and in an everyday situations (Theodórsdóttir, 2011). The purpose of the study was to explicate the following research questions:

1) How are talk and embodied actions mobilised by L2 participants to manage their relevant participation in word searches?
2) How do recipients utilise a speaker’s projective talk and embodied actions to achieve a collaborative solution in word search?
3) How are talk and embodied actions deployed by L2 participants to maintain and restore intersubjectivity in situations in which the L2 participants do not find the targeted searched-for word?

Through a close investigation of talk and embodied actions in L2 interaction, this study has shed light on ways in which word search sequences are organised, developed, and jointly accomplished in a multiparty interaction amongst L2 speakers from diverse first language backgrounds. In relation to the three research questions and through the detailed analysis of the data, six salient themes emerging from the analysis were found to be meaningful aspects of the interaction and can be explored for further
discussion. These themes are: (1) the interactional phenomenon of a ‘word search’; (2) resources that are recognised as opportunities for co-participation; (3) joint solutions by non-speaking participant; (4) meaning-making through embodied interaction; (5) achieving mutual understanding through embodied negotiation, and; (6) language use or learning in the wild.

Each of the themes will be discussed with relevance to the existing literature on second language studies and in the field of applied linguistics as presented in Chapter 2, and thus the discussion of this study’s findings and recommendations for further research are considered in turn in the following sections.

8.2 The Interactional Phenomenon of Word-Searches

Interaction in face-to-face situations is multimodal, in which people do not only use verbal resources but also use gaze, gestures, facial expression, posture, spatial resources (Streeck et al., 2011; Heath and Luff, 2013; Mondada, 2013; Hazel and Mortensen, 2014; Hazel et al., 2014; Mondada, 2016a, 2016b), and also manipulate various objects (Hazel, 2014; Hazel and Mortensen, 2014; Nevile et al., 2014). Therefore, a prominent feature of the present study has been the identification of situations in which L2 participants work together to resolve the search sequence even though they do not attain the actual word. It is evident from the analyses that participants work together to resolve the search sequence in ‘interactive’ and ‘sophisticated’ ways, and this shows that communication is multimodal in which meaning-making is not achieved using the ‘words’, ‘language’ alone (Canagarajah, 2007). As such, communication in the L2 entails the coordination of a range of diverse multimodal resources, semiotic resources (Firth, 2009), and these semiotic resources are pervasive in the accomplishment of ongoing, situated action (Goodwin, 2013).

It can be drawn from the present data in this study that the L2 participants do not only rely on verbal but also non-verbal actions, such as silence, intonation, gaze, gestures, head nods, facial expression, body posture, and manipulation of objects. These multimodal resources deployed by participants in the search sequence are significant as interactional resources for the accomplishment of social and interactional practices (Seo, 2011; Hazel and Mortensen, 2014; Hazel et al., 2014). It is also worth
noting that L2 participants rely on these various multimodal resources for meaning-making and thus, in a conjoined manner, they work together to describe, to explain and to enact meaning for the unavailable word in the organisation of word-searching. Eventually, through the organisation of a multiparty collaborative solution to word-searching, the participants manage to reach an understanding and progress in the talk although they do not produce the actual word searched-for.

A significant implication that arises from this study is that the very name of the interactional phenomenon ‘word search’ could be a misnomer. *The term ‘word search’ is too fixated and too focused on a conventional idea.* It constraints us into a certain paradigm of thinking, the mentality that is fixated that searching for ‘word’ is about information transfer. Such as in doing a word search in communication strategy, people are doing word search because they want to get the information across and also it focusses much on ‘transactional focus’, instead of ‘interactional focus’. There is no doubt that ‘language’, ‘words’ are important, and studies have shown that ‘language’, ‘words’ in second language acquisition are crucial in the development of second language conversation as well as developing language learning opportunities (e.g., Brouwer, 2003; Brouwer, 2004). However, this study shows that L2 communication processes are not restricted to a focus on spoken ‘language,’ as there is a huge range of embodied actions which are made relevant to the interaction and which are demonstrated by the L2 participants.

One potential reason for the inaccuracy of understanding the term ‘word search’ is that through the detailed investigation of moment-by-moment word search sequences of the L2 interactional event, the participants do not necessarily search for *words*. It was noticed that the L2 participants jointly searches for objects other than words such as a search for a reference or a concept, or recognition of feelings. Such as in Excerpt 17 “Krok” where the L2 participants perform multimodal resources, semiotic resources in the word search sequences. However, due to having difficulty expressing and searching for the references or concepts, they make them recognisable through meaning-making which is embodied. As Fischer and Coello (2016) pointed out, “abstract concepts such as space, quantity, movement and time have become crucial dimensions of our understanding of any interactions with our physical or social environment” (p. 1). Thus, a *combination* of spoken language and embodied actions are resources deployed by L2
participants to achieve a collaborative solution of the ongoing search (Hayashi, 2003; Laakso, 2015).

Furthermore, the data also shows that the L2 word search is a multiparty phenomenon in which participants work together to negotiate meaning and in which meaning-making is not limited to words alone. Meaning is multimodal; people communicate in much more than language alone by using gestures, postures, facial expression, postures, movements, physical arrangement and material environment to apprehend meaning (Blommaert and Rampton, 2012). Therefore, meaning-making in word search can be submitted through the coordination of spoken language and embodied actions.

Indeed, studies of human interaction, such as language in use, are multimodal; they are constructed multiple semiotic resources, multimodal resources (e.g., Mondada, 2012; Goodwin, 2013; Seyfeddinipur and Gullberg, 2014; Mondada, 2016a, 2016b). Hence, L2 communication involves the coordinated use of different multimodal resources, and to restrict the focus to ‘word’, ‘language’ would restrict it and prevent it from exploring the complex reality of real communication processes (Firth, 2009). In real communication, it takes more than just a focus on language to understand how language use works, specifically, as in this study, interaction between participants who have different background and thus use English as a lingua franca. As Seyfeddinipur and Gullberg (2014) claimed, “language use is fundamentally multimodal” (p. 1)

The role of gestures within the evolution of language has engaged researchers over many years in the fields of linguistics, applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, and psychology, as well as in second language studies (e.g., Kendon, 1972; McCafferty and Stam, 2009; Blommaert and Rampton, 2012; Seyfeddinipur and Gullberg, 2014; Kusters et al., 2017). In a paper written by Kusters et al. (2017), it was argued that language repertoires are in fact multimodal and embodied, and thus they suggested a shift to understanding language use through the lens of semiotic repertoires as this will allow for a richer understanding of language use for meaning-making. As Blommaert and Rampton (2012) pointed out, people communicate in a variety of modes to make sense of their surroundings, such face-to-face interaction, online interaction, using
mobile phone, written language, images, and many more, compelling us to expand our view of language to go beyond from spoken ‘words’ to encompass ‘multimodal’.

Therefore, what I am proposing is that in the investigation into the interactional phenomenon of word search in L2 interaction, focussing on finding the ‘words’ alone can potentially constitute a mind-set fixated on spoken language. Scholars have put forth a criticism on the generalisation thinking prevalent in much of SLA research, such as L2 user is perceived as learner and L2 speakers encounter problems in talk is seen as deficient communicator (e.g. Firth and Wagner, 1997). Likewise, the term ‘word search’ imposes a certain way of understanding action as it sets the attention that the study of word search is about finding ‘words’ and ‘sentences’. Such as in this study, there are much more than just spoken language. The reason for this is that in real communication people do not only rely on ‘words’, ‘language’ in word searching. On the contrary, they also rely on resources such as rhythm, pause, intonation, gaze, gestures, facial expression, object manipulation and the physical activities in the setting, resources which are considered as multimodal, a “whole series of complexly linked behaviours including language” (Thrift, 2008, p. 157).

Adding another layer - the inclusion of multimodal resources mobilised by participants as interaction unfolds over time - will enrich and broaden our understanding of the correlation between spoken language and embodied dimensions in L2 interaction. This study on word search in L2 interaction has shown that, despite being L2 users of English, participants demonstrated that they can accomplish collaborative solutions through using talk and embodied actions as resources (Hayashi, 2003; Streeck et al., 2011) and manipulation of objects such as a mobile phone (Hazel, 2014) for meaning-making.

One example, Excerpt 17 “Krok” (Chapter 7) demonstrated the conjoined participation of all the L2 speakers. Even though the L2 participants do not share a common first language, in this example they showed how their interlocutors’ talk and embodied actions are made relevant in the attempt to reach an understanding. One used body posture to show feeling of repulsion (Figure 8.1), and the other used a hand wave and jittered her body to display similar feelings of repulsion (Figure 8.2), while the third party used finger gestures to represent a crawling movement (Figure 8.3). Thus, in the
essence of exploiting the embodied resources in this example, the use of embodiment in conjunction with the explanation and description provided shared resources in making-meaning for the unknown candidate item “krok”. Each participant appears to monitor and observe their interlocutors’ responses from how they say, describe, and enact for the unknown word “krok”.

![Figure 8.1: Jitters body movement](image1)

Figure 8.1: Jitters body movement

![Figure 8.2: Waves hand and jitters body](image2)

Figure 8.2: Waves hand and jitters body

![Figure 8.3: Gesturing crawling movement](image3)

Figure 8.3: Gesturing crawling movement
The data shows the interactional evidence on how participants work together by making sense of the shared resources that are embodied, and these resources turn to be sufficient to build the concept of the ambiguity of the word “krok,” which refers to the ‘disgusting’ brown insect. Although the L2 participants do not acquire the actual searched-for word, they demonstrate themselves to be creative language users by deploying various multimodal resources to achieve mutual understanding and progress the talk.

Therefore, through its investigation on the relationship between talk and multimodal resources, semiotic resources, the implications of these findings suggest that in the interactional practices of a ‘word search’ in an L2 interaction, the use of language in talk is fundamentally multimodal. It is evident from the data that the participants do not necessarily attain the actual ‘word’ in the search sequence. The participants mobilised the use of multimodal resources, semiotic resources in a collaborative manner to construct and build concepts as sufficient references in resolving the search sequence and achieving intersubjectivity. In so doing, the embodied negotiation to build the concept for understanding comprised the use of language, gestures, gaze, body posture, body movement, surroundings and material objects, all of which together form unique ‘multimodal gestalts’ (Mondada, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). This concept invites us to consider that language and talk as fundamentally embodied (Mondada, 2016a). Furthermore, the interactive use of spoken language and embodied actions, mutually built in concert, have become significant resources for the accomplishment of a joint solution (Hayashi, 2005).

The observations from the analyses reveal a crucial understanding of the increasing contact between how language and communication work among L2 users from multilingual or bilingual communities (Canagarajah and Wurr, 2011). In light of interaction among L2 users who do not share the same mother tongue, Canagarajah and Wurr (2011) stated that participants do not interrupt the flow of communication when there is trouble in talk; in fact, they work to complement each other in the talk, to enable and to offer possibilities or opportunities to construct meaning. It is evident that the L2 speakers achieved successful communication and were able to demonstrate negotiation, as well as achieve intersubjectivity through the use of interactional strategies, ‘let it pass’ and ‘make it normal’ (Firth, 1996). However, further emic studies of social
interaction in second language contexts are required to investigate the reach of this phenomena.

8.3 Recognising Opportunity for Co-Participation

The use of talk and embodied actions in the accomplishment of word searches prove to be a useful resource for the L2 participants in this study to organise relevant action for collaboration and to reach a mutual understanding. Based on the findings of this study, I found that the word search sequences shared common similarities to how the word searches are proceeding. The word search sequences can be indicated with speech perturbations, hesitations, stretched word sounds, cut-off words, repetition, or pauses at the mid-turn of the current speaker’s turn. Furthermore, the embodied actions that preceded the ongoing word search, such as the aversion of speaker’s gaze, a tapping hand movement, thinking posture, and shifting body postures, are also crucial resources shown in the data. However, for a collaborative word search to happen, an opportunity for co-participation had to be offered.

Thus, it is worth noting to know where the opportunity for co-participation could take place. The study shows that many of the word search cases in the data demonstrated that the current speaker has displayed a speech perturbation in the unfolding turn, which is then followed by shifting his or her gaze away from a recipient and then returning the gaze back to the recipient. Furthermore, through the detailed analyses of co-participant occurrences in the present data, the different ways of embodied participation framework presented between the L2 speakers are necessary to enhance our knowledge of word search organisation. Gaze was found to be the most significant resource in managing participation. For example, shifting the gaze away from recipients can indicate the speaker’s engagement in a ‘solitary search’ (see also, Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986) or ‘doing thinking’ (Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1994 as cited in Brouwer, 2003, p. 583). Likewise, a speaker directing his or her gaze onto a recipient can indicate an invitation for co-participation.

Yet much more than gaze becomes a resource for co-participation to happen. On the contrary, a whole range of multimodal resources, semiotic resources are displayed in the speaker’s ongoing word search that provide significant interactional
resources for another participant to recognise as an opportunity for co-participation to achieve multimodal completion (Mondada, 2015). In so doing, the speaker’s talk, gaze, gestures, body posture, intonation and movement are valuable resources that other participants should closely attend to in a word search sequence. Thus, it was found that it was the speaker’s talk and embodied actions that the recipients utilise as valuable resources “to achieve precisely timed entry into the search-in-progress” (Hayashi, 2003, p. 114)

From the analysis in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6, eight instances in which co-participation in a word search have occurred were found (e.g., see Excerpt 1 “Tsim Tsa Tsui”, Excerpt 2 “Dessert or desert”, Excerpt 3 “Blessings”, Excerpt 7 “North Korea”, Excerpt 8 “Legs”, Excerpt 10 “Folklore”, Excerpt 11 “Hu Jin Tao” and Excerpt 12 “Double decker”). However, the speaker’s request for help is not immediate, as the findings in the present data showed that at the onset of a word search the speaker demonstrates a preference for making a self-repair, such as in this study, the participants are searching for words, phrases, references or a concept that are momentarily not yet available (Schegloff et al., 1977). The self-repair preference could be identified when the speaker shifts the gaze downwards, tilts the head down, covers parts of the face, closes the eyes, or positions the body posture away to show disengagement from the recipients. Furthermore, when observing the embodied actions demonstrated by the speaker doing the search, the recipients do not commonly interfere. Instead, the data shows that the recipients gave space and time for the speaker to make a self-repair or a self-resolution (e.g. see Figure 5.3 in Excerpt 1 “Tsim Tsa Tsui”, Chapter 5).

However, the findings in this study also revealed that in an occasion where the speakers were unavailable to produce the target word searched-for, they offered an invitation for co-participation. The invitation to join a collaborative word search was recognised through speaker’s gaze direction onto a particular recipient while producing a ‘try-marked’ word as a candidate solution that was uttered in a rising intonation (e.g., see Excerpt 1 “Tsim Tsa Tsui”, Excerpt 2 “Dessert or desert” and Excerpt 11 “Hu Jin Tao”). Likewise, the recipients responded by providing help upon recognising the speaker’s gaze and candidate solution in a rising intonation as an indication to seek for confirmation or correction (Koshik and Seo, 2012). Furthermore, co-participation could also take place through the speaker’s gaze, along with an explicit word search marker of
a wh-question to request the target word (e.g., see Excerpt 3 “Blessings”, and Excerpt 12 “Double decker”). Thus, the explicit word search marker (e.g., “what is it called?”) with a gaze directed at a specific participant was observed as a direct invitation for co-participation (Oelschlaeger, 1999; Oelschlaeger and Damico, 2000; Kurhila, 2006; Park, 2007).

Therefore, it was found that an opportunity for a co-participant collaborative entry could be determined through recognising gestures and other coordinated resources, such as speech perturbations, stretched word sounds, pauses, and gazes. For example, the analysis in Excerpt 8 “Legs” (Chapter 6) showed that Amy began her telling by using hand gestures to build up the event. The demonstration of Amy’s gestures are ‘not just there’, but they are ‘worthy of attention’ in her emerging turn (Streeck, 1993). Hence, at the onset of Amy’s word search, Amy used her hands, arms and elbows to graphically present body parts, such as her “leg” (Figure 8.4). However, due to the difficulty producing the target word for “leg”, Amy’s choreographed hand gestures and gaze direction to the Ben indicated the invitation for Ben to join in the word search. Amy’s hand gestures are similar to what Streeck (2009a) called ‘forward-gesturing,’ in which Amy’s projected gestures gave a provisional sense of what is coming in her next turn, enabling others to anticipate the trajectory of an action. It was then through perceiving these multimodal resources that semantic representations and conceptual knowledge in language (Fischer and Coello, 2016) that triggers the opportunity for Ben’s co-participation and also for Ben to project a collaborative solution to Amy’s ongoing word search were provided.

![Figure 8.4: Lifting elbow upwards as a visual representation of “leg”](image)
Previous studies, the role of gaze and gesture are significant in the activity of word searches such as an invitation for a co-participant to join in the search activity (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Nonetheless, unanticipated findings were also discovered in this study. There were occurrences when recipients proffered an anticipatory word solution to the speaker’s ongoing word search even when there was no invitation, verbal or non-verbal (i.e., gaze), from the speaker (e.g., see Excerpt 4 “bend screen” and Excerpt 5 “the fire” of Chapter 5). The proffered anticipatory word solution by the recipient can be considered as an attempt at a ‘try-marked’ word (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979). One possible explanation for the recipient making a ‘try-marked’ word could be the recipient’s observation and monitoring of the speaker’s gestures at the onset of the word search, as shown below (Figure 8.5). Furthermore, as revealed in the analysis in Excerpt 4 “bend screen” (Chapter 5), no gaze direction was displayed by the speaker towards the recipient. However, the findings suggest that the coordination of the speaker’s talk, hand gestures, and the use of an object (e.g., mobile phone) were identified and recognised by the recipient as an invitation to co-participate in the speaker’s word search activity. Furthermore, the dynamic coordination of the speaker’s talk, body resources and manipulation of an object were recognised as valuable interactional resources for the recipient when making an attempt to anticipate a word solution.

![Figure 8.5: Curving gestures around the object](image)

Moreover, the speaker’s graphical hand movement around the object (Hazel, 2014), as shown in Figure 8.5, provided a visible graphic display that was recognisable for the recipient to trigger an anticipatory word solution (Ikeda, 2007; Streeck, 2009a; Streeck and Jordan, 2009). Thus, the manipulation of objects in the search sequence
contributed opportunities for negotiation between the participants (Hazel and Mortensen, 2014). Nevertheless, Lerner (2004) has also stated that an anticipatory completion could be accepted or rejected by the speaker. Thus the data shows that the examples in Excerpt 4 “bend screen” (Chapter 5) and Excerpt 5 “the fire” (Chapter 5) resulted in the current speaker disregarding the proffered anticipatory completion. A possible explanation for disregarding the proffered anticipatory solution might be that although the speaker launched a word search, being the first speaker gave him or her the authority to decide whether to accept and acknowledge the word provided. Furthermore, since the word produced by the recipient was not the searched-for word, the speaker continued to demonstrate a preference to make a self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977).

The observation from these analyses reveal that in the L2 interaction, a recipient does not necessarily rely on gaze direction from a speaker for an invitation to join in a word search. The opportunities for co-participants’ anticipatory completion are recognised through other interactional resources, such as the coordination of speaker’s talk and the use of object that produce the invitation (i.e., Figure 8.5), in which the “gesticulating movements make the emergence of turn visible for the participants and hence contribute their reflexive achievement” (Mondada, 2015, p.272, italic as original).

8.4 Joint Solution by Non-Speaking Participant

Previous studies have shown that a speaker seeks help by giving a direct invitation to an addressed recipient to join in a word search (e.g., Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Kurhila, 2006; Brouwer, 2003; Hosoda, 2006). However, in this study of multiparty conversation, the results showed that speaker did not only seek assistance from an addressed recipient in the ongoing word search but also from other participants in the interaction. It is worth noting that a non-speaking participant could also play a crucial role in the way the interaction unfolds. The findings demonstrated that interactional resources do not only trigger an opportunity for the addressed participant to make a collaborative entry, but also for non-speaking participation for a collaborative completion (Bolden, 2003; Bolden, 2011). On occasions when a third person joins in a repair organisation and makes an attempt to resolve a problem of understanding (called
‘brokering’), this third person’s involvement is to act as an intermediate between the other participants (Bolden, 2011; Bolden, 2012; Greer, 2015).

As mentioned in Chapter 2, in word search occurrences participants need to renegotiate their understanding before they resume the previous action that was momentarily stopped (Schegloff et al., 1977). However, many of the word search sequences in the present data were resolved in several turns that led to a longer sequence of word searches, which could involve negotiation and further explanation to achieve intersubjective understanding. Furthermore, the L2 participants mobilised a range of multimodal resources in creative ways for negotiation and getting the meaning across until an understanding was accomplished, even though the search sequence lasted over a longer series of action (Egbert et al., 2004).

Furthermore, the data also revealed that the non-speaking participant did not only attend to provide a further repair work to the word search but also stepped in to broker by addressing the further solution to the search sequence, thus assisting the speaker’s ongoing word search. The role of the non-speaking participants found in this study was to assist other participants’ understanding or to work together with all participants to achieve intersubjectivity (e.g., see Excerpt 5 “The fire” and Excerpt 6 “Disney movie” of Chapter 5; Excerpt 10 “Folklore” and excerpt 11 “Hu Jin Tao” in Chapter 6; Excerpt 15 “A lot of money” and Excerpt 16 “Wax or wasp” in Chapter 7). A reason for the success of the resolution to the word search endeavour was shown through the co-participants’ willingness, effort and endurance to employ a range of embodied resources in multifaceted ways to resort and restore mutual understanding (Egbert et al., 2004).

Another striking feature of the word search sequences found in the joint solution by a non-speaking participant was that the word search sequences observed in this study were not word searches in themselves. Rather, they were second phases for a further solution to the word search sequence pattern, which resulted in an extended word search sequence. For example, in Excerpt 5 “The fire” (Chapter 5), the addressed recipient demonstrated a non-understanding to the target word solution produced by the current speaker, and thus the word search moved on to a second part of the word search
sequence, which was targeted for a further solution or further repair work to resolve the word search.

The findings in the data also reveal that instead of the speaker who initiated the word search delivering the explanation for the target word provided, the third person, who was a non-speaking participant, stepped in to provide the further solution. Moreover, the joint solution by the non-speaking participant demonstrated a shifting participation from being co-present to co-participant, which was significant in achieving a further solution to the word search sequence. To give an overview of the shifting participation movement of the non-speaking participant, a series of still images is provided below (Figure 8.6). The images show the embodied movement of the non-speaking participant’s (Kai) shifting participation, in which he was initially involved in another activity (e.g., eating) before moving to a joint solution in the word search sequence (e.g., see Excerpt 5 “The fire”, in Chapter 5).

Figure 8.6: Kai’s shifting participation from co-present to co-participant
The detailed account of the non-speaking participant making his relevant participation from co-present to co-participant in the multiparty interaction involved “a range of quite different kinds of alignment toward the current utterance” (Streeck et al., 2011, p. 6). Therefore, the joint solution in this study’s data was found to be due to the non-speaking participant recognising an opportunity through interactional multimodal resources that were made accessible, such as the talk and the hand gestures of other participants. Although the non-speaking participant was engaged in an eating activity with occasional gazes towards the participants, he eventually demonstrated himself to be an active listener. As Streeck et al. (2011) argued, participation in interaction is a temporally unfolding, interactively organised activity in which participants collaboratively work together to sustain the embodied participant framework in interaction. Thus, the co-participation of the non-speaking participant could have resulted from monitoring both the current speaker and the addressed recipient’s talk and observing the shifting gazes between them.

The non-speaking participant stepped in and aligned himself with the particular co-participant to offer a solution to the word search sequence as a way to achieve mutual understanding. A similar example was also presented in Excerpt 10 “Folklore” (Chapter 5), in which a non-speaking participant who was displaying listenership then demonstrated a shift participation from being co-present to co-participant (Mortensen and Hazel, 2014). The joint solution to the word search turned out to be a multiparty activity as it was revealed in the data that the shifting participation of the non-speaking participant to join in the word search was through recognising the recurring gaze direction movements by the current speaker during the 1.7 second silence (line 5, Excerpt 10) as form of invitation (Greer, 2013).

Hence, there are similarities between the talk, gaze and gestures for the organisation of participation and the accomplishment of word searches in this study (e.g., see Excerpt 5 “The fire” and Excerpt 6 “Disney movie” of Chapter 5; Excerpt 10 “Folklore” and excerpt 11 “Hu Jin Tao” in Chapter 6; Excerpt 15 “A lot of money” and Excerpt 16 “Wax or wasp” in Chapter 7) with those described by Goodwin and
Firstly, participants mutually organised their ‘participation’ to accomplish a word search and achieve mutual understanding through the use of multimodal resources (Mondada, 2015). Secondly, even though the non-speaking participant was seen to be involved in a multiactivity (i.e. eating), he/she was found to be demonstrating listenership and monitoring another participants’ talk through shifting his/her gaze between the current speaker and the addressed recipient. Finally, it was shown that the non-speaking participant joined the current speaker’s word search to co-construct in the ongoing search sequence and provided help for another participant to reach an understanding. As Firth and Wagner (1997, 2007) argued, interaction and communication are per definition conjointly and publicly produced. Therefore, the involvement of non-speaking participants in resolving the word search sequence found in this study offers an understanding of how participation is dynamic and interactive in multiparty interaction (Goodwin, 2007a; Greer, 2013; Laakso, 2015).

8.5 Meaning-Making through Embodied Interaction

The joint activity of co-participants in the word searches of the addressed recipient (Section 8.3) and non-speaking participant (Section 8.4) have been discussed above. This section expands the discussion to the joint activity in word searches that feature the involvement of all the participants building action together as meaning-making practices through embodied interaction to resolve the search sequence.

This study has observed that some of the data analysed showed occasions where L2 participants have difficulty in producing the word searched-for. However, findings revealed that, although the L2 participants do not find the actual word searched-for, they negotiate and co-jointly manage the interactional practices of word searches through the use of talk, gestures and the use of object to achieve intersubjectivity and moving towards progressivity in the talk. From the data, the participants coordinate the use of talk, body resources and manipulation of objects as valuable resources to construct meaning for the word searched-for (e.g. Excerpt 4 “Bend Screen”). It was found that the speaker’s talk and hand movements on an object (i.e., mobile phone) that was
brought forward towards the recipient showed how gestures may be ‘exposed’ (Streeck, 1993), such as making the object as an attention during the search sequences and thus, the use of the object produced as an invitation for co-participation.

The phenomenon in meaning-making through the use of embodied resources indicated that the word search is an individual experience which could be resolved through making a preference for self-completion (Schegloff et al., 1977) or a shared experience through a conjoined participation (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Lerner, 1993). In making a preference for a self-completion in word searches, two instances were found in the data (Excerpt 13 “Big fry” and Excerpt 14 “Just like this”, in Chapter 7) that showed the speaker embodying metaphoric gestures of cupping the left hand for the searched-for word “small fry” (e.g., see Figure 8.7 below). Importantly, it was also seen that the interactional strategy was also employed to reclaim understanding, such as embodying the word coinage “big fry” by demonstrating beat gestures (e.g., see Figure 8.8 below).

![Figure 8.7: Cupping gesture embodying “small fry”](image)

![Figure 8.8: Bring cupping gesture upwards embodying “big fry”](image)
It was also seen in the data that the speaker mobilised the use of language and gestures during moment although not able to find the actual word in the search sequence. As described in Hayashi’s (2003) study of Japanese interaction, on occasions where the speaker had word-finding trouble in the ongoing turn the speaker deployed the use of placeholders (e.g., *are* for “that one” and *asako* for “that place”) to index the domain of the word searched-for. Similar cases were also found in the data in which the L2 speaker used the demonstrative pronoun “this” as a placeholder to replace the unavailable word and phrases in the ongoing utterance (e.g., Excerpt 14 “Just like this”). However, it was also noticeable that the speaker or initiator of the word search demonstrated the use of gaze and gestures, which served as embodied completion (Olsher, 2004).

Furthermore, the gaze and hand gestures were ‘exposed’ through the coordination with the speech (Streeck, 1993; Streeck and Jordan, 2009), such as the word “this”. Thus, the combination use of placeholders to index the word searched-for (Hayashi, 2003) and embodied completion (Olsher, 2004) in the search sequence were understood to display the thinking process as “visible” (Hayashi *et al*., 2013). For instance, the image below (Figure 8.9), taken from Excerpt 14 “Just like this” (Chapter 7), demonstrates that the speaker mobilised talk, gaze and gestures that were finely coordinated with the speaker’s telling in an interactive and sophisticated way as the affordance for intersubjective meaning-making (Blommaert and Rampton, 2012).

![Figure 8.9: Circulating gestures around wrist + placeholder “this”](image)
On occasions when the word was difficult to produce, the findings in this study show that the participants work together in longer sequence to negotiate meaning for the unattainable word even though this results in a longer interruption to the talk (Egbert et al., 2004). It is worth noticing that the findings showed a collaborative word search that was embodied in the form of negotiation through the use of spoken language and embodied action or, in short, embodied negotiation (e.g., Excerpt 15 “a lot of money”, Excerpt 16 “wax or wasp” and Excerpt 17 “krok”, in Chapter 7).

The negotiation practice was invoked from the production of a ‘try-marked’ word produced as a word solution, and due to the ambiguity of the word solution all the participants joined in for further negotiation for meaning-making. The embodied negotiation that was demonstrated by participants in a conjoined manner were to describe, to represent and to enact the concept of the possible meaning for the searched-for word. Furthermore, it was seen in the data that elements of concept building through embodied thinking and embodied negotiation were found to be useful in creating meaning and thus meaning-making through embodied interaction is about “the achievability of mutual understanding and the centrality of shared convention” (Blommaert and Rampton, 2012, p. 15).

On another occasion, it was also found that participants worked together through the use of language and gestures to create meaning and to elicit more information for the word searched-for (i.e., combination of gestures along with circumlocution). As shown in Excerpt 16 “wax or wasp” (Chapter 7), Ann’s utterance in a form of circumlocution co-occurred with her hand gestures in describing “honey” (line 5 – line 6, it's >kinda like< a:: hh hone::y er:::). The speaker’s use of spoken language and embodied actions were not only visible for the other participants but also exposed to attract their attention during moments of the ongoing word search activity (Streeck, 1993).

The study also found that embodied negotiation could be demonstrated in word searches with the use of semantic contiguity to describe the unknown targeted word to other participants, as shown in Kurhila’s (2006) study. However, one different finding in this study compared to Kurhila was that the work to resolve the ambiguity of the unknown word involved a multiparty collaboration of all the participants in the
interaction. For example, in Excerpt 17 “Krok” (Chapter 7), the speaker’s ‘try-marked’ candidate word “krok,” spoken in a soft voice in a rising intonation and with a demonstration of furrowed eyebrows, caused ambiguity to the speaker herself and also to other participants. Thus, the speaker used semantic contiguity to describe the ‘try-marked’ word to disambiguate, such as using the adjective, nouns forms of speech, and word phrases. Moreover, participants also showed that the joint work solution of all the participants to further negotiate the meaning of “krok” through embodied negotiation was represented in creative ways, such as building concepts and displaying feelings of repulsion towards the unknown insect, although the negotiation in meaning-making was in a longer series of actions (Egbert et. al., 2004).

Hence, meaning-making is multimodal (Blommaert and Rampton, 2012) and exploring practices of gestural meaning-making contributes to the complexity and richness of human understanding (Streeck, 2009b). The salience of meaning-making through embodied interaction increases the significance of “visible activity that others can not only recognize but can indeed participate in” (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986, p.52). As argued by Streeck et al. (2011), the embodiment produced by participants has an equally prominent role for collaborative imagining as participants discuss together. Thus, the participants were shown to work together to build concepts for the unattainable word through embodied negotiation by utilising various multimodal resources for describing, representing and enacting the unknown word. Consequently, the joint work solution in building the concept in search sequences through embodied interaction was found to be sufficient references for meaning-making and to facilitate intersubjective understanding and thus progress in the talk.

8.6 Achieving Mutual Understanding through Embodied Negotiation

As reviewed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.3), word searches are defined as trouble in producing talk in which the progressivity of the speaker’s turn is momentarily interrupted (Schegloff et. al. 1977). In L2 interaction participants jointly calibrate their interactional resources flexibly and with high resolution as to make sense of one another’s actions and accomplish intersubjectivity (Kasper, 2006; Hauser, 2013). As seen in the data in the L2 word-searches, the L2 participants occasionally coordinated the use of talk and embodied actions as resources for the pursuit of mutual
understanding. Thus, there are two important findings that were revealed in this study that may be considered as distinctive to an L2-L2 conversation. Firstly, in the occasions where the L2 participants were not able to find the actual word searched-for, they collaboratively constructed meaning of the unidentifiable word using multimodal resources (e.g., Excerpt 17 “Krok”) for progressivity in a word search. Secondly, another characteristic of L2 interaction is that the L2 participants join in to produce a solution to a word search without an invitation through gaze direction from the speaker such as in previous studies (e.g., Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986). Instead, the recipients recognised the invitation to join in the word search through other multimodal resources (e.g., hand movements and the use of an object), as is shown in Excerpt 4 “Bend screen”.

Furthermore, as evidenced in the analysis chapters (Chapter 6 and Chapter 7), the L2 participants coordinated talk and embodied action as a form of embodied negotiation for the achievement of mutual understanding. For instance, the use of recurring similar hand gestures by two interlocutors to display their understanding for bunk beds in Excerpt 12 “double decker” (Chapter 6) showed that both participants were skilful in their own ways when explaining types of beds through embodied actions. Moreover, it was seen in the data that the participants demonstrated and corresponded to one another’s utterances by using their hand gestures at an almost similar timing and alternatively produced verbal descriptions such as “two level” and “semi bed”. A similar example was also found in Excerpt 15 “A lot of money” (Chapter 7), in which a form of ‘gesturally enhanced’ (Olsher, 2008) are repeatedly demonstrated by the speaker. Following the visual display gestures by the speaker, the recipients demonstrated corresponding gestures towards the speaker’s recurring and shared gestures (Eskildsen and Wagner, 2013). For example, as found in Excerpt 15 “A lot of money” (Chapter 7), the speaker’s recurring similar fingering gestures that coordinated with her utterance to express numerical (figure 8.10) are “exposed” as “worthy of attention” (Streeck, 1993) as performing the speaker’s embodied thinking (i.e. making thinking process visible). In response, the recipient corresponded gestures through handwriting in the air using the index finger (Figure 8.11 below). The embodied negotiation demonstrated by the participants through the use of embodied thinking showed that “‘thinking’ in human beings does not occur only in the [mind] but
a series of sites in the body” (Thrift, 2008, p. 166). Thus, the embodied negotiation between the L2 participants triggered the coordination of different modes of communication in the achievement of mutual understanding (Mori and Hayashi, 2006).

*Figure 8.10: Fingering gestures to express numerical*

*Figure 8.11: Handwriting in mid-air using index finger*

Through the analysis of L2 word searches, the coordinated interactional embodied resources by L2 participants are forms of embodied negotiation in meaning-making of the produced candidate solution and to reclaim intersubjectivity. Moreover, the embodied negotiation between the main speaker and the addressed recipient, which became publicly observable resources, also triggered the third, non-speaking participant to display her or his understanding, observed through the display of head nods, minimal tokens, and confirmation responses (e.g. see Excerpt 12 “Double decker” and Excerpt 15 “A lot of money”, in Chapter 7). Hence, the embodied negotiation, recurring gestures, and corresponding gestures could be interpreted as “hybrid moves consisting
of talk and gestures or embodied display according to their on-going estimation of shared resources” (Mori and Hayashi, 2006, p. 196).

Importantly, this study has demonstrated how embodied resources are highly relied upon by all the L2 participants (e.g., main speaker, addressed recipients, and non-speaking participants) as publicly observable resources to construct the interaction and manage mutual understanding. The ‘hybrid interactional moves’ through embodied negotiation give us the perspective that the shared resources are profoundly relied upon by L2 participants to work towards achieving intersubjective understanding (Olsher, 2004; Mori and Hayashi, 2006; Olsher, 2008; Seo, 2011).

Other occasions found a small number of cases in the data where the L2 participants demonstrated laughter together when a candidate solution was produced (e.g. see Excerpt 11 “Hu Jin Tao”, in Chapter 6; Excerpt 13 “Big fry” and excerpt 17 “Krok,” in Chapter 7). The laughter in the L2 word search could be down to a number of reasons. For example, it could be to close a topic, to end the search sequence, or to focus on progressivity in the talk (Jefferson et al., 1987; Holt, 2010); to show agreement and to display mutual understanding (Holt and Glenn, 2013); or to mitigate the lack of knowledge in understanding (Holt, 2012). Despite a small number of occurrences of laughter noted in this study, investigating laughter demonstrated among L2 users deserves attention for future research, as this could provide more insights into the organisation of L2 interaction.

8.7 Language Use or Learning in the Wild

The aim of this study is to add to the growing body of L2 research which goes ‘beyond the language classroom’, outside educational settings (Firth and Wagner 1997; Wagner, 2004). The participants in this study are international university students socialising in a non-educational context, and thus the research is able to offer a fuller exploitation of using L2 in the ‘outside world’ (Wagner, 2015). The data collected and analysed in the study data showed a context in which the participants socialised in a cafe while having conversations which reflected the breadth of ‘everyday’ life situations. Furthermore, this study has potential to uncover the everyday conversational
setting of L2 users in a natural setting, and thus shed light on L2 use or learning outside a formal educational setting.

Although this study did not focus on learning *per se*, instances of learning were found in this data. For instance, in Excerpt 2 “dessert and desert” (Chapter 5), where the speaker sought help from a co-participant for the correct lexical word between “dessert and desert” to describe the continent of Africa. Another example is Excerpt 10 “folklore” (Chapter 6), where the co-participant explained the meaning of “folklore” to answer a co-participant’s enquiry. Although there is no formal teaching-learning featured in L2 interaction, such as in an L2 classroom, the opportunity for L2 ‘learning’ could still take place in the ongoing interaction outside a classroom environment (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Firth and Wagner, 2007; Firth, 2009).

Furthermore, this study is significant as it has the potential to shed light on future research on L2 use from a CA multimodal approach. With the close analysis of the various multimodal resources deployed by L2 participants, this study has demonstrated how multimodal resources, semiotic resources emerged as significant resources in L2 use, specifically in a word search sequence. The findings broaden our understanding of the roles of multimodal resources that are utilised by the participant as repair strategies in word searches, such as negotiating the meaning of verbal utterances. For example, as shown in Excerpt 17 “Krok” (Chapter 7), the main speaker, the addressed recipient and the non-speaking participant displayed an orientation towards one another as they coordinated the use of spoken language and embodied actions to negotiate and disambiguate meaning of the target word searched-for. Thus, the juxtaposition of multimodal resources for embodied negotiation and embodied completion could potentially reflect on the L2 participants as resourceful language users. Furthermore, the embodied negotiation and embodied completion made by the L2 speakers demonstrated that they are not as ‘deficient communicators’ but are instead proven to be ‘successful’ language users (Firth and Wagner, 1997; Firth and Wagner, 2007).

Seo (2011) stated that the roles of embodied actions “make the conveyed meaning of the utterances and the intended communicative actions more accessible to participants in L2 interaction and sometimes facilitate intersubjective understanding in a
publicly observable manner” (p. 128). Thus, although social practices are very much bound to language, other multimodal resources are deployed by participants in achieving intersubjectivity (Pallotti and Wagner, 2011). This study captures the emergence of these multimodal resources in L2 interaction. However, more such empirical studies should be conducted which examine L2 interaction to show how language use and language learning are intertwined. Thus, exploring the roles of multimodal resources in the opportunity for language learning and language use outside a formal educational context is an area worthy of future research.

8.8 Summary

This study has provided evidence to appreciate the importance of the micro-analytic tool of CA to examine L2 interaction. Specifically, it has examined the use of talk and embodied actions mobilised by L2 participants as resources in word search sequences. By taking an emic perspective it has demonstrated how CA can be a powerful tool to analyse the interactional practices of L2 interaction (Kurhila, 2006; Mori and Hayashi, 2006; Brouwer, 2003). Therefore, the study contributes to second language interaction research by showing how L2 interaction is rich with meaningful details, including L2 participants’ embodied resources as well as verbal utterances. As such, close attention to embodied resources can help us to better understand how participants jointly construct and manage conversation in a sequential way and also achieve intersubjectivity in word search sequences. As discussed in this chapter, the evidence from the present data shows that the occurrence of a word search is a multiparty accomplishment (Goodwin and Goodwin, 2004) and L2 participants are shown to be active participants and resourceful language users in the interactional success in an L2 (Firth and Wagner, 2007).

The key insight that this study has shown is that the in-depth investigation of various multimodal resources have elucidated how dynamic multimodal resources provide publicly available resources for a collaborative solution in search sequences. The achievement of a joint solution in the search sequence, which is often demonstrated through the use of talk, embodiment, and objects as interactional resources by participants, also contributes to the pursuit of intersubjectivity.
Chapter 9. Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

The central aim of this study was to investigate naturally occurring L2 interaction between international students who do not share the same mother tongue in a non-educational environment. In investigating L2 interaction, this study was following calls from the field of L2 studies (e.g., Firth and Wagner 1997; Firth and Wagner, 2007; Gardner and Wagner, 2004; Canagarajah and Wurr, 2011) that it is important to understand L2 users interaction outside of the educational context and in everyday contexts.

9.2 Contributions to the Field of Applied Linguistics

In understanding forms of communication and social organisation, it is of crucial importance to recognise that multimodal resources, semiotic resources as aspects of communication are not limited to the linguistic (Kusters et al., 2017). As Blackledge and Creese (2017) pointed out, the features of communication are not always thought of as ‘language,’ as they are in fact integrated with semiotic repertoires that include gesture, posture, gaps and silences. Thus, the deep intertwining of multimodal resources in interaction, including language, gaze, gestures, posture, and so on might be at the heart of the evolution of language (Seyfeddinipur and Gullberg, 2014).

From the CA perspective, micro-analytic examination of multimodal resources among L2 speakers through talk-in-interaction outside of an educational context can capture and reveal the dynamic coordination of interactional details in a word search. Furthermore, this study also aims to broaden L2 studies data by using the CA approach to unpack features of L2 interaction in word search among L2 speakers who do not share the same mother tongue and thus use English as a medium of communication or a lingua franca.

The main goal of this study is to investigate the various range of multimodal resources deployed by L2 speakers in a word search activity in English interaction. The contributions of this study can be summarised into three main points. Firstly, this study
followed the call to expand L2 research in a non-educational context (e.g., Firth and Wagner, 1997; Gardner and Wagner, 2004; Wagner, 2004; Firth, 2009; Canagarajah and Wurr, 2011), and, importantly, to increase research in L2 interaction which pays close attention to embodied resources (e.g., Carroll, 2004; Olsher, 2004; Mori and Hayashi, 2006; Olsher, 2008; Mori and Hasegawa, 2009; Seo, 2011).

Secondly, this study’s contribution has particular relevance to understanding language use. What this study tells us is that, while the importance of examining spoken language is undeniable, the heart of understanding ‘what’s going on’ in L2 interaction entails the coordination of talk and embodied actions as part of a larger set of resources of social interaction. Thus, doing ‘word-searches’ involves meaning making. Meaning is multimodal (Streeck et al., 2011; Blommaert and Rampton, 2012) and limiting it to only spoken language would limit exploration of the multifaceted reality of L2 communication (Firth, 2009; Mondada, 2012; Mondada, 2016a).

Finally, these findings adds valuable insights for considering the interactional phenomenon of a ‘word search’ that spoken language and language use in the L2 interaction is fundamentally multimodal (Seyfeddinipur and Gullberg, 2014). It is evident from the data that there is a relationship between talk and multimodal resources and the participants mobilised the use of multimodal resources collaboratively to construct and build concepts as sufficient references in resolving the search sequence and establish mutual understanding. The use of language, gestures, gaze, body posture, body movement, surroundings and material objects, all of which together form ‘complex multimodal gestalts’ are significance in meaning-making in interaction (Mondada, 2015).

The findings of this study suggest that the roles of multimodal resources in word search provide publicly available resources for L2 participants to organise their relevant participation and to collaborate in word searches. First, it is evident that the speaker’s coordination of talk, embodied actions and the use of objects contribute as interactional resources that create invitation for a co-participant’s entry to join in the word search. Second, the multiparty conversation broadens our understanding of the roles of multimodal resources in the complexity of the interaction, especially on how participation is dynamic and does not involve only the main speaker and addressed
recipient but also a non-speaking participant who displays a shifting participation from co-presence to co-participant. Last, the conducive role of multimodal resources in a word search may become recognisable to describe, to represent, to enact and to negotiate the meaning of the unknown word or unattainable word through embodied negotiation and embodied completion for progressivity in a word search. In other word, participants work together through the use of multimodal resources for meaning-making and building a concept as sufficient resources in their attempt to resolve the word search and achieve intersubjectivity.

9.3 Directions for Future Research

Although this study was able to disclose the multimodal resources in the organisation of word search among L2 speakers, there are still many more areas that future research in second language interaction or applied linguistics might explore. As discussed above, the implication of this study suggest that word-searches are multimodally constituted in which language use is multimodal that involves much more than the human voice alone. Encompassing to ‘multimodal’ suggests a radically new approach to further our understanding of language use and understanding of interactional competence in the field of SLA research and applied linguistics.

In the current globalised world, the number of works incorporated multimodality to the understanding of language in SLA research and applied linguistics is limited. It is crucial that more micro-analytic studies are necessary to examine the complex and multi-faceted relationship between spoken language and embodied resources in L2 interaction from a CA perspective. Therefore, it is recommended that further research in second language studies on everyday contexts of language use and language acquisition is required. As Canagarajah and Wurr (2011) contended, studies on language acquisition still tend to focus on an educational context, which may not fully reflect acquisition in everyday communication. Therefore, they suggested that it is a necessity to further undertake research of interaction outside of the educational context (ibid.).

The settings of this study was in café, in which friends coming together to chat, to reinforce friendship, to socialise in a typically convivial and relaxed environment
(Laurier and Philo, 2006; Laurier, 2008). For future research, it is worth to consider investigating L2 interaction in other similar environments in which participants situate themselves, in order to further understanding of how participants who do not share the same mother tongue manage and organise interaction. Although a small number of occurrences of laughter noted in this study, investigating laughter demonstrated among L2 users deserves attention for future research, as this could provide more insights into the organisation of L2 interaction.

Additionally, the notion of 'multiactivity' is also found in the present study, as participants engage in various tasks such as eating, drinking, manipulating objects while talking together. In people’s everyday lives, they frequently do perform multiple activities at any one time (Haddington et al., 2014). Indeed, the process of combining various simultaneous activities frequently incurs the handling and manipulation of objects, such as browsing through a mobile phone (Nevile et al., 2014). The present study also demonstrated how the manipulation of an object (i.e. mobile phone) by the speaker has become a visible resource for other participants, prompting them to complete the word search sequences. Future research could consider further investigations into the utilisation of various multimodal resources when L2 users are interacting with one another, particularly when they are engaged in multiple simultaneous activities that involve objects.

9.4 Closing Remarks

Conversations between people who do not share the same L1 are growing as a result of globalising networks of diverse modes of human exchange such as commercial and tourism. It is increasingly common for people travel to many parts of the world for work, leisure or education and/ or build up social and/or professional networks through the internet, factors which are making L2 interaction more widespread. This study sheds light on the importance of considering multimodal resources in L2 interaction. Under the lens of a CA methodology, the original contribution of this study is to aid understanding of the development of studies on second language interaction, which will have an impact for future studies in the field of applied linguistics.
Appendix A

CA Transcription Convention

[  ]  Beginning and end of overlapping or simultaneous utterances

=  Latched utterances

(0.5)  Length of pause

::  Stretch sound

?  Rising intonation

.  Falling intonation

,  Continuing intonation

↑  High pitch

↓  Low pitch

-  Cut-off utterance

*word*  Soft utterances

Word  Stress or emphasis

CAPS  Loud utterances

.hh  Sound of inhalation

Hh  Sound of exhalation

wohhrd  A row of ‘h’ s within a word indicates breathiness (e.g.

><  Faster than surrounding utterances

<>  Slower than surrounding utterances

(word)  Uncertain utterances

((  )))  Transcriber’s description of gestures and body movement

Generation. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

**Research:** Exploring Second Language Conversations.

_I, the undersigned, confirm that (please tick box as appropriate):

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I have read and understood the information about the project, as provided in the Information Sheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project and my participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I understand that this session will be audio-video recorded and photographs may be taken for the purpose of the research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The audio-video recordings and photographs can be shown or shared with other research members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The audio-video recordings and photographs can be used for publications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The audio-video recordings and photographs can be shown in conferences and academic presentations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reasons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The procedures regarding confidentiality have been clearly explained (e.g. use of names, pseudonyms, anonymity of data, etc.) to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The use of the data in research, publications, sharing and archiving has been explained to me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Name: _______________________________  Signature: _________________________

Date: ______________________________

If you have any questions regarding the research project, please contact:
Nur Nabilah Binti Abdullah (PhD Candidate)
Email: n.n.binti-abdullah@newcastle.ac.uk
Appendix C

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: Exploring Second Language Conversations.

Background

You are invited to participate in the research in which your communication activity will be audio-video recorded. This study is to explore Second Language Conversations. The research aims are to analyse and to investigate participants’ communication experiences with their peers.

Audio-video recording and photographs/ still images.

The researcher would like to audio and video record the face-to-face interaction. This is to enable the researcher to learn more about the participants’ communication activities with their peers in the interaction. The researcher would also like to take photographs. The audio-video recordings and photographs/ still images would be used for research purposes.

Participant’s Rights:

Participating in this research is voluntary, you may choose to discontinue without any explanation and also demand that any data you have supplied be withdrawn. You have the right to ask questions about the research.

Information management/use:

Any data or information you give during the course of this research will be managed with strict confidentiality. Your contacts details will not be disclosed to a third party neither will your name, unless you give your explicit consent. Data and information from this research will be used for dissertation and journal publication purposes under conditions of strict confidentiality.

Risk:

There are no known risks for your involvement in this study.

Queries?

If you want to know more about the project, or have any queries, please contact:

Nur Nabilah Binti Abdullah (Researcher)
School of Education, Communication and Language Science,
Email: n.n.binti-abdullah@newcastle.ac.uk
Mobile: 07776756111
General Information:

Name : ________________________________

Gender : (   ) Male (   ) Female

Age : (   ) 20 – 24 years (   ) 40 – 44 years
      (   ) 25 – 29 years (   ) 45 – 49 years
      (   ) 30 – 34 years (   ) 50 – 54 years
      (   ) 35 – 39 years (   ) 55 years and above

Nationality : ________________________________

First language: ________________________________

Programme : ________________________________

Year : ________________________________

Thank you very much
Appendix E

Full Transcription: Blessings

BEN: in here (0.3) I >mean< our:: (0.3) our belief is that we have to pray five times a day (0.3)
AMY: ↑ oh:::
BEN: so[:—]
AMY: [I ] remember=
BEN: =ya::h↑
AMY: "mm" (0.8)
BEN: >when< (0.1) ever where ever we are: we have to find a place to pray
AMY: ° "mm" (0.8)
BEN: so[:—]
AMY: [ yo]u're time is near (0.3)
BEN: ↑ uh:m yah ↑ uh:m (1.2)
BEN: half an hour (1.2)
BEN: so::↑
(1.4)
BEN: where ever (0.5)
BEN: er:: >where e- where e-< where ever it’s
BEN: clean (0.6)
BEN: we can do it like↑
(0.4)
BEN: >we would< (0.6)
BEN: you know::w we >usually< do it at the:: shopping mall the fitting room (0.5)
BEN: >but if< if we have a prayer room (. ) then we should go there=!=
AMY: =oh:[::::: ]
KAI: [ >but they don't have it] here do they? (0.8)
BEN: "I don’t know" (0.7)
AMY: you: know what? (0.2) I a:m so: a:ppre:ciate that because (0.8)
AMY: I can’t (0.2) I can’t do a lo:ng pla:yer (1.0)
BEN: [oh]
AMY: [ I] ca::n't
AMY: before I eat (0.2) I pray the:

(>de ere ere ere art<) (0.2) done ↓

AMY: hahahaha

BEN: >OH< ↑no: (0.1) our prayers are very short as

we::ll

(0.5)

AMY: oh::↑=

BEN: =ya:h i:t's

(0.4)

KAI: fi:ve mi:nutes

(0.6)

KAI: ((unintelligible))=

BEN: =five >minutes?< (. ) no [this prayer ]

(0.1)

KAI: [ >something like that<]

(0.8)

KAI: >oh< this oh::

BEN: "Allah humma barik lana fima rozaktana wa°

((tr: O Allah blessed the food you provide and ))

(0.8)

KAI: I thought o:ur five daily prayers=

AMY: =°what's that?°

BEN: er::: our prayer is

(0.4)

BEN: oh:: God (0.2) give us: (0.3) ble:ssings (0.4)

and give us:

(0.8)

BEN: ↑ah:::::::

(0.8)

BEN: op- ↑what's rezke:y? ((malay word rezeki))

(1.5)

KAI: [↑u::hm]

BEN: [give us] (. ) a blessings [blessings↑]

KAI: [blessings ] a:h

BEN: a::::::nd

(1.1)

BEN: put us a fa:r fro::m

(0.3)

AMY: sin

(0.2)

BEN: no (. ) the::: [the fire]

AMY: [ e:vil: ]

(0.3)

BEN: the fire

AMY: oh fi:-

(0.4)

AMY: why the fire?

KAI: he:ll of fi:re

BEN: hell fire

KAI: he:ll fi:re

AMY: ↑OH.... }
Appendix F

Full Transcription: Double decker

LEA: >I remember when we went< to In[dia
MUS: ↑mm ↓hm
LEA: with his ↑pa↓rents
(0.4)
LEA: and we kazakhs peop↓le: (. ) we ↑love tea: and-
.↓hh (. ) they made ↑like< (. )↑few ↓ti:mes
I >don't ↓know< and we feeling shy because
we had like ↑fi:ve [si(h)x c(h)ups of te(h)a]
ANN: [hahaha ]
MUS: [hahaha ]
(0.3)
LEA: .↓hh
MUS: hahah .hh "haha [haha haha° ]
LEA: [my brother I took] my brother
with [me ] you ↑know
MUS: ["okay"]
(0.4)
LEA: .↓hh and (0.6) he is fi:ne of tea and we al:ways
take the kettle and mom she ↑scolds ↓him ↑and
↓hh there's no ↑more there ↑and(h)
[re(h)st stop te(h)a ha .hh]
MUS: [hahah "ha ha haha° ]
(0.3)
LEA: so he had the ↑mo:st
(1.1)
LEA: he loves eating bread as ↓well
MUS: "mm hm°
LEA: he li:ves in an accommodation (. ) he lives with
f↓ive boys?
MUS: "mhm [mh°m° ]
LEA: [in one] ↑like- (0.4) in ↑one roo:m?
MUS: mm [hm ]
LEA: [and] (0.4) per [da:y ]
ANN: [fi:ve] ↑boys in one room?
(0.3)
LEA: ya:h=
MUS: =it's ↑like {["unintelligble"]
LEA: [s:even kaza[khstan {["unintelligble°
ANN: [↑oh:::
(0.2)
ANN: I ↑think semi b- I think they give single:
d↓or m (. ) °>kind of known as<° se:↑mi: 
(0.7)
MUS: mm::
(0.2)
ANN: be:d ↓I don't know< how to say it like-
LEA: be:ds
(0.4)
ANN: yah [like- >they have< like- like- two le];vels

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LEA: [(layer) there have two: two levels ]
MUS: mm:: 
(0.3)
MUS: okay=
ANN: =what is it (↑call si-) called ↓semi:: °bed°
MUS: er:: (. ) double dec]ker?
ANN: [for↑go:]
(0.2)
ANN: a double decker maybe?
MUS: may↑be
LEA: °don't know°
ANN: maybe I ↑think it's double decker
MUS: ↑mm ↓hm
LEA: ↑yah so: (0.6) he told me they ea:↓ne
(1.1)
LEA: er::
(0.4)
LEA: ↑tsk°
(0.5)
LEA: ↑full ↓bread ↑ni:ne:: per ↓day< "haha" ["haha haha" .hhh "ha ha" °]
ANN: [that's a ↓lo::t (1.0) I ↑can't]
MUS: but back- just like you::r em:: basic food
↑right (0.1) the bread?
(0.6)
LEA: ↑no[::: ]
MUS: ["is it?"]
(0.6)
LEA: ↑may↑be because they are boys (.) I ↑don't ↓know=
ANN: =they lazy to coo(hhh)k ha .hh
LEA: I [don't ↓know ] ["haha°
ANN: [maybe that's one] of the [rea(hh)son haha
MUS: ["haha°
LEA: but he's like a round
MUS: [hahaha
LEA: [hahaha
ANN: [hahaha
MUS: what's you::r what's your basic food ↓then
(0.6)
LEA: ↑er:: it's:: (. ) beshba↓ma::rk
(1.2)
LEA: it's some:↑thi::ng .hhh (. ) you ↑know those
lasagne layers?
MUS: ↑ye↓s
LEA: so:: .hh we:: (0.9) we cook ↑meat
MUS: ↑mm ↓hm
LEA: and ↑the:n (0.8) er:: we put that those la↓yers
MUS: ↑mm ↓hm
Appendix G

Full Transcription: Insects

1  MUS:  What's your ↑ideal vacation place? ahahaha
2       .hh is it like beach ↑ty:pe or er::
3       (1.1)
4  MUS:  ↑for:est ↑type or:
5  ANN:  no definitely me not forest °ahah°
6  MUS:  HAHAhaha
7       [.hhh  haha  [ haha
8  LEA:  [↑wha::t  haha[°haha°
9  ANN:  [I'm afraid all of the::
10 LEA:  [↑oh::  ]
11 MUS:  [↑yah  ↑yah] [I know you haha
12 ANN:  [in:se::ct  ↑ur::gh::::
13       (0.4)
14  ANN:  you ↑know
15  MUS:  yah >↑know I ↑know< [haha
16  ANN:  [>when I gonna in
17          somewhere< I- >when I go in< when I go in to:
18  Mauritian (0.2) I've been to museum
19       (0.6)
20  ANN:  ve- very small muse::um that I >may< see a
tortoise pa::rk
21       (0.4)
22  MUS:  o↑kay o↑kay
23  ANN:  (the tortoi-); uhm so- okay basically uhm::
24       (0.9)
25  ANN:  I went to that ↑pla::ce
26       (0.7)
27  ANN:  uhm: they have a lot of different tortoise like
28          long time ago: (.) British claim the:re
29  MUS:  >mm hm mm [hm::]<
30  ANN:  [and] took over the (tort) excre::te
31 MUS:  ↓mm[::::::      ]
32  ANN:  [and some point] help em:: (0.2) they were
33       ↑distinct
34       (0.4)
35  ANN:  the tortoise u:hm that amount were ↑distinct
36  MUS:  mm hm
37  ANN:  >end up< a:nd mauritians people had to take (0.4)
38          ↑one of the ↑ve:ry ↑si:milar spe:cies ↑li:ke
39  MUS:  [mm::
40  ANN:  [one that] the ↑distinct
41  MUS:  mm hm
42  ANN:  from the: (. ) ↑clo:se ↑is:land called non-reunion
43       (0.5)
44  MUS:  [°well er: yah°   ]
45  ANN:  [so: beautiful as well]
46       (0.6)
47  ANN:  to: ↑u::hm
48       (0.6)
49  ANN:  to adopt to:: (maurice can kinda-) expanding it
aga:in so:: that's why we had- weekend tortoise
er:: the:re
MUS: mm oːkaːy [that's goo:d ]
ANN: [that's why aːnd] they had liːke (.)
a very smaːll museum ‹hoːw to:: to- to- to
›see: the history about that (unintelligible)
MUS: mm hm
ANN: and there were some inːsect (0.5)
ANN: and
MUS: haha
ANN: yaːh so they were having a kind of like-
(0.8)
ANN: you know the ‹wax uhm
(0.6)
ANN: tsk
(0.4)
ANN: it's >kinda like< aːː hh ‹honeːy er::
MUS: ‹honeːy
ANN: honey but it's the ‹wax uhm
MUS: okaːy
ANN: a plaːce that they stay >and I don't know how<
to call it?
MUS: ‹yah ‹yah
ANN: yaːːh
MUS: the ‹honeːy ‹coːmb in the: miː-
LEA: >I didn't< know what insect this?
ANN: called ‹wax it's veːry like honey but it cannot
produce honey
(0.5)
MUS: [ohːːː]
ANN: [like] bees it cannot produːce produːce [whːy]
LEA: [↑ohː ]
ANN: it's called wasp
(0.3)
MUS: it's um >double< you: aye es pee ‹right
ANN: ‹yah<
(0.6)
LEA: wasp
(0.4)
MUS: [↑yaːːh (0.3) mm
LEA: [↑ohː yah I ‹know that
ANN: [((unintelligible))
(0.6)
ANN: ‹aːːnd ‹uːhm
(0.8)
ANN: and er:: I saw ‹that and I thought it's whole
beloːng
MUS: [↑mm hm<]
ANN: [toːːː ]
(0.6)
ANN: to the: beeː [and I said >that<]
MUS: [mmː ]
ANN: uhm: Joseph said not beːlong toː wasp
this is the- uhm (styles) you know all the
insect that they have dri:ed in:sect in the-
in the muse:u:m
MUS: aha[::::] ["aha"]
ANN: [and do you ↑kno:w] Joseph no I don't li::ke
in:[sect ]
LEA: ["aha"]
MUS: aha[ha ha ha ha ]
ANN: [e::nd up um I've] got re:ally afraid
with them
(0.5)
ANN: and he ↑said< ↑come ↓he:re
[M:come ↓he:re °he ↑said<"]
MUS: [ha ha ha]
ANN: [ha ha ha .hhh ]
LEA: [ ha ha ha]
ANN: ↑and I kno::w (0.3) just by ↑ni:ght I dre:am
I have a horrible ↓dream
(0.8)
MUS: ↑horrible [↑re::a:llly oh:::] haha .hhh haha
ANN: [I don't know wh:y I got really
upset with the insect]
MUS: ["haha haha"]
ANN: [I don't kno:w ↑wh::y should [I::(unintelligble)]
[you're thinking
too ↑mu:ch
(0.2)
ANN: ↑NO I don't think any↑thing
MUS: ha ha [ha ha
LEA: [okay]
ANN: [a::t] ni:ght it ↑just< came to my dream
(0.2)
MUS: ha ha ↑y'know [just like- ]
ANN: [you know- ]
MUS: got bigge::r [you kno::w haha ]
ANN: [oh you know mean ↑like] for
for fo::r (0.2) once instant ah I'm er not
afra:id °but-° cuz there's a picture- the:::
MUS: [oh:::]
ANN: [↑I don't know< the:-] (0.2) "krok-°
(0.5)
ANN: "kro:k?°
(0.9)
ANN: the:::::
(0.1)
ANN: "the kro:k? what's the-°
(0.6)
MUS: mm:: (0.4) the ↓krok
(0.6)
ANN: I don't kno:w (0.1) [↑"ho:w°]
ANN: you know where the ↑brown
(0.6)
MUS: okay okay
(0.2)
ANN: it's like- I don't know ↑how to spell it (0.3)
LEA: ↑what is it ↑like
(0.5)
ANN: ↑like ↑brown it's the insect (.) it lives
for a very long time
(1.5)
ANN: it's very dirty
(0.4)
ANN: it really dirty
(0.9)
MUS: ↑mm:
(0.6)
ANN: I don't ↑know ↑how to say it
MUS: haaha
ANN: actually you know but anywhere
LEA: ↑ya:::
(0.3)
LEA: [↑maybe]<
ANN: [because] of ↑that I mean on that um I got
really upset with insect
(1.0)
LEA: mm:::
(0.9)
MUS: (dra-)=
ANN: =that's why I- I- I cannot visit fo:rest
MUS: ha[haaha ha ha ]
ANN: [that's my conclu:]sion
MUS: HAHA [haha ]
ANN: [ca:nnot ]
(0.2)
ANN: forest is the ↑no::
MUS: HAhaha
(0.2)
ANN: I'm >definite<ly for the beach even though I
don't know how to swim
Appendix H

Full Transcription: A lot of money

1  BEN:  what do you plan to do:: after leavi::ng
         (0.1) the university
2  (0.9)
3  BEN:  what's the plan?=  
4  AMY:  =just go:: to wo::rk or wo:rkig
5  ho:lda::y
6  (0.2)
7  AMY:  I can go to a fa:rm and just grab
9  (1.0)
10 AMY:  just (0.2) be a farmer
11 (0.4)
12 BEN:  ah h=
13 KAI:  =WOW=
14 BEN:  =wha::t
15 (0.5)
16 AMY:  wh:y ↑ no::t
17 BEN:  are you seriou::
18 (0.9)
19 AMY:  I do:n't (0.1) wa:nt to:: just
20 (3.3)
21 AMY:  live like
22 (0.3)
23 AMY:  no:rmal
24 (0.6)
25 AMY:  because (0.4) the society tells yo::u (0.3)
26   oh no:w you have to study
27 BEN:  [yah okay okay ]
28 AMY:  [you have to get] to:: the u:niver[sity::
29 BEN:  [understand
30 AMY:  oka:y you graduate (0.1) and you have
31   ↑ wo:rk
32 (0.2)
33 AMY:  I don't wa:nt to do tha::t
34 (0.3)
35 BEN:  ya::h it= we= we:: ha:ve to mo:uld the
36   society not
37 (0.5)
38 AMY:  [mm:: ]
39 BEN:  [the other] wi:se
40 (2.1)
41 KAI:  >we've a very philosophical< talk here
42   going on ladies and gentlemen↑
43 BEN:  hahahaha
44 (0.7)
45 BEN:  ya:h .hhh hah
46 KAI:  it's like I'm the host and the two of you
47   are the gu:ests
48 BEN:  hahahaha
49 AMY:  ah u(h)m admire:: haha [haha ]
AMY: in: [all::]

AMY: =a:h

AMY: ↓ mm::

AMY: so:: expensive

AMY: about

AMY: five zero zero zero zero zero pounds

AMY: ah: I don't know (0.1) "how to [say"

AMY: [↑YAH]
Appendix I

Full Transcription: Samsung (Galaxy Note Edge)

1 BEN: have you seen galaxy note fou:r
2 (0.5)
3 BEN: it's in:: samsung store right now
4 (0.5)
5 AMY: it's already there?
6 BEN: ye:s ↑
7 (0.3)
8 BEN: a::nd you >could< also see:: galaxy note (.)
9 edge
10 (0.7)
11 BEN: the o- [the one]
12 AMY: [↑e:dge ] haha
13 BEN: ↓yah the one the one that has ↑a:::
14 (0.5)
15 BEN: tsk
16 AMY: co[↑ver]
17 BEN: [↑ah::: (.)] bend °scre:n°
18 (0.8)
19 AMY: is it ↑goo::d to have a bend screen?
20 (0.6)
21 BEN: [I don't I- ]
22 AMY: [↑ I sa:::]w
23 (0.2)
24 AMY: I saw a::: (0.4) pho:ne (0.3) ju::st like ↓this
25 (0.4)
26 AMY: and the::n (0.5) er::: [scre]:::n
27 BEN: [ya::h]
28 AMY: like ↓thi:s
29 (1.0)
30 BEN: it's [ I- ↑I don't ↓kno:w that depe]nds
31 AMY: [°like (calculator)° ]
32 BEN: really:: on the preference of the person↓
33 (0.4)
34 BEN: but wha- what I'm saying is (.). galaxy es: six
35 the next flag ship of samsung phone
36 (0.7)
37 BEN: will ↑be:: da::mn (1.0) ma:ssive
38 (0.3)
39 AMY: ma::ssive↑
40 (0.6)
41 BEN: °ye:s° it's gonna be huge↑
42 (0.5)
43 AMY: mm:::
44 (1.1)
45 AMY: I ↑can't handle ↓it o:[ne hand]
46 KAI: [ can I ] see your
47 pho:ne↑
KAI: don't worry I won't break it

AMY: hahaha .hhh break it and I:: will have a
ne:w o:ne

BEN: hehehehe

AMY: it's be:ing slo:w::

BEN: really

AMY: Woa::h † hahaha

BEN: is [it?] 

AMY: [it's] so: slo:w [no::w 

BEN: [it's slow

BEN: you know † wh:y::

AMY: wh:y::

BEN: because samsu:ng

BEN: has lots of (0.3) <bloat wares>

BEN: out of the box

AMY: so-

AMY: it makes me to change (. ) of the pho:ne

BEN: [o:ne] ye:ar?

BEN: [no- ]

BEN: oh >no no no no<

BEN: what I mean is er::: samsung

BEN: when when:: you receive that er:::

BEN: out of the box

BEN: it has lots of (0.2) useless application_ irrelvant appli[cation]

AMY: [ ahh ]right

BEN: so that is what it's making it slo::w

BEN: ka:y

KAI: ((slurping sound from drinking))

AMY: I don't-

AMY: I tr::y to dele:te † it (0.4) a:nd

my:: phone:::: †

KAI: crash
AMY: crash
(0.2)

KAI: that is why I change to ↑this
(0.5)

KAI: I had a saga >either< samsung es three:
for two:: ye:ars suddenly::
(0.6)

KAI: it died
(0.7)

AMY: sud(h)den(h)y=

KAI: =you ↑know why when you turn on a samsung?
(0.6)

KAI: it says it has a samsung logo::=

AMY: =mm
(0.8)

KAI: I press it for fi:ve hours there's no samsung

AMY: hah h
(0.4)

KAI: so it's already broken
I can't do any°thing anymore:° ↓
(0.7)

AMY: I ↑don't turn it o::ff
(1.5)

KAI: ((throat clearing))
Appendix J

Full Transcription: North Korea (Schism)

1 JAS: the chi- the benefit of having the _chinese_ at:las is you can go to north korea
2 (0.7)
3 JAS: you know our friend [Ji:m]
4 WON: [oh::] no >next [time:<] (ahah )
5 KEN: [my friend ]
6 WON: >you don't wanna go [there]<
7 HUS: [yea::h ]
8 WON: HAHA [((inaudible)) ]
9 JAS: [my friend ]
10 KEN: [don't want to go] <you don't want] to go there>
11 WON: [I don't want]
12 KEN: [ ya::h ]
13 JAS: [ _ my HOUSE ] MATE↑
14 (0.3)
15 JAS: [his- ]
16 JOH: [wh::y?]
17 HUS: it's bo:ring is it?
18 (0.3)
19 WON: [no::↑ ] °bo::°ri:ng
20 JAS: [what]
21 KEN: [i::t's quite bo-]
22 JAS: [no- he:: ]
23 WON: [ _ i::t's da::n]gerous
24 JAS: [it's not it]
25 WON: [hahaha ]
26 HUS: [hahaha ]
27 KEN: hah >yah yah yah<
28 (0.6)
29 JAS: [cu:z]
30 JOH: [wh:y] it's dan[gerou:s?]
31 KEN: [extreme ] [ more the same]
32 JAS: [NO:: tha'ts- ]
33 HUS: I ↑think it's not >as [dangerous as you think<]
34 WON: [ it's no::thing there::]
35 (0.1)
36 JAS: ya:h no ther- [the:re] is nothing there
37 WON: [°haha°]
38 (0.3)
39 JAS: [you [know]
40 WON: [ ya:[::h ]
41 KEN: [yah ]
42 JAS: like no: ro:ller coa:[ster >nothing< to s]ee:
43 WON: [nothing interesting ]
44 (0.3)
((Conversation between Johan and Kenny))

47 JOH: in no:rth ko:rea
48 KEN: so::: can you:::
49 (0.2) movie::s on
50 the:: (utinise)
51 there
52 (0.2)
53 JOH: sorry
54 (0.2)
55 KEN: have you saw- I
56 mean a:ny movies?
57 JAS: yah
58 JOH: yah
59 KEN: a:ny::: video:s
60 yo- on- u::hm on
61 the (utinite)

((Conversation between Wong, Husin and Jason ))

WON: ((inaudible))
HUS: >I don’t want to die<
WON: [hahaha]
HUS: [>I would like to]<
WON: [haha ha ]
HUS: meet the >people<
WON: [((inaudible))]  (0.6)
HUS: [((inaudible))]  (1.5)
WON: ste:al a:ll you:r
mo:ney::↓ haha
HUS: haha mo(h)ne(h)y .hhh

((Joined conversation ALL participants))

62 KEN: of: er::: (0.1) no:rth korea
63 JOH: no:::
64 JAS: it- it's like a _ barren ↑ la::nd
65 KEN: [yah yah]
66 JAS: [nothing] go:es there;
67 KEN: yah
68 JAS: but my ↑ fri:[end his fro:m↑ ]
69 KEN: [very poor country↓]
70 (0.2)
71 JAS: wh:at's that _ big ci:ty clo-

((Conversation between Johan and Kenny ))

72 JOH: i- i- what ah: you
73 mean the north ko-
74 oh you mean the
75 north kor- the-
76 the:::
77 KEN: north korea not
78 south korea
79 JOH: not south korea
80 KEN: yah ya:h
81 (0.5)
82 KEN: you can search (.)
83 search for
84 some::: videos↓
85 KEN: [°on the internet°]
86 JOH: [ I I I: ]
87 see the movie
88 fro::m
89 (0.5)
90 JOH: the inter↓vie:w
91 (0.4)

((Conversation between Wong, Husin and Jason ))

WON: °argh::°
HUS: °north west°
JAS: ;really clo:se ↑to::::
(2.3)
WON: °argh::::: °
HUS: [ to the west]
JAS: it's very close to
north korea↓
(1.2)
WON: [↑argh::::: ]
HUS: [ to the west]
WON: I::: forgetted
(0.2)
KEN: >yah yah yah yah<
JAS: ye:s he lives in china
(0.7)
JAS: he's from that ci::ty↑
and he's gonna go-(0.2)
he's gonna go to north
ko:rea in summer↑
(1.1)

JOH: ((inaudible)) yah
(0.7)

JOH: <exa:ctly> like
↑that (0.3) really?
(0.6)

KEN: yah
(0.9)

KEN: I think this er true
story
(0.9)

(Conversation between Johan, Kenny and Jason )

JOH: so- it- so- you::
haven't been to
north korea↓
(0.4)

KEN: ↓no:::
(0.4)

JAS: everyone
[knows bro:((  )) ]
(0.4)

KEN: [both ((inaudible))]↑
(0.4)

(Conversation between Johan and Kenny )

KEN: throughout (0.2)
I think nobody ↑want
to go: there to-
for travel↓
(1.1)

(Conversation between Johan and Kenny )

JOH: °ah:: alright°

(Conversation between Wong and Husin )

HUS: north west
(1.9)

WON: nothing north ea:st

(Conversation between Wong, Husin and Jason )

HUS: or do you mean by north
[e:ast↓ ]
WON: [>north west<]
JAS: [nor:th ] we:st
(0.3)

JAS: north [e:ast]
WON: [ WEST]
JAS: no: north ea:st
WON: north east yeah

(Conversation between Wong, Husin and Jason )

JAS: what's the big city
cuz my ↑friend
(0.4) e-
he lives with me
(0.4)
>yi:m<↑ (0.4) who's
going to north kore:a
in the summer↑
(0.5)

JAS: for::: WHAT man

(Conversation between Wong and Husin )

(1.6)
JAS: I:: that's what I said [and he's ↑like ]
JOH: [°haha haha° ]
JAS: [it's kore:-]
JOH: [.hh °haha° ]
it's like (0.2)
really cheap
so I'm gonna go my [parents went ]
KEN: [hhh °hah° ]
hah .hh hah
JOH: HAAHAHA [haha haha]
KEN: [haha haha]
JOH: HAhaha .hhh
JAS: it's kore:-
JOH: [°haha° ]
it's like (0.2)
really cheap
so I'm gonna go my parents went
KEN: hah °hah°    
hah .hh hah
JOH: HAHAHA [haha haha]
KEN: [haha haha]
JOH: HAhaha .hhh
JAS: it's kore:-
JOH: [°haha° ]
it's like (0.2)
really cheap
so I'm gonna go my [parents went ]
KEN: hah .hh hah
JOH: HAHAHA [haha haha]
KEN: [haha haha]
JOH: HAhaha .hhh
JAS: it's kore:-
JOH: [°haha° ]
it's like (0.2)
really cheap
so I'm gonna go my [parents went ]
KEN: hah °hah°    
hah .hh hah
JOH: HAHAHA [haha haha]
KEN: [haha haha]
JOH: HAhaha .hhh
JAS: it's kore:-
JOH: [°haha° ]
it's like (0.2)
really cheap
so I'm gonna go my [parents went ]
KEN: hah °hah°    
hah .hh hah
JOH: HAHAHA [haha haha]
KEN: [haha haha]
JOH: HAhaha .hhh
JAS: it's kore:-
HUS: your brain do that
JAS: ↑not xi jinpi:ng (.) the guy before
JOH: [yah (0.1) not- ]
HUS: [°mao zhin tong° ]
WON: [ah::: hu::: jin] tao↓
(0.1)
JAS: hu::: jin ta:::o↑
JOH: [hu jin tao yah]
JAS: [yea::: ]
WON: [ah: haha ] °haha°
JAS: hu::: jintao [that's hi:m]
JOH: [ yah hu jin] tao yah er:::
at that ↑ti:me
JOH: if I'm not mistaken ↑ah:::↓::: (0.4) I was
there with er::: (0.3) my mu:m I go there
a bit- (0.4)basically I just go to the forbidden
city a:nd (0.3)I go see the::: (0.3) er:::
great wall of china (0.2) with my mum as well↓
WON: [oh::[:::: ]
KEN: [oh::[:::: ]
JAS: [where did I] put my key?
(0.3)
JOH: it's very beautifu:l your- your country
is very beautiful↓
Appendix K

Full Transcription: Folklore and Disney Movie

1 KAI: you know everyone here don't you
2 BEN: no that guy er is one of the cast in Malaysian night
3 : (0.6)
4 KAI: [ oh::[:]::]
5 AMY: [ "mm::"
6 BEN: [we- ] we had Malaysian night em:: two days ago
7 : (1.6)
8 BEN: you know what Malaysian night is? (0.2) like they had-
9 is like a- cultural night
10 : (1.4)
11 BEN: cultural night=
12 AMY: =mm=
13 BEN: =diversity night
14 : (0.9)
15 BEN: where we have er theatre play
16 : (1.3)
17 AMY: [where is this? ]
18 BEN: [on- on the stage] in northern stage of Newcastle
19 University
20 : (0.5)
21 AMY: its- in a restaurant?
22 : (1.6)
23 BEN: uhm:: Northern Stage
24 : (1.1)
25 BEN: at Newcastle University
26 AMY: oh inside the uni[versity
27 BEN: [yes
28 : (0.8)
29 BEN: so we had that and he (0.2) is one of the cast
30 AMY: [mhm ]
31 BEN: [so:::] we played they- they played er::: (0.2)about
32 our:::
33 : (1.7)
34 KAI: folklore:: traditional folklore::
35 BEN: traditional folklore story
36 : (0.7)
37 AMY: what is this?
38 BEN: yeah
39 : (1.5)
40 BEN: so [he-
41 AMY: [folklore story?
42 : (0.6)
43 BEN: folk
44 KAI: folklore story
45 BEN: [old folk stories]
46 AMY: [hahaha ]
47 : (0.4)
48 BEN: "yah"
49 KAI: like traditional::: you know those s- stories when you
50 hear when you
51 KAI: going to sleep (0.3) those [old ] stories yah
AMY: [ah::::]

BEN: °yah::°

AMY: [we only]

KAI: [was he-] >was he one of the main cast?<

BEN: er:: yes he is

BEN: and I have all the pictures in my °ca- camera if you want°

KAI: please do share yah

BEN: haha[ha]

KAI: [em]::: ]

KAI: [I ] feel]so bad for not attending (0.3) and you were saying?

AMY: so::: all of you listen to the same story?

BEN: [yup ]

AMY: [when] you were young?

BEN: yup

BEN: same story but different versions

AMY: mm:::

BEN: yah we have [different versions]

AMY: [from grandma::? ]

BEN: grandmother::

BEN: em:: fairy book tales:: em-

BEN: fairytale books

AMY: how about Anderson

BEN: what?

AMY: Anderson

BEN: Andrewson?

BEN: what-

BEN: is that your lecturer?

AMY: ha[haha[ha ]

BEN: [haha[ha ]

KAI: [ha-]

AMY: no:: he write stories

BEN: Andrewson

AMY: fairy [Anderson]

KAI: [OH Ander]son who wrote:: the little mermaid

AMY: yah
KAI: oh:: but I [think-]
AMY: [that's] the one
BEN: yah we- we- we:: we have heard about- I mean::
KAI: yah we have heard about him (0.3) yeah but what I've
KAI: known from:: Anderson
KAI: did- did you know actually the original version of the
KAI: Little Mermaid had a sad ending
AMY: really?
KAI: did you know actually the original version of the:
KAI: story is not the original story
AMY: mm::
KAI: because it's shown to kids and they have to make it a
KAI: happy ending
KAI: but Anderson has a habit of writing:: sad stories
KAI: you know- would you like to know what the real
AMY: [because (0.4) Anderson is:: a sad person
KAI: ye::[:::[::
AMY: [ah:::
KAI: >would you like [to kno-<]
AMY: [what's ] the ending
KAI: >remember the< time where:: she actually had to (0.3)
KAI: kill the prince?
AMY: mm
KAI: in:: the movie:: it- I think in the Disney
AMY: interpretation they both fell in love
AMY: mm mm
KAI: but (0.3) she didn't have the heart to kill him
KAI: in the- in the original in the original version
KAI: she didn't kill him because he loved h- she loved
KAI: him so much
KAI: and:: the:: evil witch said if you didn't if you don't
KAI: kill him you will die::
KAI: so she didn't kill him
KAI: she:: went back to the ocean
KAI: and she died
AMY: oh::
KAI: she turn into bubbles in the sea::
AMY: that's not too sad
KAI: for you that's not [sad when I heard it I crie:::d=
AMY: [hahahahaha hahahahaha
KAI: =you kno[w:::] ]
AMY: [I think] if he were- (0.3) she was be::ing
: trap in a:: prison
AMY: for the rest of her [life]
KAI: [that] will be even sadder
AMY: that will be even sad
KAI: just disappearing doesn't mean sa:::d
BEN: do you watch Disney movies
AMY: I like it
KAI: who doesn't watch Disney mo[vies
BEN: [ah [okay
AMY: [hahaha
BEN: no apparently they have this (.). some sort of
AMY: (0.5)
BEN: theory that says (0.2) all:: Disney movies are:: some
how (.). what are some interrelated
BEN: (0.8)
KAI: oh yah::: >yah [yah yah<
BEN: [like like uhm
BEN: (1.1)
BEN: ah:::::: the story:::::: about Ariel
AMY: mm mm
BEN: the mermaid
AMY: mm
BEN: (1.1)
BEN: took place
BEN: (0.7)
BEN: some::where:: near::: er:::
BEN: (0.6)
BEN: where Frozen took place
BEN: (0.8)
KAI: >yah yah yah< yah it's true yah
BEN: (0.6)
KAI: yah
BEN: (0.3)
AMY: so the scene is rea:::l
BEN: yes (.). it's it's some what
BEN: (0.6)
BEN: uhm=
AMY: =close=
BEN: =inter connected
AMY: mm[:]
BEN: [yeah] (0.4) and it is proven by the:: directors 
: as well 
: (0.7) 
BEN: and- from the previous [scene ] 
AMY: [do you] likes:: (.) 
: the:: Frozen? 
: (0.6) 
BEN: huh? 
AMY: have you watch the Frozen 
KAI: [yah] 
BEN: [yah] of course have- have you? 
: (0.4) 
KAI: do you know there's a part in Frozen where:: 
: (2.0) 
KAI: have you watch Tangled before? 
: (0.7) 
ANG: mm I [like it 
BEN: [oh (.)] Tangle:: 
KAI: you know tangle the:: the short haired princess (0.4) 
: remember? 
BEN: yeah yeah 
KAI: one [that-] 
BEN: [ Tan]gled the long haired princess= 
KAI: =the long haired princess= 
BEN: =okay (. ) she appeared [in Frozen 
KAI: [she appeared in Frozen 
: (0.8) 
AMY: where::? 
BEN: you didn't know:: 
KAI: for one [second 
AMY: [no::: 
KAI: for one second 
: (0.4) 
BEN: for one second= 
KAI: =[for one second 
AMY: [the dis:: Disney is reusing everything hahaha 
KAI: yah 
: (0.4) 
BEN: yah 
: (0.5) 
AMY: like recycling 
: (3.4) 
AMY: I like Tangle more 
BEN: mhm 
AMY: Frozen is just 
KAI: over rated? 
: (0.7) 
AMY: mm? 
KAI: over rated? do you think? 
: (0.9) 
AMY: what is over rate? 
: (0.8) 
KAI: people like it so much until you get sick of it 
: (1.5) 
KAI: (do [you thi-])
AMY: [I don't ] like the: Frozen
KAI: [oh:: ]
AMY: [I like] the Tangle
BEN: [aha]
KAI: [aha]
AMY: okay
BEN: mhm
AMY: I don't know why:: you don't like (..) Frozen
BEN: uhm (..) not as so much as::
BEN: Tangled yeah
AMY: ah:::
BEN: that's kak ((tr: big sister)) nabila by the way she's-
AMY: haha
AMY: but I found out that all Disney princess are:: so
BEN: bra::ve
AMY: [mm:: ]
KAI: but I like Mulan the most
BEN: [Mulan]
AMY: [mm:: ]
KAI: [becau-]
BEN: [ I like ] the song the song uhm:: tch from (lee
AMY: OH
AMY: da da da da [da da da
BEN: ~>yah yah yah<
AMY: [hahahaha hahahaha ]
BEN: [haha I was listening] it er:: I was listening it er-
KAI: oo:::::::: what a coincidence
BEN: oh really? (0.4) you did?
KAI: no I didn't
AMY: hahahaha
BEN: hahaha
AMY: the coincidence is (..) we talk about it today hahaha
BEN: °mm°
AMY: oh you suppose to be listen to Disney music and
BEN: really?
KAI: I like Mulan because she doesn't depend on any man to
survive:

KAI: she can survive on her own:

AMY: mm:::

KAI: if all the other princesses like Sleeping Beauty:
oh you need to kiss me now I will be alive again

AMY: [ahahahaha]

KAI: [now about Snow White] I need someone to love

BEN: [have you] ever watch about the:: real:: Mulan movie?

KAI: there's a real Mulan movie

BEN: yes

KAI: there's a real actors

BEN: yes

KAI: [er:::] [no:::]

AMY: [I think it's a soap] o[pera]

BEN: [no no no]

AMY: [a::ll th-]

BEN: [>it's a< real-]

AMY: [is this a stock movie

BEN: real life action movie

AMY: [mm I don't know about it

KAI: [(( unintelligble))

BEN: uhm[:::: who played uhm::

BEN: >I don't remember<

BEN: I forgot

AMY: oh:::

AMY: putting peanut into the rice is so nice

KAI: in Hong Kong what did I have

AMY: [egg tart?

KAI: but what I know in Hong Kong after eleven o'clock

there's no cars

KAI: only public transport

AMY: really?

BEN: I:: (0.4) I:: stayed near::

KAI: uhm:: I forgot that

AMY: mm
KAI: I stayed there
KAI: and then the double decker buses and all (.) but I
realise that after eleven
KAI: o'clock (0.3) I peeped out of my window there's no
cars only buses
KAI: (1.0)
BEN: way [chao]
AMY: [shim] chao che and mong kok (0.2) is [the:: ]
KAI: [yah ]
KAI: (0.3)
KAI: yah
AMY: busiest one
AMY: : (0.6)
AMY: when you told me (.). your name is emkay (0.3) I'm
thinking about Mong Kok
AMY: : (0.2)
AMY: [hahahaha]
KAI: [hahahaha] [ha
BEN: [wh::at? Mong Kok? ]
AMY: Mong [Kok there's a place in
KAI: [Mong Kok ada- ada satu ((tr: there's a)]
KAI: there's a district in Mong Kok
AMY: mm
BEN: aha[haha]
KAI: [it's- it's] like our:::
KAI: : (0.5)
KAI: Petaling Street
KAI: : (0.3)
BEN: I see:::
AMY: : and we call:: (0.5) the boys or girl (0.3) em::
AMY: emkay when they dress (0.5) fashionable
AMY: : (0.6)
AMY: but
AMY: : (0.8)
AMY: em all the same (0.4) they're all [the same but
KAI: : (0.6)
AMY: fashionable in their own way
AMY: : (1.5)
AMY: I don't know it's (0.5) good or (0.2) positive or
AMY: negative
KAI: I also don't know
AMY: hahaha
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