Abstract

This thesis investigates EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners' classroom interactional competence (CIC) by tracking their orientation to a specific role assigned by the teacher, the group leader, and its effect on L2 learning through small group task interactions. In formal English instructional settings, especially in Asia, English is often taught through dyad or small group task interactions to involve the most students in large classes. While learner-learner task interaction has gained great interest from Second Language Acquisition (SLA), most of which focuses on dyadic talks or the relationships between task types and interactional patterns, little has described in detail how students lead and participate in small group discussions to accomplish a task. Drawing on Conversation Analysis (CA) perspective of identity and language expertise, CA-SLA studies of task interaction, the notions of L2 interactional competence (IC) (Hall et al, 2011), and classroom interactional competence (CIC) (Walsh, 2006), this thesis highlights L2 learners' CIC in EFL small group task interaction and suggests using an SEST (Self Evaluation of Student Talk) framework to enhance learners' CIC and task performance.

This study applies CA to the examination of audio- and video recordings of learner-learner group interactions in a Taiwanese technological university. The findings show the assigned group leaders take on a teacher's role by performing different pedagogical practices. They allocate turns, give instructions, highlight the pedagogical focus, repair and initiate repairs, provide scaffolded feedback, and explain word meanings. Other group members respond to nominations, make contributions, request clarification, and seek language assistance. Through this co-orientation to 'doing being a group leader', L2 learners demonstrate learner CIC in group discussions led by a peer participant. The findings of this thesis have implications for language learning through task interaction, CA research into task interaction and classroom interactional competence.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.0 Introduction

This chapter is aimed to establish the objectives of this thesis. Firstly, an outline of the purpose and scope of the research will be provided to highlight the research gap and rationale for this study. An overview of the research context will follow to introduce the English education in the site where the data are collected, Southern Taiwan University of Science and Technology (STUST henceforth). Following this, the methodology used to analyze the data and the research questions will be briefly introduced in 1.3. Finally, an outline of the thesis will be presented in 1.4.

1.1 Purpose and Scope of the Study

In instructed learning settings, especially large English classrooms in EFL contexts (English as a foreign language where the official language of the country is another language), pair- or group- formats are consequently adopted by English teachers to involve the most students in classroom activities. Hence, language learning tasks are widely used in large classes to engage students in meaning focused communication. Task-based learning and teaching (TBLT) in which tasks are used as units of instruction to prompt classroom activities has a significant role in second language pedagogy and research (Ellis 2000, 2003; Long, 1985, 1996, 2000; Nunan, 2004; Samuda and Bygate, 2008; Skehan, 1998, 2003; Willis & Willis, 2008). While TBLT emphasizes real language use, the focus is mostly on the individual student's ability to produce accurate and fluent utterances (Walsh, 2012). TBLT research which is influenced by cognitive and psycholinguistic paradigms, looks at the amount and types of language adjustments in task interaction that they believe can facilitate learners' production of accurate linguistic items and therefore are key to L2 acquisition (Gass,

1997, 2013; Gass & Varonis, 1985; Long, 1985). Grammatical errors, hesitations, restarts, and gestures which can be found in L1 interactions are viewed as evidences of L2 learners' deficits. Under this view of language and language learning, L2 learners are considered as defective communicators due to insufficient linguistic knowledge. This cognitive view of L2 learning has attracted a number of criticisms from socio-interactionists. Kramsch (1986) first proposed the notion of interactional competence which regards interactants' ability to manage communication. Successful communication, as highlighted in Walsh (2012), relies on "confluence" (McCarthy, 2003, cited in Walsh 2012, p. 4) which is a co-effort by all interactants. The cognitive TBLT that focuses on individual's accuracy and fluency is inadequate to account for SLA. To understand what really happens in the classroom and how communication is achieved by task participants while accomplishing the task, task interaction should be investigated in details using a micro-analytic approach such as conversation analytic method (CA) (Hellermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Seedhouse, 2004, 2005). The attempt to have a fine-grained understanding of how students manage language to achieve intersubjectivity and L2 learning in small group task interaction is the main focus of this study.

CA research of L2 interactional competence has been on the rise since a paradigm shift in SLA (Hall, Hellermann & Pekarek-Doehler, 2011; Kasper & Wagner, 2011). The paradigm shift is inspired by Hymes's notion of language competence (1971, 1974) and Vygotsky's sociocultural view of learning (1978) and catalyzed by Firth and Wagner's seminal article (1997) which calls for a reconceptualization of SLA research. They criticize predominant cognitive SLA studies for their view of language competence or knowledge as a static entity as opposed to a dynamic phenomenon, language acquisition as an individual achievement as opposed to a social one, and language learners as defective communicators as opposed to competent social members. Hence, their article argues for a ***broader*** (an enlargement of traditional SLA database), ***context-sensitive*** (a contextual and interactional dimension of

language use) and ***participant-relevant*** (from an emic instead of etic stance) approach to L2 learning and acquisition (p. 286). Firth & Wagner's call has received an enthusiastic response from many groups of scholars – socioculturalists, conversation analysts, poststructuralists, socio-cognitists, and etc. As a response to their social call, approaches into SLA from these researchers have formed a social group of SLA which is termed by Atkinson (2011) as 'alternative approaches to second language acquisition'. Among these social approaches to SLA, studies which investigate participants' interactional behaviours using a conversation analytic method has inspired this case study (Markee, 2000; 2008; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004; Hall & Pekarek-Doehler, 2011). These CA-based SLA studies are generally termed CA-for-SLA (Markee and Kasper, 2004) or CA-SLA (Kasper & Wagner, 2011).

Conversation analysis evolving from ethnomethodology studies the organization of everyday talk. Through a detailed examination of the unfolding turns of L2 interaction in and out of the classroom, CA practitioners are able to unveil the underlying structures of L2 interactional practices related to learning activities. Following the theoretical, epistemological and methodological broadening of SLA, CA -SLA studies have contributed to theorizing learning as 'learning-in-action' (Firth and Wagner, 2007) or interactional competence (Hall, Hellermann & Pekarek-Doehler, 2011) which views language learning as a social process embedded in interactionally organized and locally accomplished social practices. Learning a language involves a continuous process in which language learners collaboratively employ and adapt linguistic and other semiotic resources to fulfill online communicative need (Pekarek Doehler, 2010). This concept of L2 learning treats L2 learners as social members whose identities are "interactional produced, locally-occasioned and relationally constituted (Kasper and Wagner, 2011, p. 122). The view of learner identity as membership is also held in situated learning which proposes that learning involves a process of engagement in communities of practices (Wenger, 1998). Through recurrent participation in social practices which involve more than two people, a peripheral member of a community will develop into a

legitimate member. The process of developing into a legitimate member overlaps with the process of language development. Hence, L2 learning is not an individual achievement. It is a relationship building with others through the use of language.

CA-SLA that investigates L2 learning as a social accomplishment can be divided into two groups based on its focus of interest: studies into interactional development over a long period of time and studies into learning process involving participants' interactional adjustments for communicative needs. Both strands have investigated interaction in and out of classroom settings. A concrete example of the former can be found in a book-length longitudinal study of Hellermann (2008). Hellermann's study which investigates development of L2 interactional competence in classroom conceptualized as communities of practice has significant implications for this thesis. With a focus on the sequential organization in dyadic tasks, his study demonstrates how L2 learners become more competent participants through repeated task interaction. While such longitudinal approaches have made great contributions to CA account of language development, the long duration of time has raised the difficulty for data collection.

Another approach that explores how learners configure interactional resources for successful communication has contributed to understanding learning process embedded in social interaction. These studies have described a variety of verbal and nonverbal resources used by learners to improve intersubjectivity, achieve interactional purposes and accomplish social practices. Current CA research shows a growing interest in the embodied and multimodal phenomena in classroom interactions (Cekaite, 2009; Kupetz, 2011; Markee & Kunitz, 2013; Yashui, 2013). The embodiment and multimodality highlight the significance of conversation analytic techniques for studying language learning through classroom interaction.

Although CA-SLA studies have contributed to theorizing interactional competence, classroom

interactional competence (CIC) remains an under-researched area. The notion of CIC is proposed and defined by Walsh (2011, p. 158) as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning". CIC studies look at speakers' interactional moves that lead to "learning-oriented interactions" (Walsh 2012, p. 6). Walsh's work on CIC has yielded valuable findings and implications for L2 classroom interaction research and pedagogy. As his work highlights CIC mainly from teachers' perspective, the need for researching learner CIC provides a rationale for this thesis.

This study explores student-led small group task interactions in a Taiwanese technological university using a conversation analytical method. The significance and originality of this thesis is built on the gap in the existing literature of research into learner-learner task interaction and classroom interactional competence. As previously mentioned, while research on task interaction has been a focus of SLA studies, most of this is cognitive based and therefore is limited to examination of meaning negotiations. Moreover, most CA-informed task interaction research investigates dyadic interaction, little has examined group work, and none, to my knowledge has looked into learners' orientation to the group leader role and its effect on group interaction. With a micro-analytic investigation of group interactions, this research hopes to find out how a teacher-assigned role, the group leader, is interactionally and collaboratively constructed by students in small groups and how the leaders' interactional behaviors affect learning opportunities in the group interaction. Characteristics of learner CIC based on the definition provided by Walsh (2006, 2011) will manifest themselves through a micro analysis of small group task interactions involving a group leader.

1.2 Research Context

The data were collected at a private technological university in Taiwan. Over the past few years, developing foreign language abilities of university students has been one of the most

important missions of higher education in Taiwan. English, as a Lingua Franca in the global village, holds the predominant role in foreign language education. To accelerate internationalization for the growing trend towards globalization, more and more universities are financially supported and encouraged by MOE (Ministry of Education) to recruit foreign students, construct a bilingual or multilingual learning and living environment and offer specific courses taught in English. Compared to regular university students, technological university students have a low command of English. Non-English majors, in particular, have lower proficiency than the average of senior high students' (Huang, 2000). With the innovation in curriculum, Taiwanese technological university non-English majors are in urgent need to improve their English ability before they can master the knowledge in their areas of study.

A widely-recognized reason for Taiwanese non-English majors' low achievement in learning English is their attitudes and motivation. Unlike English majors, students studying specific knowledge attend English classes to fulfill the requirements of the school rather than personal needs and wants. Another problem that affects learning may be the oversized class which averagely consists of fifty students. To involve every student in classroom discursive activities, such big classes are often taught in pair work or small group settings. Accordingly, language learning tasks such as information gap or story narrative are often used to generate opportunities for students' use of the target language while engaging in classroom activities. However, as noted by previous research into task interaction, there is often a mismatch between task-as-workplan and task-in-process (Breen, 1989; Jenks, 2006). In this context, the size of the class usually turns the process of negotiation into chaos and 'off-task' (Markee, 2005) free talk, in the L1, unfortunately. Teaching English to Taiwanese technological university non-English majors is apparently a complicated and challenging job for most teachers. For English students in large classes, increasing opportunities to participate in group discussions or class activities becomes a top priority for learning English through classroom

interaction. Equally important are the issues in task-based research. To have a better understanding of what really happens in the classroom, learner-relevant approaches such as conversation analysis which focuses on the turn-by-turn organization of students' task performance should be employed to replace the predominant psycholinguistic approach.

1.3 Methodology and Research Questions

The selected phenomena in this study will be analyzed using Conversation Analysis (Sacks 1992). With its roots in ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1964, 1967), CA is used to analyze language used in social communications. As an analytic method for studying talk-in-interaction, CA is distinctive from other approaches as summarized by Sidnell and Stivers (2013) in the following. Firstly, CA assumes social interaction is orderly in a minute level of details. Different from other approaches that use coded or counted data, CA takes into considerations of detailed human interactional activities. Secondly, the goals of CA analyses are structural. For instance, CA describes the intertwined constructions of practices, action, activities and the overall structure of interaction. Thirdly, CA favors naturally occurring data spontaneously produced by participants in social conversational settings rather than what may generate in laboratories and can be manipulated by researchers. As also noted by ten Have (2007, p. 9), CA considers talk-in-interaction as "a 'situated' achievement rather than as a product of personal intention." By analyzing the naturally occurring phenomena, CA aims to identify structures that underlie social interactions. Fourthly, preparation of data for analysis involves detailed transcription of both verbal and non-verbal features to permit its micro investigation. And finally, as an inductive qualitative method, CA starts from case-by-case analysis leading to generalization across cases. The underlying patterns or structures are expected to emerge through a fine-grained investigation of the turns and sequences.

This thesis aims to investigate how EFL students' interactional work 'doing being a group

leader' (DBGL, henceforth) affect learning opportunities in small group task interactions. As previously mentioned, the data for analysis are collected in English classes taught by two full-time English teachers. Audio and video recordings of the task interactions including the teachers' instructions, group discussions and class presentations are transcribed by the researcher. Analysis of the transcribed data is aimed to address the following questions:

1) In this study, how do EFL students construct the role of a group leader in small group task interaction?
    a) What interactional features can be identified while the assigned leaders talk their role into being?
    b) What interactional resources are employed by students to construct the role of a group leader?
2) How does the construction of a group leader affect group interactions and learning opportunities?

The research questions are developed to track the process that students orient to the construction of a specific identity assigned by the teacher and its effect on learners' participation in task interaction. Students' ability to construct identities that are convergent to the purposes of classroom activities and create learning opportunities through interaction is central to the notion of classroom interactional competence (CIC) (Walsh, 2006). The chapter of data analysis will address these questions with a conversation analytic method.

1.4 Thesis Outline

In this chapter, the context for the research has been described and an overview of the thesis and the purpose of this study have been provided. The following chapter will review the research literature related to the three central aspects of this study: CA-SLA, student-led group interaction, and classroom interactional competence (CIC). This chapter will start with

an overview of a social turn in SLA over the past two decades. Section 2.1 firstly reviews a changing view of language competence which leads to theoretical and methodological issues in SLA. This will be followed by a review of CA-SLA studies in response to Firth & Wagner's call for a reconceptualization of SLA. In 2.2, literature on the issues in task-based research will be introduced and discussed. The first part of this section will review mainstream SLA or cognitive-interactionist approach to task interaction and issues related to task-based learning and learner identity. Criticism from other approaches will be highlighted. In the second part of 2.2, the sociocultural perspective of language learning will be reviewed with a link to the contexts of language classroom and collaboration in learner-leaner interaction. Finally, in 2.3, the notion of classroom interactional competence (CIC) and its relation to learner classroom practices and identity construction will be introduced. This chapter will conclude with a link between conversation analysis, student-led group task interaction and L2 learner classroom interactional competence.

Chapter 3 describes the process of data collection, transcription for this thesis and the methodology used to analyze the data. The rationale for adopting CA analytic method in relation to the research questions will first be mentioned in 3.1. In 3.2, the main principles of conversation analysis along with its ethnomethodological backgrounds will be discussed. This will be followed by a report on the issues in English education in Taiwan and Taiwanese technological universities where the data are collected to highlight the local problem and issues in English education. Subsections will highlight applications of CA to the field of SLA and identity research. 3.3 will give the detailed information about the context, participants, the process of data collection and how the data are transcribed. Limitation of the thesis will be addressed in 3.4. This chapter will conclude with a discussion on validity and reliability of this case study.

Analyses of the transcribed data will be carried out in chapter 4. To address the research

questions, this chapter is organized by firstly presenting how the specific identity 'group leader' is situated in the teacher's instructive talk in pre-opening activity of the task. Following this, section 4.2 through 4.8 will demonstrate how students orient to various aspects of 'doing being the group leader' (DBGL). This chapter will be concluded with a summary of the findings drawn out of the data analyses. Chapter 5 will further discuss the findings in chapter four. The overall findings will be outlined in different sections with various foci. Section 5.1 will discuss the main findings and contribution of this thesis by highlighting learner CIC in this specific context. Section 5.2 will discuss the embodiment of DBGL with a focus on group leaders' configuration of an artefact at hand, a voice recorder, for managing turn-taking. This contributes to an emerging body of research on multi-modal analysis of task group interaction. Section 5.3 will present various orientations to DBGL emergent in the data to highlight classroom dynamics. The multi-orientations to DBGL evidence how students' interpretations of an identity category and their responses to the teacher's instructions may differ. This supports the argument for a micro-analytic investigation into L2 classroom task interaction. Following this, section 5.4 will discuss the relationships between pedagogical focus, task design, and task interaction. Implications for learning through classroom interaction and task-based research will be discussed in 5.5. A conclusion will be provided in section 5.6 to end this chapter. This thesis will be completed with a conclusion chapter which will highlight the implications to classroom language teaching and learning.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter will examine the research literature in relation to the three central aspects of this study: CA-SLA, student-led task interaction, and classroom interactional competence (CIC). In section 2.1, recent debate on basic ontological and epistemological issues in SLA will be discussed before a review of the CA-SLA studies that have informed this thesis. Besides that, a notion of interactional competence will also be introduced. Section 2.2 will review different approaches to task interaction. A focus on collaborative practices of learners in task interaction and how they can affect L2 learning will highlight the major argument in this thesis. Finally, the last part of this chapter will focus on learner expertise which has rarely been discussed in CA classroom research. This will be related to the notion of classroom interactional competence (CIC) in the last part of this chapter. Section 2.3 will introduce the CA perspective of identity and the notion of CIC which is coined by Walsh (2006). Walsh's work further evidences classroom discourse as central to language learning. Although Walsh's framework of CIC is mainly related to teacher's talk, the features of CIC demonstrate the relationships between teachers' and learners' interactional strategies, pedagogical focuses, and L2 learning.

2.1 The Social Turn in SLA: Competence, Learning and CA

2.1.1 *From competence to interactional competence*

Any research on language learning and teaching has to be based on certain knowledge or understandings of what language is. The past decades have seen changing views of language and language competence, which is followed by a reconceptualization of second language (L2) learning theories and SLA (Second Language Acquisition) research methodologies. As is

well known, Swiss linguist, Ferdinand de Saussure's dichotomy of *langue* and *parole* offers the basis of scientific studies of language. Language is viewed as a system of symbols (la langue), the linguistic forms, such as sound system and grammar, which can be examined scientifically without considering how it is used. Meaning, from the perspective of the Saussurian circle, is a stable object which resides in the form rather than in the interaction between human beings engaging in goal-oriented social activity. Similar to Saussure's distinction between langue and parole, Chomsky's Generative Grammars (1965) bears the same notion of language with a dichotomy of *competence* and *performance*. Like Saussure, Chomsky prioritizes the former (the linguistic forms) over the latter (the use of the language). This priority of the linguistic system over language use is criticized by Dell Hymes (1971). As said in his most famous quote, "There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar are useless" (1971, p. 278). It is the socially-constituted knowledge that gives meaning to the language forms. Hymes proposes communicative competence which, in contrast of Chomsky's linguistic competence, is the ability speakers must have in social situations.

Based on Hymes's concept of communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) develop a framework of communicative competence that provides important implications for second language teaching and assessment. Their model comprises grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Sociolinguistic competence is made up of appropriateness and discourse competence. Lyle Bachman (1990) has investigated communicative competence further by proposing communicative language ability for language testing. Studies on communicative competence have great impact on applied linguistics by recognizing language competence as one's ability for social communications. However, they have been criticized for being focused on individual ability of speaking rather than interaction that involves oneself and others (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Young, 2000, 2008). As noted by Young (2008), as essential elements of dialogic speech, 'mutuality' and 'struggle' share the same characteristics of the process of 'meaning negotiation' and 'talk-in-

interaction' which is fundamentally collaborative in nature. In dialogue, the interlocutors engage in a 'cooperative struggle' by adjusting their utterances turn by turn to reach 'mutual understanding' or 'inter-subjectivity' (Young, 2008). In this dialogical view of language, meaning and form are dialectically dependent upon each other. Meaning is forged by speaking; it is not individual thoughts transferred from one brain to another, but "a social and negotiable product of interaction, transcending individual intentions and behaviors" (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 290); and therefore, language is not a static entity but rather a dynamic process which changes through concrete use. This sociolinguistic view of language resonates with the position of ethnomethodological conversation analysis. As a departure from other forms of linguistic analysis that sees language in terms of linguistic structures, CA sees competence as the 'methods' used by social members to maintain social order and accomplish social acts. It is "variable and co-constructed by participants in interaction" (Seedhouse 2005, p. 8). This interactional view of language competence is called interactional competence.

Interactional competence (IC) is first coined by Kramsch (1986). She argues in the following passage that central to successful communication is the intersubjectivity or mutual understanding achieved by participants in interaction:

> Successful interaction presupposes not only a shared knowledge of the world, the reference to a common external context of communication, but also the construction of a shared internal context or 'sphere of inter-subjectivity' that is built through the collaborative efforts of the interactional partners (Kramsch, 1986, p. 367).

Following Kramsch's call, sociocultural researchers such as Hall (1993, 1995, 1999) and Young (1999, 2000, 2008, 2010) have contributed to IC investigations. Hall proposes a framework for the study of oral practices which includes seven components constitutive of members' IC (1993). Young's (2000) model of interactional competence consists of six discursive resources: (1) rhetorical scripts; (2) register; (3) strategies for taking turns; (4) topic

management; (5) participation patterns and roles (6) signaling boundaries. Young & Miller (2004, p. 520) define IC as "participants' knowledge of how to configure these (discursive) resources in a specific practice".

Based on a conversation analytic perspective, Markee (2008) proposes a model of interactional competence which involves language learners' ability of deploying resources including language (grammar), interactional organizations (turn taking, repair and sequence organizations) and nonverbal semiotic systems (eye gaze and embodied action) in conversations. More specifically, according to Markee (2008, p. 3), developing interactional competence involves:

> learners orienting to different semiotic systems—the turn taking, repair, and sequence organization that underlie all talk-in-interaction, combined with the co-occurrent organization of eye gaze and embodied actions—and deploying these intersubjective resources to co-construct with their interlocutors locally enacted, progressively more accurate, fluent, and complex interaction repertoires in the L2.

In short, Markee's formulation of interactional competence is native to conversation analysis with its rejection of any exogenous learning theory. It treats language learners as highly knowledgeable social actors, broadens key issues in mainstream SLA and develops emic accounts of learning behaviors which display participants' cognitive state. This view of interactional competence as the object for second language learning has led to a reconceptualization of SLA theory and methodology. In next section, a review of reconceptualized SLA that leads to the thrust of CA-SLA studies will be provided for further discussion.

2.1.2 *CA-SLA, second language learning and development*

The changing view of language and language competence has provoked a heated and fruitful debate between the psycholinguistic paradigm of SLA theory and a sociolinguistic SLA in the

mid-1990s (Block, 2003). Up until 1997 when Firth & Wagner made an explicit call for a 'reconceptualization' of SLA in their seminal article published in the special issue of Modern Language Journal, the field of SLA was opened up to a whole new world. Their call for an epistemological and methodological broadening of SLA denies a dichotomy of language acquisition and use and views acquisition not only as a cognitive process of individual development but also as a social process in which learners interact with others by using the target language. From a functionalist's view of language and a Vygotskian perspective of cognitive development engaged in social activities, Firth and Wagner asserted that "language use forms cognition" (1998, p. 92). Influenced by Chomskian thinking, the mainstream cognitive SLA's favor of developing individual cognition and grammatical competence has resulted in its priority of quantifying data collected in experimental settings. To encompass a social and contextual dimension of SLA, Firth and Wagner argued for a qualitative approach to the data collected in naturalistic settings including language learning environments and mundane social activities (1997, p. 287). In sum, Firth and Wagner call for three changes in SLA: (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" (*ibid*, p. 286).

As a response to their call, a growing number of researchers have investigated L2 interaction in and out of the classroom using a conversation analytic method (Brouwer, 2003; Carroll, 2004, 2005, 2006; Gardner & Wagner 2004; He, 2004; Markee, 2000, 2004, 2008; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Mondana & Pekarek Doehler, 2004; Mori, 2002, 2004). These CA-informed SLA studies are generally termed CA-SLA (Kasper & Wagner, 2011) or CA-for-SLA (Markee & Kasper, 2004). Conversation analysis (CA) evolving from ethnomethodology is an emic and participant relevant analytic method which studies naturally-occurring talk-in-interaction (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). CA has been used as a powerful methodology for studying social interactions across various disciplines including anthropology, linguistics, communication,

information, computer sciences, and applied linguistics (Kasper & Wagner, 2014). As CA studies the 'methods' (Garfinkel, 1967) people use to participate in social interactions, the focus of CA-SLA is not discrete linguistic system but "social aspects of language acquisition" (Kasper & Wagner 2011, p. 117). As previously mentioned in 2.1.1, CA treats language as sets of resources which are employed and co-constructed by participants in social interaction in order to perform their social acts (Seedhouse, 2005). As contributions in interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing (Seedhouse, 2004), interactants' knowledge of language has a dialectical and intertwined relationship with the interaction it forms. Therefore, as cognition is socially shared from CA perspective (Schegloff, 1991), social realm is not merely a site where social activities take place, it is "an integral part of cognitive development itself" (Mondana & Pekarek Doehler 2004, p. 501). In contrast with psycho-interactionist approach (Gass 1997, Long 1996, Mackey 2007) which sees interaction as a site for meaning negotiation that leads to comprehended input for internalization, CA-SLA treats social interaction both as the means and end of language learning. CA-SLA's conception of language learning is detailed as follows (Mondada, L. & Pekarek Doehler, S. 2004, p. 504):

> language learning is rooted in learners' participation in organizing talk-in-interaction, structuring participation frameworks, configuring discourse tasks, interactionally defining identities, and becoming competent members of the community (or communities) in which they participate, whether as students, immigrants, professionals, or indeed any other locally relevant identities.

In the above definition, language learning is conceived as a process of becoming a member of the community learners participate in. While participating in classroom activities, learner participants are playing a dual role as language learner and community member. By continuously deploying and adapting all sorts of resources at hand including language, physical orientations, classroom artefacts, and etc., learner participants negotiate and achieve intersubjectivity and jointly fulfill the locally emergent communicative needs. This conception of learning reflects the notions of learning-in-action (Firth & Wagner, 2007). The

object for learning is therefore the competence-in-action (Pekarek Doehler, 2010) or interactional competence.

CA-SLA has developed into two directions based on their focus of interest. One group of CA-SLA documents L2 interactional development over time. The other aims to capture the process of learning by investigating how learners orient to language learning in social interaction. Some investigations into L2 interactional development over time are conducted in longitudinal research which lasts at least for a few months (Cekaite, 2007: Hellermann, 2008; Ishida, 2009). By examining the sequential organization of dyadic task interaction, Hellermann (2008) documents L2 learning in terms of changes in the degree of learners' participation in social actions of task opening, story-telling and disengagement from dyadic task interaction. Hellermann's book-length work has greatly contributed to the research into the development of L2 interactional competence in classroom settings and CA-SLA studies. As the work investigates L2 learners' interactional practices in task interaction, it has significant implications for this thesis. His study describes how differently L2 learners with various proficiency levels orient to practices of opening and disengaging from a teacher-assigned task. Cekaite's study (2007) examines the development of taking turns at talk. Tracking the changes in an L2 learners' use of a Japanese article ne in a nine-month study, Ishida concludes that developing interactional competence plays an important part of becoming a competent speaker of a second language. These studies evidence CA's capability of documenting learning in a micro display of changing participation.

As for documenting the process of learning, studies on learners' configuration of interactional resources beyond repair and meaning negotiation have made impressive contributions to this line of research (Firth 2009; Gardner & Wagner, 2004; Hall, Hellermann, & Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Markee, 2000, 2004, 2008; Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004, 2010; Pallotti & Wagner, 2011). This group of research can further be categorized as research into 'doing

learning' which involves orientation to a linguistic item and participation in social practices (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). In his book on conversation analysis, Numa Markee (2000) proposes his model of interactional competence illustrated by two studies investigating word definition sequence using CA as an analytic method. Further in a study on zones of interactional transition (ZIT), he demonstrates how the practices of counter questions and tactical fronting talk can affect learning in the classroom. The findings of his study show "classroom is not only a learning place but also a social place" (2004, p. 593). Since CA can only account for what is observable, it has been questioned for its capability of documenting learning. To solve this problem, some CA practitioners have adopted sociocultural or situated learning theory for theorizing CA-SLA (Young and Miller, 2004; Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004). To maintain CA's emic stance, Markee (2008) proposes a longitudinal learning behavior tracking (LBT) methodology which consists of learning object tracking (LOT) and learning process tracking (LPT). Being native to emic CA-SLA, LBT starts with unmotivated looking for interactional practices achieving learning behaviors. Repair has been reported as an important resource used by learners to achieve learning behaviors. A repair sequence is usually initiated when there is a communication breakdown due to insufficient knowledge of the speaker or lack of intersubjectivity between interactants. Through a repair sequence, the knowledge gap is filled and mutual understanding is achieved. Besides repair, this line of research has identified interactional practices such as word search (Brouwer, 2003), definition talk (Markee, 2000), designedly incomplete utterances (Koshik, 2002), doing word explanation (Mortensen, 2011), choral practices (Ikeda & Ko, 2011), and etc. An increasing interest in this area has continued investigating interactional practices that achieve learning behaviors.

In the book-length collections of studies on L2 interactional competence edited by Hall *et al* (2011), Sahlström (2011) documents the process of learning by looking at changes in epistemic stance or claims of understanding by two Swedish-Finish bilingual children doing

learning to count to ten in English. Arguably, Sahlström seems to suggest that documenting learning 'in and as the parties' undertaking of interaction rather than having to rely on pre-formulations of change' (2011, p. 48) is more relevant for a CA's account of learning. He identifies interactional features such as 'epistemic topicalization' and 'oriented-to-knowledge asymmetries' as constitutive of learning situation. While claiming no understanding or requesting help, a participant positions him/herself as a novice and others as experts. After language support is provided, a changed epistemic stance is displayed by the participant as evidence of learning. With a focus on the learning process, Sahlström's study, in line with Lee's work (2010) investigating how learners locate learning problems and orient to its possible solutions in social interaction is closely relevant to the current thesis. Most of the studies in this group that have inspired this thesis are conducted in classroom settings. To avoid redundancy, I will refer to them again in next section. The literature review so far has explained the impact of the social turn in SLA by reviewing CA-based second language studies. The literature reviewed in this section demonstrates a social-interactionist perspective of L2 learning the thesis is based on. In the next section, the focus will be switched to L2 classroom task interaction. I will firstly review issues in cognitive-based task approaches. Following that, a review of CA investigations into learners' interactional practices in task interaction will highlight the gap in the current literature. The above-mentioned CA-SLA studies may be referred again whenever relevant for the discussion.

2.2 Learner-Learner Classroom Task Interaction

L2 learning and teaching in instructional settings such as classrooms has been one of the most researched areas in second language acquisition. The paradigm shift in SLA has had a significant impact on this field of research. Earlier studies on second language classroom have prioritized investigating teaching methodology, teacher talk or teacher performance. When the advocacy of communicative approach (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979) appeared in the 1970s,

which emphasized the need to develop a learner's ability to take part in spontaneous and meaningful communication, a proposal for task-based approaches was introduced (Prabhu, 1987) and rapidly gained popularity in language teaching and learning. TBLT research (task-based language learning and teaching) is conducted on three dimensions: systemic vs. process, macro vs. micro, and quantitative vs. qualitative (Samuda & Bygate 2008, p. 85-86). Earlier research into task-based interaction which was based on Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983) adopted a systemic approach. The systemic approach which isolates interactional features of meaning negotiation for quantitative analysis has received criticisms from more process-based, qualitative research proponents (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Jenks, 2006; Seedhouse, 2004, 2005; Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009). Adopting Breen's (1989) conception of a task in three aspects, task-as-workplan, task-in-process, and task-as-outcomes, Seedhouse and Almutairi (2009) argue for a holistic approach to L2 task interaction. Unlike systemic approach, they adopt a process-focused approach which investigates "how all features interrelate, how they combine and contribute to the L2 learning process" (ibid, p. 314). This thesis looks at how L2 learners construct a teacher-assigned role interactionally and collaboratively in task interaction. The focus is on what learners do with other group participants to make the role relevant and accomplish the task. As a link to section 2.1, in this part of literature review, I will firstly examine issues in task-based research to highlight the relevance of a holistic or micro-analytic approach for this study. Following that, task-based research using a micro-analytic approach will be discussed with a link to the focus of Section 2.3.

2.2.1 *Issues in task-based research*

As previously mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, second language studies had been dominated by the cognitive paradigm before the call for the social turn in the 1990s. In the cognitive paradigm, second language classroom research which is influenced by Long's (1983) Interaction Hypothesis (IH) or the Input-Interaction-Output model for learning (IIO)

(Block, 2003) has looked into the role of negotiated interaction in second language acquisition (Gass, 1997, 2013; Hatch, 1992; Long, 1996; Long & Porter, 1985; Mackey, 2007; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Pica, 1994; Swain, 1985). This model explains that interaction between L2 learners and native speakers or more competent learners promotes language learning through negotiation for meaning (NfM), modified, comprehended input, and opportunities for learners to produce language and test new output hypotheses. According to Long (1996, p. 451-452), "negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS (native speaker) or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways". It is 'the interactional adjustments triggered by meaning negotiation' that is considered to be the site for learning opportunities in terms of input for internal processing. Meaning negotiations occur when communication breaks down due to learners' insufficient L2 knowledge. In the negotiation process, interactional devices such as repetitions, confirmations, reformulations, comprehension checks, confirmation checks, clarification requests, etc. are used to repair communication breakdowns. Learning occurs in the crash of communication due to learners' insufficient knowledge or errors. Learning opportunities are created when learners are aware of the knowledge gap between their proficiency level and the standard of the target language. In this conceptualization of learning, learners are viewed as defective communicators who are often identified as NNS (non-native speaker) or less competent participants. According to interaction hypothesis, these language adjustments or NfM provide input to task-takers for language acquisition and use. Among these interactional devices, interactional feedback which can generate positive and negative evidence is reported to be most beneficial for language development. A number of interaction studies have investigated the effectiveness of interactional feedback on learning opportunities with a focus on the type and components of feedback (see a review of Mackey and Gass, 2006). The following examples of three types of interactional feedback, explicit correction, recasts and prompts, briefly illustrates how input is

generated in language adjustments (Lyster & Mori, 2006). All the examples are extracted from Mackey, 2007 (pages. 14, 19 and 20).

<u>Extract 2.1</u> Explicit feedback from a learner

Learner 1	the man prepare for traveling
Learner 2	E-D
Learner 1	E-D he prepared

<u>Extract 2.2</u> Recast with modified output

Learner	But she was never come back
Interlocutor	She never came back?
Learner	Never came back he was very sad

<u>Extract 2.3</u> Prompts

Learner	I got home about eight and after I go swimming
Interlocutor	Huh?
Learner	I went to swimming with my friends

The focus on recasts and corrective feedbacks or repair as source of learning opportunity has some empirical issues. These interactional devices may be common in teacher-student interaction when the lesson is focused on forms such as grammatical or lexical items. In the context which is focused on developing fluency or communicative skills, the teacher may opt to let pass the student-made errors to avoid interrupting student's contribution. Moreover, in some classroom settings where most learners have the same level of proficiency, recast and corrective feedbacks are not common in learner-learner interaction. These may be the reasons why a lot of IIO-based approaches are conducted in a laboratory setting. The solution suggested by Long (1996) is the use of tasks which 'orient participants to shared goals and involve them in some work or activity' (p. 448). Long's suggestion implies an assumed correlation between task design and its implementation. It has been reported that information gap may generate most NfM (Pica, 2005). However, evidences of a mismatch between task design and expected performance have been provided in many studies (Coughlan and Duff,

1994; Donato, 2000; Mori, 2002; Ohta, 2001; Seedhouse, 2005c). As mentioned in Kasper (2004), there are "discrepancies between task as instruction and the actual doing of it, and they demonstrated that understanding of and approaches to a task vary among students" (page. 553).

As mentioned in 2.1, cognitive-interactionists adopt Chomsky's division of competence and performance. They view discrete linguistic items as the object for L2 learning. Task or task interaction can be used to increase learners' attention to a learning object and draws out learners' language production. The aim of cognitive-interactionist approach to task interaction is to find out the type of interactional devices that generate the most comprehensible input from more competent interlocutors and modified output from learners. To achieve this purpose, data collection is often conducted in experimental settings with a pre-test and post-test design and the interactional patterns are coded for quantification (see Keck et al, 2006; Mackey, 2007). With a focus on the opportunity for comprehensible input and modified output, investigation to conversation is limited to patterns of NfM and many interactional features that are significant for language development in terms of participating in social acts are sacrificed. This etic (researcher-relevant) approach which ignores the contextual significance of conversations has caused criticism from socio-oriented researchers (Lantolf 2000; Lantolf & Thorne 2006; Swain 1995; van Lier 2000, 2006).

Drawing on the works of Bakhtin, Dewey, Peirce and Vygotsky, van Lier (2006) argues for an ecological approach to second language learning. According to van Lier, ecological approach views learners' activities particularly verbal and nonverbal interaction which learners are engaged in as fundamental for language learning. This position is in line with social-interactionist perspective of interaction and learning. Regarding language learning, van Lier suggests the notion of input should be replaced by the notion of affordance which 'refers to the relationship between the properties of the environment and the active learner' (2006, p.

257). Following van Lier's argument, classroom interaction can be conceived as an ecosystem which provides affordances to active learners who are engaged, perceive linguistic affordance and use them for further action. The notion of affordances in an ecosystem shares some similarities with the notion of communal resources in communities of practices conceptualized in situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). According to situated learning theory, learning involves a process of engagement in communities of practices. In the language classroom as a community of practices, learning opportunities are not limited to NfM or corrective feedbacks. Like affordances in an ecosystem, learning opportunities are created by an active learner through configuration of the resources in the entire interaction. L2 learners in a classroom as community of practices are conceptualized as competent social members and language users. As argued by Kasper "learning in conversation-type interaction is not limited to negotiation of meaning or to repair occasioned by the learner's deficient interlanguage. Rather than one predetermined type of interactional sequence, the entire event that learners participate in deserves close scrutiny" (Kasper 2004, p. 553). To put the entire event under close scrutiny requires a detailed micro-analysis of interaction. Conversation analysis which looks into every detail of social interaction perfectly suits the needs.

2.2.2 *CA-SLA studies of task interaction*

What distinguishes classroom interaction from ordinary conversation or other institutional talk is probably the specific purpose for pedagogy. L2 classroom interaction is a dynamic phenomenon which has a reflexive relationship with the pedagogical focus. According to Seedhouse (2004, p. 101), the organization of turn and sequence varies if the pedagogical focus changes. The pedagogical focus is usually set and introduced by the teacher and the classroom interaction is mostly controlled by the teacher. Based on the pedagogical focuses identified in the L2 classroom, L2 classroom interaction can be categorized into form-and-accuracy context, meaning-and-fluency context, task-oriented context, and procedural context (Seedhouse, 2004). Most tasks used for TBLT aim to have learners attend to specific forms

through meaning negotiations while engaged in meaningful task interaction. In task-oriented context, students engaged in task interaction have two goals to fulfill: accomplishing the task and learning the knowledge stated in the task or introduced by the teacher. The focused knowledge to be learned in a task is the task-as-workplan (Breen, 1989). After analyzing a database of around 330 L2 lessons, Seedhouse (1999) concludes that the organization of task-based interaction is tightly constrained by the focus on the accomplishment of the task rather than on the language used to negotiate meaning. As mentioned in the beginning of Section 2.2, there is ample evidence in task-based research of a mismatch between task-as-workplan (the intended pedagogy) and task-in-process (what actually happens in the classroom). Hence, the findings provided by CA-based task research, which is process-focused by examining participants' interactional behaviours in task interaction, may offer more practical implications for teachers who are interested in using language learning tasks for L2 instruction.

As introduced in Section 2.1, CA investigates social members' methods for managing social interaction. These methods are defined as "systematic procedures (of turn-taking, repairing, opening or closing conversation, and etc.) by which members of a social group organize their conduct in a mutually understandable and accountable way" (Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2015, p. 235). Hence, the subject for CA-SLA is not language but communication; not language competence but interactional competence (Pekarek Doehler, 2010). Different from an etic stance adopted by cognitive-interactionists, A CA approach to L2 task interaction adopts an emic point of view which looks at how learning opportunities emerge in the course of interaction while participants communicate to accomplish the task. By investigating different aspects of task interaction from participants' point of view, CA studies of task interaction have yielded significant findings. Through investigations into learners' interactional competence in word search (Brouwer, 2003), definition talk (Markee, 2000), opening task (Hellermann, 2008), story-telling (Hellermann, 2008), disengagement from task

(Hellermann, 2011), negotiating boundaries (Mori, 2004), response to and use of topic proffers (Nguyen, 1996, 2001), CA has been proved to be capable of "documenting learning in behavior terms" (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010). As the main focus of this thesis is L2 learners' interactional competence in managing group task interaction as a group leader. The above mentioned studies have significant relevance to this research. In the following discussion, I will refer to the literature mentioned above and in previous sections in detail to explain how they have informed this study and how this research can fill the gap in existing literature. The review of literature will focus on learner's interactional competence in managing task interaction.

Managing task boundaries

One of the most cited works that investigate interactions in task boundaries is Hellermann's research. As part of a large research program, Hellermann has investigated how learner dyads develop their interactional competence in opening and disengaging from teacher-assigned tasks (Hellermann 2007; Hellermann 2008; Hellermann & Cole 2009). His study on task opening shows that student dyads have improved the practice of task opening over time by incorporating language from the teacher and from one another as interactional resources in recurrent practices. He later reports in his book-length work that students of lower-proficiency tend to open the task directly, while higher-proficient students wait for other participants to ensure recipiency and orient to planning the task before launching it (2008). How students close the task interaction with peers when the task is completed also attracts his attention. By focusing on one learner's disengagement practice, Hellermann and Cole find evidence of learning in terms of José's changed practice over time. The learner's participation in the practice of disengagement changes from acting as a peripheral participant to a fluent English language user. These studies provide empirical data about how L2 learners in different classroom community of practices manage the boundaries of a task. These CA-SLA studies of

task interaction evidence CA's ability to address L2 learning by tracking how learners develop interactional practices rather than linguistic knowledge.

Repair and repair initiation

In CA, repair is usually defined as 'a treatment of trouble' that occurs in interaction. Anything that obstructs communication is regarded repairable (Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks,1977). There are normally four kinds of repair trajectories: self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated self-repair, and other-initiated other-repair. The way CA deals with trouble is very different from that of cognitive-interactionist SLA (Fasel Lauzon & Pekarek-Doehler 2013; Hall 2007; Seedhouse 2007a). The difference is elaborated in Fasel Lauzon & Pekarek-Doehler (2013). According to their study, the FoF research deals with linguistics forms from an etic perspective by quantifying coded data, while the CA approach adopts an emic perspective which is participant relevant by examining what participants focus on rather than what the researcher focuses on. This thesis also adopts an emic perspective of identity by looking at how L2 learners position themselves as a group leader and group members in task interaction. This emic view of identity as interactionally constructed by interlocutors will be discussed later in Section 2.3.1. To understand a repair sequence from participants' point of view, the researcher has to address two questions proposed by Fasel Lauzon & Pekarek-Doehler (ibid, p. 327): (1) how can we identify, on empirical grounds, what exactly participants focus on? (2) how can we tell, on empirical grounds, that a focus on form initiated by a single participant (e.g., the teacher) becomes a joint focus? The same argument is made by Seedhouse & Walsh (2010) in their words "…the crucial issues are who perform the correction, how they perform it, and in what interactional setting the uptake is displayed" (p. 139). Moreover, nonverbal expressions which are not significant data in FoF are important interactional features for CA. Hence, to address the above questions, an emic approach to repair pays close attention to participants' "sequential and multimodal deployment of talk"

(ibid, p. 329). The ability to deploy **sequential and multimodal resources** in talk is a display of interactional competence.

Repairs can be done in different ways for various purposes in classroom settings. Repair sequences are formulated differently based on varied pedagogical focuses for different classroom contexts (Seedhouse, 2004). As noted by Seedhouse (ibid, p.153), based on empirical findings from classroom data, in task-oriented contexts, “trouble is defined as anything that hinders the learners’ completion of the task”. When the goal of task accomplishment is mutually understood by learner participants, no attempt on correcting linguistic forms is made by learners. Repair is initiated mostly when a trouble source obstructs task accomplishment. It is true that in a limit of time, most students participating in a task tend to focus on the accomplishment of the task without attending to linguistic errors. Moreover, one reason that linguistic errors are not noticed or dealt with in task interaction is the absence of the teacher. However, in group discussions led by leaders who may take on a teacher’s role, is there possibility that linguistic error will be treated and formed differently from dyads or groups without a leader? To what extent students’ orientation to a leader’s role may affect the repair sequence? When students in groups have trouble with a form which they orient to incidentally, how do they deal with the problem? This research hopes to provide answers to these questions by looking into the collected data.

Learning opportunities that arise in repair sequences are not necessarily in the form of comprehensible input. In a study of Hellermann & Doehler (2010), space for participation is created through learners’ repair of a communication breakdown due to peers’ insufficient knowledge. Although no uptake is displayed and no learning of linguistic item is documented, their study highlights learners’ interactional competence in using a repair sequence as a method to achieve mutual understanding, resume the interaction and complete the task. This notion of learning as doing or participation is different from traditional SLA’s view of

learning as having or acquisition (Sfard 1998). The former subsumes the latter. To participate in interaction, learners need to have linguistic knowledge as a resource; but the development of linguistic knowledge is embedded in a co-constructed social practice.

Repair initiation and completion by learners may be conducted very differently from teachers and also between learners. Yashui (2010) has reported the differences in repair patterns between advanced and beginning Japanese learners. It is found in her study that the advanced learner's proficiency is displayed through his preference for self-repair, while the beginner orients to his deficiency with a preference for other repair. Learners' orientation to differential knowledge while doing repairs is also reported in Hosoda's work (2006, p. 44). The researcher concludes that learning opportunities arise when speakers orient to differential knowledge in repair sequences. The static, etic view of 'native' or 'nonnative' speakers should be replaced with a "flexible, locally contingent notion of target language expertise." She also suggests further exploration of locally constructed language expertise in other types of interactional practices.

Word search

Another common practice in learner-learner task interaction is word search. Word searches are often described as "cases where a speaker in interaction displays trouble with the production of an item in an ongoing turn at talk" (Brouwer 2003, p. 535). Often in these cases, phrases like "what's it called?", "how do you say that?", and "how do I put it?" will be used by the speaker to signal a trouble. Word searches are often seen in L1 interaction when a speaker fails to recall a word at the moment but retrieves it later. In L2 discourse, a word search sequence is often treated as a gap in L2 learner's knowledge which needs to be filled, just like an error to be corrected in a repair sequence. By examining NS-NNS interaction using CA method, Brouwer concludes that word searches provide learning opportunities by

inviting other participant to participate in the search and by orienting to expertise. A word search can be signaled by an explicit marker addressed the hearer or the speaker him/herself (doing thinking), a pause, a gesture, a gaze shifted away from interlocutor (doing thinking) or an implicit marker like ‘uh’ or ‘uhm’. Although the word search sequences analyzed in Brouwer’s study are not classroom data, the findings have significant implications for my study. In my data, there are quite a few examples of word searches formulated with almost all the features mentioned here. Some of the teacher-assigned leaders are positioned as language experts when their group members request language assistance from them.

Another word search study that is related to this thesis is conducted by Reichert and Liebscher (2012). Their study investigates the relationship between learner’s negotiation of expertness and learning opportunities in peer-peer word search practices. Drawing on positioning theory (Harré &van Langenhove, 1991) and socio-interactionist notion of situated learning, they argue that negotiation of expert positions creates learning opportunities. Their findings show that while negotiating for expert positions, the word in search is noticed repeatedly by the learner. This increased noticing creates opportunities for learning of the lexical item.

The intent of this thesis is to find out the link between identity construction through classroom discourse and learning opportunities or learning potentials. In my study, participants’ orientation to group leader position appears in varied practices including managing the boundaries of a task, repair and repair initiation, and word searches. While orienting to the role of group leader in these practices, they orient to their expertise and power, which, as a result, leads to learning opportunities. The literature review will now turn to the emic perspective of identity and language expertise, and classroom interactional competence.

2.3 Identity, Expertise, and Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC)

L2 learners in cognitive-interactionist studies are usually identified as NNS (non-native speaker) as opposed to NS (native speaker), less competent participants who constantly make errors and therefore are defective communicators. This view of L2 learners has been criticized by Firth & Wagner in their often-quoted marks as follows:

> The identity categorizations NS and NNS are applied exogenously and without regard for their emic relevance. The fact that NS [native speaker] or NNS [non-native speaker] is only one identity from a multitude of social identities, many of which can be relevant simultaneously, and all of which are motile (father, man, friend...) is, it seems fair to conclude, a nonissue in SLA. For the SLA researcher, only one identity *really matters*, and it matters constantly and in equal measure throughout the duration of the encounter being studied (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 292).

They criticize the NNS (non-native speaker) category that is imposed on L2 learners from an etic position and argue for an emic positioning of L2 learners. The above notion of identity suggests identity is not a static entity. It is transportable since several identities of an individual can be relevant simultaneously; it is related to the job a person does or functions as in a society, such as a teacher or a caller; it also reflects an action an individual is performing at a moment of talk-in-interaction, for instance, a caller; moreover, it is a relationship with others, like son and father, husband and wife. This conception of identity shares some characteristics with an ethnomethodological and conversation analytical perspective on identity. An emic positioning of L2 learners, as argued in Firth & Wagner (1997), is central to an ethnomethodological and CA perspective of identity which views identity as locally constructed in discourse by interaction participants. MCA (Membership Categorization Analysis) looks at identity "as performed, enacted and embodied through a variety of linguistic and nonlinguistic means" (de Fina *et al* 2006). This emic perspective of identity can be applied to the view of expertise and power that emerge from interaction. Empirical studies

such as the works of Yashui (2010), Hosoda (2006), and Reichert and Liebscher (2012) mentioned in Section 2.2.2 have provided evidence for this dynamic, emic perspective of identity. In this section, I will discuss this emic positioning of identity as rooted in ethnomethodological CA and how it is related to language expertise and interactional competence.

2.3.1 An EM-CA perspective on identity

An EM-CA (ethnomethodology and conversation analysis) view of identity is well illustrated in the collection edited by Antaki and Widdicombe (1998). Informed by EM-CA's view of social life as joint practices of people, Antaki and Widdicombe proposes a notion of identities in practice which views "a person's identity as his or her display of, or ascription to, membership of some future-rich category" (ibid*,* p. 2). They argue that adopting an ethnomethodological spirit, an analyst's understanding of an identity category is based on the understanding displayed by the interactants themselves. This is an emic perspective of CA. As argued by socio-interactionists (see the above quote of Firth & Wagner, 1997), researcher on L2 learner identity should adopt such an emic position. In Brouwer's words, "relevant identities, rather than being a given, are *made* relevant, or "oriented to" in the interaction. Often in subtle ways, but noticeable to other participants, participants show each other which social categories are relevant for the interaction in progress." (ibid, p. 536). Identities which are constructed in interaction or performed by interactants can be called conversational identities or categorical identities (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006), discourse identities (Zimmerman, 1998), or participant roles (Rine & Hall, 2011). A CA-based identity analysis proposed by Antaki and Widdicombe is an appropriate method for analyzing identity in discourse.

Based on the literature since Sacks, Antaki and Widdicombe propose five general principles for analyzing identity (1998, p. 3):

- For a person to ‘have an identity’ – whether he or she is the person speaking, being spoken to, or being spoken about – is to be cast into a category with associated characteristics or features.
- Such casting is indexical and occasioned;
- It makes relevant the identity to the interactional business going on;
- The force of ‘having an identity’ is in its consequentiality in the interaction; and
- All this is visible in people’s exploitation of the structure of conversation

These five principles are derived from Sacks’s work on ‘membership categorization devices’ which relates to people’s use of language to arrange things in order, such as in collections of things or a class of category sets, such as ‘the family’. With this categorization, everything in the world belongs to a collection or set which share common properties which are category-bound features. According to the device, a person can be a member of unlimited categories if he/she has the features of those categories. Categories and features imply each other reflexively. That is, ‘someone who displays, or can be attributed with a certain set of features, is treatable as a member of the category with which those features are conventionally associated” (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998, p. 4). So, if a student is chosen to be a group leader, he/she might act in a way that makes him/her to be taken by others as a group leader.

Indexicality and occasionedness explain that the relevance of a category is related to the indexical context. For example, in a school setting, a group of students are better referred to as students than men and women. The third principle is especially important regarding CA’s emic point of view. As said in A & W’s words, ‘one should take for analysis only those categories that people make relevant (or orient to) and which are procedurally consequential in their interactions” (ibid, page 4). *Procedural consequentiality* refers to what Schegloff (1992) explicitly recommends for analyzing identity. It is ‘holding off from saying ‘this person is a quantity surveyor’ until and unless there is some evidence in the interaction that his or her behavior was, in fact, consequential *as* the behavior of a quantity surveyor” (*ibid*, page 5). In my understanding, this is simply to say a person can be safely analyzed as an

identity category only when he talks into being that identity category. No assumption about a person's identity should be made until there's evidence in interaction. The last principle, *conversational structures*, refers to interactional organization (of turn-taking, overlaps, repairs, interruption, and so on) For instance, in an adjacency pair, a question is expected to be responded by an answer. These principles developed from the basic concepts of ethnomethodology and especially conversation analysis provides an attitude or a mentality for analyzing identity. Analysis of learner identity for this thesis is also based on these principles. Identity analysis proposed here is a discourse-related approach.

2.3.2 Identity construction as interactional competence

As aforementioned in the review of literature, interactional competence (IC) is interactants' 'methods' (Garfinkel, 1967) for managing social interaction, which include turn-taking, repairing, opening and closing a conversation (Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger 2015). While engaged in social interactions, interactants orient to a variety of participant roles to achieve online conversational purposes. These discourse identities "emerge as a feature of the sequential organization of talk-in-interaction, orienting participants to the type of activity underway and their respective roles within it" (Zimmerman 1998, p. 92). A 911 call-taker is oriented into a questioner to elicit information from the caller as a question answerer. In classrooms, teacher and learner may adopt roles like instruction giver-instruction follower, error corrector- error maker, questioner-answerer, and so on to achieve various pedagogical purposes. The ability to invoke and manage appropriate roles in a given practice is essential for competently and recognizably participating in that practice (Rine & Hall, 2011). Given that, identity construction is an important aspect of interactional competence (Hall 1993; 1999; Kasper 2005; Rine & Hall, 2011; Young 2000, 2003, 2008). Prior studies on discourse and identity have discussed how interactants construct their discourse identities or participant roles through interaction. For instance, Richards' study (2006) demonstrates how orientation to different aspects of identity affects a teacher-fronted

talk. More recently, Rine & Hall (2011) reported how one international teaching assistant (ITA), Xu, developed interactional competence in performing the role of an ITA. Drawing on the insights of prior studies, this thesis not only examines the relationship between identity construction and discourse patterns in student-led group interaction, but highlights L2 learners' interactional competence in performing a role designated by the teacher as part of task accomplishment.

L2 learners have been identified in cognitive SLA as defective communicators due to their insufficient knowledge. If identity is understood from an emic perspective, which views identity as situated and constructed in interaction, language proficiency which has been used to categorize L2 users should also be understood from an emic point of view. As commented by Thorne & Hellermann (2015, p. 281), "expert-novice relationships do not rest upon linguistic competence (or any other single factor alone), but rather manifest in actual interaction in complex and multidimensional ways". This view of language expertise has been supported and illustrated in the empirical studies reviewed in Section 2.2.2. How language expertise or deficiency is made relevant through the language of learners participating in group interactions and how this relevance has affected learning space is another area this thesis will contribute to.

2.3.3 *Classroom interactional competence and L2 learning*

In an EFL context, most English learning takes place in English classrooms. As central to the notion of interactional competence, language development resides in interaction. To enhance learning and learning opportunities in this specific context, both English teachers and learners need to be aware of their online interactional decisions in the classroom. Classroom interactional competence (CIC) is proposed and defined by Walsh as 'teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning' (Walsh 2006, p. 132). It is assumed that understanding and developing CIC helps both teachers and learners produce

more dynamic and learning-oriented interactions in classrooms (Walsh, 2011). Walsh's construct of CIC derives mostly from teacher-learner interactions. He highlights the features of CIC from a teacher's perspective as follows (Walsh 2006, p. 131; Seedhouse & Walsh 2010, p. 141, Walsh 2011, p. 172):

- A teacher's CIC is both convergent to the pedagogic goal of the moment and also appropriate to the learners
- CIC facilitates interactional space.
- CIC shapes learners' contributions.
- CIC makes use of effective eliciting strategies.

To increase teachers' awareness to their classroom language use, Walsh develops an SETT framework (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk) which can be used by teachers for developing classroom interactional competence. According to Walsh, SETT is "an example of an ad hoc self-observation instrument" which helps teachers to have a "fine-grained, up-close, ecological understanding of their local context" (Walsh 2013, p. 69).

The SETT framework portrays thirteen interactional features (interactures) that constitute four classroom micro-contexts (modes): managerial, materials, skills and systems, and classroom context. Each mode has its own features that are closely related to its pedagogical goal. The main focus for a managerial mode is to introduce or close classroom activity. The pedagogy in the materials mode is centered on a piece of material such as a worksheet or a textbook. The mode of skills and systems provides activities for language practice focused on a specific linguistic item. In classroom context mode, the focus is on developing learners' communicative skills and oral fluency. The role of the teacher is supportive and collaborative. The details of the interactional features in each mode can be found in Walsh's work (2006, 2011). As classroom interaction has a great impact on learning opportunities and learner participation (Walsh, 2002, 2003), Walsh has called for wider and deeper investigation into

CIC to conclude his paper. In Walsh's words (2012, p. 12), "…more research in uncovered features of CIC, which will then lead to a more in-depth understanding of teaching and learning practices in language classrooms'.

The notion of CIC has been addressed implicitly or explicitly in some studies on second language classroom interaction in various settings. Lee and Ng (2009) examined the impact of teacher interaction strategies on learner reticence by analyzing teacher-fronted and learner-learner interactions collected in two secondary schools in Hong Kong. Their study showed that appropriate teacher interaction strategy such as facilitator-oriented strategy can reduce learner reticence and create more opportunities for participation. Coyle et al. (2010) investigated the influence of IWB (Interactive Whiteboards) on the language use of teachers and learners in an English language immersion classroom. Based on their findings, they suggested teacher education program should focus on developing teachers' classroom interactional competence as well as on their technological skills. Language alternation has been regarded as important teaching strategy in EFL contexts. It is argued by Waer (2012) to be incorporated as a significant aspect of CIC. By examining students' CIK (Claims of Insufficient Knowledge) based on an applied CA and multimodal analysis, Sert (2011) argued that successful management of students' CIK is an important feature of CIC.

The majority of the features of CIC mentioned above and in Walsh's work are highlighted from teachers' classroom interactional practices. This is pinpointed by Walsh himself, "…although CIC is not a sole domain of teachers, it is still very much determined by them." However, as classroom interaction involves both teacher-learner and learner-learner conversations, there is a need for student data to highlight CIC from learners' perspective. This need provides a research gap for this thesis. In learner-learner interactions generated by language learning tasks which engage learners in meaningful communications, what interactional features or 'interactures' of learners' discourse can be incorporated in the

construct of CIC? This study hopes to provide an answer to this question.

2.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have reviewed the literature in relation to the conceptions of second language learning in cognitive-interactionist SLA and socio-interactionist SLA. The former adopts an internalization view of learning; while the latter looks at learning as co-participation in social activity which involves at least two individuals. Firth & Wagner's call for a reconceptualization of SLA, or more accurately, a holistic approach to SLA in the mid-1990s has provoked a trend using sociolinguistic data and methods to investigate second language learning in and out of classroom settings. These socio-oriented studies have developed into CA-SLA which uses CA analytical tool for examining micro contexts of L2 interactions. This thesis examines the link between L2 students' interactionally-constructed identity and learning opportunities in classroom task interaction. Previous research on L2 task interaction was reviewed by highlighting the argument from an emic approach to task interaction. Literature of the relationships between task design, learners' interpretations and task performance is presented to make suggestions for future investigations to task-based language learning and teaching. The last part of the review is focused on CA perspective of identity and a dynamic view of language expertise, and classroom interactional competence. Based on an emic perspective, EM-CA treats identity not as one have but one does in discourse. Identity is displayed, ascribed to and socially constructed in interaction. The review on the conceptions of classroom interactional competence and empirical evidences of CIC in classroom data provides the foundations the thesis is built on and the research gap this study aims to fill.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.0 Introduction

The methodology employed by this thesis is a micro-analytic method which is known as conversation analysis (CA). In this chapter, the rationale for adopting CA analytic method in relation to the research questions will first be mentioned in 3.1. In 3.2, the main concepts and characteristics of conversation analysis along with its ethnomethodological backgrounds will be discussed. This will be followed by a report on the issues in English education in Taiwan and Taiwanese technological universities where the data are collected to highlight the local problems and issues in English education. Subsections will highlight applications of CA to the field of SLA and task-based research. 3.3 will give the detailed information about the context, participants, the process of data collection and how the data are transcribed. 3.4 will discuss validity and reliability of this case study. A conclusion in 3.5 will end this chapter.

3.1 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This thesis aims to investigate the relationships between EFL students' interactional work that displays group leadership and learning opportunities in classroom task interaction. As previously mentioned, the data for analyses are collected in two English classrooms taught by two full-time English teachers. Audio and video recordings of the task interactions including the teachers' instruction, group discussions and class presentation are transcribed by the researcher. Analysis of the transcribed data is aimed to address the following questions:

1) In this study, how do EFL students construct the role of a group leader in small group task interaction?
    a) What interactional features can be identified while the assigned leaders talk their role

into being?

b) What interactional resources are employed by students to construct the role of a group leader?

2) How does the construction of a group leader affect group interactions and learning opportunities?

The research questions are developed to understand how EFL students orient to the construction of a specific identity assigned by the teacher in task interaction; and, through that orientation, how the organization of task-in-process is altered and the learning space is created. From the ethnomethodological and conversation analytic perspective (Antaki and Widdicombe, 1998), identity is displayed by self and ascribed by others. Positioning or categorizing the group leader in L2 group interaction encompasses mutual understanding between the leading students and their group members. To achieve this, participants in group interaction have to closely monitor, analyze and understand the moment-by-moment turn construction made by self and others so as to make relevant responses to the prior turn. Conversation analysis which is able to portray the negotiation of intersubjectivity or socially-distributed cognition serves this purpose right. Moreover, as previously mentioned in the chapters of introduction and literature review, approaches to second language learning should adopt a more holistic perspective which reconciles cognitive and social perspectives. Given the reasons, conversation analysis is used in this thesis to examine the interrelationships between language learning, classroom interaction and learner identity. In the following section, the origin of conversation analysis, its basic concepts and characteristics pertaining to this thesis will be provided.

3.2 Conversation Analysis

Emerging in the works of sociologists Harold Garfinkel, Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff,

Gail Jefferson and their colleagues in the 1960s and 1970s, CA can be briefly defined as the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction (ten Have 2007; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). Although talk involves language, it is not the analysis of language or linguistic form that is of interest to CA. The actual object of CA studies is the interactional organization of social activities. That is, CA investigates how language is used by participants to do things. What CA studies is articulated by Hutchby & Wooffitt (2008, p. 12) as follows:

> its actual object of study is the interactional organization of social activities. CA is a radical departure from other forms of linguistically oriented analysis in that the production of utterances, and more particularly the sense they obtain, is seen not in terms of the structure of language, but first and foremost as a practical social accomplishment. That is, words used in talk are not studied as semantic units, but as products or objects which are designed and used in terms of the activities being negotiated in the talk: as requests, proposals, accusations, complaints, and so on. Moreover, the accomplishment of order, and of sense, or coherence, in talk-in-interaction is seen as inextricably tied to the local circumstances in which utterances are produced.

With its roots in ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1967), CA cannot be fully understood without referring to its ethnomethodological foundations. Following the above description of the object of CA studies, this chapter will start with a brief introduction to the origin of CA, the basic concepts of ethnomethodology in relation to the present study.

3.2.1 The ethnomethodological foundations

As CA evolves from ethnomethodology, the latter subsumes and informs the former. Both approaches study social actions from the standpoints of social members with a focus on their methods, language and social interaction, albeit in different ways. The methodological techniques used by ethnomethodology such as interviews, ethnography and quasi-experimental demonstrations are different from CA’s audio and video recordings of naturally occurring interactions. They also have different analytic attention, as said by Seedhouse (2004, p. 3), “ethnomethodology studies the principles on which people base their social

actions, whereas CA focuses more narrowly on the principles which people use to interact with each other by means of language". Hence, their commonalities lie less in topics of interest or research methods but more at deeper levels where we can find their bonds in 'theoretical assumptions, analytic sensibilities and concerns with diverse phenomena of everyday life' (Maynard and Clayman, 2003, p. 177). Seedhouse (2004) has outlined five principles underlying ethnomethodology: indexicality, the documentary method of interpretation, the reciprocity of perspectives, normative accountability and reflexivity. Among these principles, I will focus on those relating to people's orientation to an identity category and second language learning.

The principle of normative accountability, according to Seedhouse (2004, p. 11), is the 'moral force' which holds all the other principles together by providing a basis for interpretation and social action. Social norms and social order are not rules or instructions that social actors should follow; but rather are constitutive of actions. They are *seen but unnoticed* and are used by people as action templates or points of reference for interpretation in order to accomplish their daily social actions (Seedhouse 2004). For instance, providing an answer to a question or responding to a greeting is seen but unnoticed. Failure to do so may be noticeable, accountable, and sanctionable. In relation to this study, group members' rejection to the leader's turn allocation may be sanctionable. It's similar to a denial to the teacher's instruction since the leader is explicitly selected by the teacher. Examples of indexicality can be found in a variety of gestures and bodily orientations of learner participants. For instance, in section 4.2, when the group leader Austin leans forward toward other group members, the leaning posture becomes an indexical that forecasts something will be said immediately and secures recipiency. While the other group members raise heads and shift gaze at him, they display their interpretation and understanding of Austin's shifted posture and index their action in the same way. For reflexivity, when a group leader asks a question to elicit members' opinions, the question has also created a context for its answer. The documentary method of

interpretation treats social action as a 'document', an example of previous known pattern or schema (Seedhouse, 2004). It is not only a method of interpretation for interactants; but also a method which can be used by the researcher to analyze interaction.

In sum, by reference to these principles, social actors can analyze, interpret and understand interactants' methods and with that understanding they can design their own methods to achieve intersubjectivity and therefore accomplish ordinary social actions including language learning. Hence, positioning or categorizing one's own or other's identity is both a resource and production of interaction (Antaki and Widdicombe,1998).

3.2.2 The principles of CA

Despite its roots in ethnomethodology, CA has developed its own principles and procedures as follows. These principles of CA help CA practitioners adopt a 'conversation-analytic mentality' when dealing with the data ((Seedhouse 2004, p. 14-16).

(1) There's order at all points in interaction.

There is always a purpose for something being said if the speaker is viewed as a rational actor who makes online decisions to achieve the aim of the talk. Hence, a talk is formulated and oriented systematically and methodically towards the fulfillment of that purpose. CA is used to uncover the underlying order that controls the talk. According to Seedhouse (2004), this is vital to an understanding of the institutional discourse. CA studies in language classroom interaction have reported a reflexive relationship between pedagogical focus and language use (Seedhouse 2004; Walsh 2006). Assumption can be made that learners' language use in task interaction also has a reflexive relationship with the goals to complete the work at different stages of task activity (Hellermann, 2007).

(2) Contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing.

This might be the most important principle in relation to this study. Social communication relies on a shared understanding between the interlocutors. Speakers display an understanding of the prior turn in their sequentially next turn. This is how talk is context-shaped. Talk is context-renewing because the current contribution, which is shaped by the context, constrains and constitutes the subsequent talk in turn. In institutional interaction, for instance, L2 classroom conversation, participants analyze each other's turn and display understanding not only of the preceding turn but the relationship between the institutional goal/pedagogic focus and the interaction (Seedhouse 2004, p.194-195). It is these understandings of participants that are wanted for CA analysis.

Through this next turn proof procedure, analysts can trace how participants orient to interaction. In the case of this study, the teacher's selection of group leaders at the pre-opening setting projects some responsive moves from the chosen students. By closely examining the turn-by-turn unfolding of group interaction, I will be able to unveil how the identity is displayed by the chosen leaders, ascribed by the members, and how this co-orientation to the identity may invoke learning space in relation to task accomplishment.

(3) No order of detail can be dismissed a priori as disorderly, accidental, or irrelevant.

CA studies the order of everyday talk which is naturally occurring in the real world. Hence, every bit of details is regarded meaningful in conversations. To fully capture the talk of interest, audio and video recording is used for data collection. Recordings of talk are then transcribed in details for analysis. Nonverbal features such as eye gazes, gestures and bodily orientations are displayed in images captured from video recordings. This detail mania ensures none aspect of the talk is dismissed a priori.

(4) Analysis is bottom-up and data driven; we should not approach the data with any prior theoretical assumptions or assume that any background or contextual details are relevant.

CA is data-driven and participants relevant. This is the ‘emic’ position that CA inherits from ethnomethodology. By rejecting an ‘etic’ or an analyst’s perspective which usually draws on an external theoretical framework, CA analysts intend to find out how participants in conversations understand or make sense of any given utterance. Since most mainstream SLA studies are theory-driven and CA can only account for what is observable, CA-SLA research has received doubts on its ability of documenting and theorizing learning (Kasper, 2006). A few solutions have been proposed to solve this methodological issue (Markee, 2008). This thesis is aimed to describe how learning opportunities are increased through learners’ orientation to a specific role ‘the group leader’. The category adopted from Zimmermann (1998) is used to describe the findings not for scientific coding. The concept of learning is borrowed from situated learning or community of practices. Therefore, this is an applied-CA not a pure-CA approach (ten Have 2007; Seedhouse 2004).

(5) *The essential question which we must ask at all stages of CA of data is "Why that, in that way, right now?"*

The research questions of this study are formulated based on this principle. As suggested by Hutchby and Wooffitt, “What interactional business is being mediated or accomplished through the use of a sequential pattern? How do participants demonstrate their active orientation to this business?” are two crucial questions in CA (cited in Seedhouse 2004, p. 16). This study aims to find out how students talk a specific identity into being, and how the process of identity construction affects learning opportunities in their task interaction. So are the research questions formed to serve this purpose. Answers to these questions are expected to manifest in a close examination of unfolding turn construction of task participants.

These principles should not be applied as a formula or a set of instructions that provide rules to be followed, but rather as a conversation analytic mentality, a distinctive way of seeing and thinking about the social world (Schenkein, 1978). With this CA mindset or attitude,

researchers can set out to explore the core business of interaction by employing the CA analytic techniques introduced in the following section.

3.2.3 CA as an analytical technique

As shown in the principles, CA interprets the actions of interactional participants not from an analyst's point of view but from the participants' perspective. To access the participants' perspective, which is also the perspective "from within the sequential environment in which the social actions were performed" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 252), CA practitioners can employ interlocking organizations of interaction which were uncovered by Sacks and associates in their previous studies (Sacks et al, 1974): turn design, turn-taking, sequence organization, and repair. These interactional organizations are used by interactants "normatively and reflexively both as an action template for the production of their social actions and as a point of reference for the interpretation of their actions" (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 17). This thesis will investigate how leader students display the identity in discourse. The following is a brief summary of these organizations.

(1) Turn design

A turn can be designed by the speaker in a way that it fits the recipient. This is called a *recipient design* (ten Have 2007, p. 136-137). A speaker may construct an utterance for it to be understandable for the expected recipient. *Preference organization* is related to turn design. Turns can be designed to show the preference of an action. For example, acceptance to an invitation is preferred; while a rejection tends to be dispreferred. Acceptance is usually formulated in a quick and direct way; whereas rejection is often delayed and followed by a reason for it. Any utterance can be packaged or formulated in different ways. It relies on the speaker's understanding of the evolving environment to make a meaningful choice. Turn design is closely related to this thesis. In my data, the leader students formulate their utterances in a way that is different from the way group members would say. To display an

identity or to make it relevant in speech, an utterance has to be strategically designed so that the identity can be easily perceived by other group members.

(2) Turn-taking organization

One basic fact in the turn-taking organization in conversations is that only one speaker talks at a time with occurrence of speaker change in minimal gap and overlap. Speaker change normally happens at the point known as the *transition relevance place* (TRP), and at the end of any *turn constructional unit* (TCU). The ways in which speaker change can be organized are identified in the classic paper of Sacks et al (1974):

- A next speaker can be selected by the previous one
- A speaker can self-select
- The present speaker can continue speaking

(3) Sequence organization

One basic insight of CA shown in the sequence organization is that “social actions do not happen randomly; in many cases they follow a fixed sequence” (Young 2008, p. 45). One action links to another one. The most common example of linked actions in an action sequence is the adjacency pair. In an action of inviting someone to a party, the first part of the pair is the invitation and the response is the second part. The first pair part projects how the second pair part may be formed.

(4) Repair

Repair is the treatment of communication breakdowns when the message is not successfully understood by interactional parties. Compared to other settings, repair may be the most discussed phenomenon in CA approaches to L2 classroom interaction. Seedhouse (2004) identifies four types of repair: self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated self-repair, and other-initiated other-repair.

3.2.4 CA for SLA

The idea for using CA as a tool for second language research has been promoted in the mid-1990s. In a seminal article in an issue of the MLJ 1997, Firth and Wagner call for an emic, learner-relevant and interaction-oriented approach to SLA. CA which examines the organizational structure of talk-in-interaction is regarded by social interactionists (Markee 2000, p. 45) as capable of describing SLA with the following characteristics:

- Based on empirically motivated, emic accounts of members' interactional competence in different speech exchange system;
- Based on collections of relevant data that are excerpts of complete transcriptions of communicative events.
- Capable of exploiting the analytical potential of fine-grained transcripts;
- Capable of identifying both successful and unsuccessful learning behaviors, at least in the short term;
- Capable of showing how meaning is constructed as a socially distributed phenomenon, thereby critiquing and recasting cognitive notions of comprehension and learning.

Ethnomethodological CA investigates how social members use their methods to accomplish their communicative needs. These methods, as illustrated by Mondada and Pekarek Doehler (2004, p. 503), are "systematic procedures (of turn-taking, repairing, opening or closing conversations, etc.) by which members sustain, defend, and adjust their interpretations and their conduct in order to make them mutually understandable". Ethnomethodological CA treats cognition as socially distributed. Cognitive activities such as memory, perception, learning, and understanding are treated as "socially constituted, concerted, occasioned, and deployed for practical purposes" (Kasper 2008, p. 61). Traditional SLA views knowledge or linguistic competence as discrete items which are separate from language use. CA deals with interaction. Therefore, competence is known as interactional competence, language as language use. There have been doubts raised by cognitive SLA about CA's capability of documenting learning. To dispel the doubts, a number of longitudinal researches have

evidenced how CA can document learning in behavioral terms.

3.3 Participant, Research Context and Data Collection Procedure

As a micro-analytical tool which examines naturally occurring data in great details, the goal of CA is "to build a convincing and comprehensive analysis of a single case, and then to search for other similar cases in order to build a collection of cases that represent some interactional phenomenon" (Lazaraton, 2003, p. 3). Every single case is like a good 'naturalist's specimen' (ten Have, 2007). Every specimen represents part of the reality. A large collection of cases may constitute the whole of the reality.

The original intent of this study is to examine the relationship between learners' collaborative interactional practices and learning opportunities in classroom task interaction. The multi-case design, which includes three classes with two in student groups setting and one in teacher-fronted setting, intends to collect a variety of interactional features that create learning opportunities in different contexts.

3.3.1 The research settings

The data were collected at a private technological university, Southern Taiwan University of Science and Technology (STUST henceforth) located in the north-eastern suburb of Tainan City in Southern Taiwan. When the data were collected, the University had a total of five colleges, 23 departments, 33 graduate institutes with 30 Master's programs and 3 doctoral programs, and eight research centers. The faculty was comprised of 804 members and the total number of students was approximately 18,000. The researcher has been an English teacher at this university for a very long period of time and will continue her teaching there after the completion of her study. This extensive teaching experience has equipped the researcher with necessary membership knowledge (Kasper & Wagner, 2011) which includes a

sound understanding of the setting from which the data have been collected. Membership knowledge helps the conversation analysts understand the data in a pre-analytic manner. Since the researcher has been both a learner and teacher of English in Taiwan, it is easier for her to adopt the participants' perspectives while analyzing the data.

	Case 1 Teacher A	Case 2 Teacher B		
Tasks	Class A	Class B1	*Class B2	
1	19-03-09	17-03-09	Unit	19-03-09
2	02-04-09	24-03-09		25-03-09
3	26-03-09	31-03-09		26-03-09
4		07-04-09		30-03-09
				02-04-09
				09-04-09

(Table 1: recording timetable and plan)

	Classroom Interaction Patterns
Class A (30 students in seven groups)	Task-oriented small-group interaction
	Group spokesperson's class presentation
	Teacher-student interaction
Class B1 (15 students in three groups)	Task-oriented small-group interaction
	Group spokesperson's class presentation
	Teacher-student interaction
Class B2 (Seven students in pairs)	Teacher-student interaction (teacher-fronted setting)
	Student-student dyadic interaction (peer writing conference, paired preparation for debates, peer test review)
	Students' class presentation (word journal)

(Table 2: types of interaction to be recorded)

3.3.2 The teacher participants

Both of the teacher participants were English teachers of STUST while the data were collected. Teacher A obtained her Master's degree in TESOL at Newcastle University in 2008. Since then, she has been teaching English as a part time teacher at several universities in southern Taiwan. Having studied in the same university, she has a close relationship with the researcher. As a young English teacher from Taiwan, she may not have rich experience in this field; however, she has good command of English, effective communicative skills, and a pleasant teaching style. Data collected from her class consist of interaction of thirty second-year English majors doing three tasks in her English Speaking Training course.

Teacher B, a native speaker of English from America, had been teaching at STUST for two and a half years when the data were collected. With a Master's degree in applied linguistics, he also has several years of teaching experience at private language institutes in Taiwan. The data collected in his two classes for this study include classroom interaction generated by all four tasks which are done by fifteen second year students registered in the Sophomore TOEFL iBT Preparation course and six TOEFL iBT lessons for seven first and second year postgraduate students.

Before the data collection commenced, both teachers had had several discussions through email and skype with the researcher regarding the purpose of the study, the procedure of collecting data, and the ethical issues. The teachers were given scanned copies of the task materials, the pre-task self-report and part of the findings of the pilot study conducted by the researcher. They were asked to participate in the task-based interaction by providing assistance and language support such as giving task instructions, form-focused and meaning-focused repairs, and giving definitions of uncertain words.

3.3.3 The learner participants

Learner participants in this study are 40-50 college students of various majors at STUST. Students taught by teacher A are all English majors, most of whom have passed GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) elementary level. These students are taught by teacher A in her English Speaking Training course which aims to help them build up the ability for passing the Spoken test of GEPT intermediate to high-intermediate level. According to teacher A's description before data collection, most of the students can speak fluent English and are enthusiastic in participating in class activities. This has gained proof in the recordings and the researcher's observation. This class has participated in another research which audio-taped the lessons for one semester. Knowing that this study involves video-taping their class activities, the students agree with no reservation and even show some excitement about seeing themselves on the camera.

Student participants taught by teacher B are registered for two courses, Sophomore and Postgraduate TOEFL iBT Preparation Courses. The sophomore class is a combination of students studying a variety of subjects. Four students in this class are international students from Vietnam, Thailand and Cambodia. Most of the students in this class have been taught by the same teacher for more than a year. Overall, students in this class show fluency in English communication, albeit with lack of accuracy sometimes. This course aims to help students obtain a required score of TOEFL iBT in order to study at overseas sister schools of STUST.

Students enrolled on Postgraduate TOEFL iBT Preparation course are six first year postgraduates and one second year postgraduate studying in different areas. The students show different levels of proficiency in oral production. Data collected in this class comprise of teacher-learner interaction in a teacher-fronted setting, dyadic and small group interactions. Although the data generated in TOEFL class has been collected, due to the poor recording

quality of students' utterances, the data are not used for this study.

3.3.4 The data collection procedure

(1) Selecting the tasks

As mentioned previously, a large number of SLA studies have used tasks to explore the relationship between learner-learner interaction and second language learning. Although information gap tasks are believed to be able to create optimal opportunity for meaning negotiation (Pica 2005, Pica *et al*, 2006), other research employing both qualitative and quantitative methods (Nakahama *et al*, 2001) or CA approach (Jenks 2009) found this type of task constrained interactional patterns. The focus of this study is to investigate how student participants orient to a specific identity category, the group leader, as part of the task activity and how this orientation affects their participation in task interaction. To generate a variety of interactional patterns, tasks selected for this study are all open convergent tasks (Ellis, 2003) which require participants to provide opinions and achieve a solution agreed by all group members. The tasks used for this study were all adapted from commercial ESL textbooks (Interchange B3) and resource books (see appendix 4 for task materials). These tasks are completed in two phases. In the first phase, the class is divided by the teachers into five or six groups with four to five students in each group. Group members are fixed for every task. During the second phase, each group has to report the result of their group discussion to the whole class. There are three tasks to be completed during the whole data collection session. Further Information about the task types, potential learning objects and procedures is provided in table 3 below.

1. Story telling *A tale with a twist* (sequenced pictures: nine pictures	Give each group a copy of the worksheet. Read the title and explain that 'a tale with a twist' is a story with a surprise ending. Tell the students in groups to tell the story by using the words that are given under each picture.

in total, with language cues + open ending) Potential learning objects: Past simple and past continuous verb tense	(1) Worksheets of sequenced pictures and language cues are distributed to the students. (2mins) (2) The teacher explains how to do the task. (3mins) (3) Students work on the draft of their stories. (15mins) (4) The group spokesperson tells the story. (15mins).
2. Problem solving *Death on the Canal! A mystery* Potential learning objects: Past modals	(1) Put students in groups of five. (2) Each group is given a picture that illustrates a mystery. (3) The students have to answer the questions on the worksheet and work out a story (a mystery) from the picture. (20mins) (4) Each group tells their story to the whole class. (15mins)
3. Ranking exercise *NASA Game*	(1) The teacher distributes the handout to each group. (2min) (2) All the groups read the instructions on the handout and solve all language problems. (5min) (3) Each group discusses and ranks the items. (15min) (4) The group spokesperson reports group solution and gives the reasons for their decision. (15min)

(Table 3: task types, learning objects and procedure)

(2) The pilot study

In order to test the feasibility and the effectiveness of the selected tasks and the data collection methods, a pilot study was conducted two weeks before the data collection commenced. Participants were three postgraduate students studying at Newcastle University. The original research design includes four tasks, three of which are listed in table 3. The one that is excluded in the main study is a story-telling activity related to Task 1 (see table 3).

Participants were required to tell a story using at least fifteen words out of twenty two words on the word list. The words provided for this task were selected from the words given under each picture in Task 1. While doing the task, participants in the pilot study found it difficult to compose a story out of the words provided without extra clues, and especially in a limited time. Moreover, considering this type of task might constrain the patterns of interaction, the researcher decided not to include the task in the main study.

Data collected for the pilot study were audio recordings of three task-generated interactions between three participants. The recordings were later transcribed by the researcher following CA conventions. The analysis of transcriptions showed a variety of interactional features were generated in the task discussions including repair and repair initiations, confirmation check, clarification request, code-switching and word search.

(3) Data collection methods

CA was originally developed on the basis of audio-recorded data. With the advance of technology, the enterprise nowadays has expanded by including video recordings. Video recordings are a better 'reproduction' of social events since nonverbal expressions such as gestures, gaze directions and physical movements which can only be captured by video recorders are important interactional features especially in L2 interaction. For instance, gazes withdrawn away from co-participants may indicate the speaker is engaged in thinking, so the interlocutors can avoid interruption (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986). Also, it's seen quite often that EFL/ESL teachers mimic actions to enhance students' understanding of the L2 or to explain a word (Lazaraton, 2004). More importantly, nonverbal expressions such as physical orientations, object manipulation and gestures are adopted by students as a resource for doing interactions (Hellermann, 2006). Another advantage of using videos comes from the rich contextual information it may provide.

The main dataset of this study was collected by audio- and video-taping the classroom interaction occurring in the periods listed above in table one. The recorded lessons were taught in different classroom settings shown in appendix G and H. Room one, where Teacher A's lessons were taught and filmed, is a specially designed classroom which aims to video-record teachings for teachers' self-reflective practices. This room is equipped with three cameras mounted on the ceiling, a computer with internet access, an overhead projector and a white board. The capacity of this room is sixty people. At the back of the room is a recording studio where a student assistant controls the directions of the cameras and digitize the recording at the same time. Two additional cameras set up on tripods were placed in front of two groups of students. Seven mini digital recorders were placed on the tables for audio-recording each group interaction. Room two is a meeting room with a long table in the middle surrounded by several chairs and a stand-alone whiteboard. This is the site where Teacher B teaches his lessons to all his TOEFL classes. Three cameras and four mini recorders were used to gather the data of Class B1; two cameras and four mini recorders were used for Class B2. The layout of the classes filmed can be found in the appendices.

While making the recording of Task 2, one group from class B1 was recorded in another room adjacent to the original classroom where two other groups were being recorded simultaneously. The reason to separate the class is due to the poor quality of the recording made in the first task (a week before this recording). With three digital camcorders mounted on tripods and two people operating the camcorders, there was not much room left for the teacher to move freely around the classroom. One group of students had to sit in a circle instead of a semicircle, facing each other with some participants' backs facing the camcorder. Without attached microphones, the digital recorders laid on the table could only capture loudly and clearly produced speech with noises from other groups. This arrangement unavoidably triggers an issue of CA's construct validity in terms of naturally occurring data. One principle of CA is the interactions recorded should be produced 'naturally' instead of

‘experimentally’ (see section 3.2.2). However, ‘naturalness’ can only be achieved in an ideal but not realistic situation. At the moment the camera was set up, the recorders were placed, the microphones were attached, and the researcher entered the classroom, the interactions can thus be affected in some way.

3.3.5 Data analysis procedure

The analysis of the data is focused on two kinds of practices: identity construction and L2 learning. Before the focus is identified, I employ an unmotivated looking at the data and wait for the phenomena to emerge themselves. While looking into the data, I ask myself these questions’ as guiding questions “What actions have been performed and in what way?”. These guiding questions navigate my observation of the messy environment. Before the phenomenon of identity is noticed and probed into, the focus is on students’ collaborative practices. Firstly, I identify the learning objects as products of co-construction of learners. Students’ orientation to the learning items is illustrated and the learning behaviours are recognized through the examination of turn-taking management, repairs and word searches. Identity orientation is firstly observed when leader Austin allocates turns. To examine how identities are performed and made relevant by participants in the discourse, I focus my analysis on the turn design organization and preference organizations. At the final stage, I look into how these two trajectories, identity construction and language learning affect each other.

3.3.6 Transcription

Before analysis can be conducted, the natural occurring data have to be transcribed using a transcription method developed by Jefferson (2004). Any detail of talk including intonation, prosody, speed, pitch, volume, breathiness, laughter and so on, is deemed relevant for analysis. Hence, any aspect of talk, verbal or nonverbal, has to be carefully transcribed.

The activity of transcribing data has been described as a 'noticing device' which provides "the researcher with a way of noticing, even discovering, particular events, and helps focus analytic attention on their socio-interactional organization" (Heath & Luff 1993, cited in ten Have 2007, p. 96). Transcripts of a large database can provide CA practitioners easy access to the data for comparative studies and applied CA research. Furthermore, transcripts presented in publications put the analyses based on them under scrutiny. This provides CA research the reliability in the way that other research methodologies cannot achieve. Transcribing audio- and video-recordings following CA conventions is a time-consuming and tedious work. Transcribing one hour of recording for each group interaction may take up to 40 hours of work (Markee, 2000). Even so, since transcripts are viewed as the main source of the data, CA researchers almost always do their own transcription. Nevertheless, transcripts are not a substitution for the recordings. They are "selective, 'theory-laden' renderings of certain aspects of what the tape has preserved of the original interaction" (ten Have 2007, p. 95). In this study, only the phenomena that can provide answers to the research questions are transcribed. Another issue of transcription in this study is participants' use of the L1 in the data. L1 used in this study are translated by the researcher and her colleague to achieve internal reliability.

3.4 Trustworthiness and Authenticity

3.4.1 Reliability

The reliability of CA studies, according to Peräkylä (2004, p. 288), involves selection of *what is recorded, the technical quality of recordings and the adequacy of transcripts*. To ensure the reliability in CA research, researchers should have access to as large a database as possible, carefully plan the arrangements of recording and produce a rich and correct transcript. The reliability of qualitative research cannot be assessed in the way quantitative research is.

However, Seedhouse (2005) argued that the way CA studies present their data in publications demonstrates another aspect of reliability, the replicability. By displaying the transcripts, analyses and even the raw data for online access, the reliability of CA studies is available for public scrutiny.

3.4.2 Validity

With a discussion of four kinds of validity considered in qualitative research, Seedhouse (2005) provides a detailed account of validity related to CA studies. *Internal validity,* which involves "the soundness, integrity and credibility of findings" (*ibid*, p. 255), is concerned with the emic perspective that CA research attempts to develop. The emic perspective, which is the participants' perspective rather than the analyst's, can be justified through close examining the details of the interaction. To achieve validity in an emic perspective, a CA study must be obsessed with details, avoids a priori assumption or theories and excludes contextual features such as gender, race, etc. Qualitative studies are thought to be context-bound and therefore, are weak in terms of external validity, or generalizability. As a criterion for assessing a qualitative study, external validity is replaced with transferability by Guba and Lincoln (1985, in Bryman 2004). *Ecological validity* relates to whether findings are applicable to people's everyday life. This study based on analysis of naturally occurring classroom interactions, compared to experimental SLA studies conducted in laboratories, is relatively strong in terms of ecological validity. *Construct validity* is difficult to achieve in this study. Whether the interactional features identified in the tasks constitute the construct learner identity needs further examination by applying the framework in different contexts.

3.4.3 Ethics

Written permission for the audio and video recordings of interaction was granted by the participants and the head of the English department at STUST. All the participants were given information about the purpose of the recording, the procedure of data collection and the way

the data might be used and presented. Participants were informed the right to revoke permission at any moment of their own free will. It is recommended that the names of the participants were better replaced with T (teacher) and L (learner) in the transcripts. Individual learner participant was labeled with numbers such as L1, L2, etc.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the principles of methodology which will be employed in analyzing the data in chapter four. Building on the literature reviewed in chapter two, presentation of the main principles of conversation analysis and ethnomethodology provides a rationale for using CA as a main methodology for this thesis. A CA approach encompasses time-consuming data collection procedure, transcription procedure and analysis procedure that require micro and detailed observation. The research context including the classes observed, the teacher background and the university where the data are collected. With reliability and validity addressed in the last part of this chapter, this methodology chapter concludes with addressing the ethics issues.

Chapter 4. Data Analysis

4.0 Introduction

The data analysis chapter will examine how student groups' orientation to a teacher-assigned role, the group leader, affects learning opportunities in group discussions and their task performances. To address the research questions that enquire about the relationships between learners' doing identity work and learning opportunities, analysis of the selected interactional practices is two-fold: portraying the interlocking processes of learners' orientation to language learning and identity construction. I present a variety of interactional practices through which participation is enhanced while the role of group leader is made relevant by group of students participating in task discussions to accomplish the tasks.

This thesis adopts ethnomethodological and conversation analytic perspective of identity, which views identity as a tool and an achievement of interaction (Antaki and Widdicombe, 1998). Students' orientation to display of leadership involves how the group leaders talk themselves into a group leader and how the characteristics of this identity are ascribed by other group members including the teacher. This chapter is organized by firstly presenting how the specific identity 'group leader' is situated in the teacher's instructive talk in pre-opening activity of the task. Following this, Sections 4.2 through 4.9 will demonstrate how learning space is facilitated by students' orientation to various aspects of 'doing being the group leader' (DBGL). This chapter will conclude with a summary of the preliminary findings.

The data have been transcribed following the conventions commonly used in CA (Appendix B). Each extract heading is labelled with a number followed by a description of the action or a key phrase, the task (T1=Task 1), the teachers (TB=Teacher Brooks, TL= Teacher Linda) and

the group leader. The names of the participants are presented in short forms such as Austin (Aus), Kevin (Kev), Rinoa (Rin), and etc. For the needs of the analysis, some additional symbols are used to mark the onset of non-verbal features (+) and English translation of learners' L1 (tr.:). Pictures captured from the video recordings are used to support the description of nonverbal behaviors (gesture, eye gaze, posture and body movements) with an arrow to show directions of the movements. Presentation of the pictures in this thesis is agreed by the participants with signed consent letters.

4.1 Selecting the Group Leader

Task activities in teacher Brooks' class start with the teacher's instructions about the upcoming task. After writing down the instructions on the whiteboard, the teacher turns to face the class and asks them to choose a group leader. While doing so, he changes his mind and decides to choose the leaders by himself. In the second line of the teacher's monologue below, the speech in angle brackets which is produced more slowly may indicate the teacher is engaged in thinking before he decides to appoint the leaders. After this talk, the teacher approaches each group and appoints the leaders by handing them the voice recorders.

Extract 4.1: Appointing the group leaders_T1_TB

T: And, you need to choose a speaker or a leader for your group. Each group should have one person that will speak for your group. Ok. <And (.) if you> don't want to choose on your own, I will choose for you. Actually it'll be better if I choose for you. Alright. So whoever I give the recorder to is the leader, ok.

(Figure 4.1: T is holding the recorder and showing it to the class.)

The teacher's handing over the mini-recorders signposts the transition from teacher-cohort interaction to student-student interaction. This 'pre-opening' activity also functions as a 'prospective indexical' (Goodwin, 1996) which provides for mutual understanding of what would be relevant for the chosen students and their group members to speak and act in the upcoming talk.

According to the above talk of the teacher, the appointed leaders will present the result of group discussion to the class. However, students have displayed different understanding of the instruction. Most groups have their leaders do the presentation; while some groups select the spokesperson. The way students interpret and respond to the teachers' task instructions can have great impact on their task performance. The same task can be performed by different groups of students in completely different ways. This evidences classroom interaction is dynamic and has to be closely examined on a turn-by-turn basis. In the next section, analysis of the selected extracts will first examine how leadership is displayed and ascribed to one of the assigned leaders, Austin, while his group orient to the opening of the first task. Students engaged in these tasks have to fulfill three goals: to accomplish the task, to produce the highlighted grammatical structures and to perform the assigned roles (group leader and members). Students' interactional adaption to local contingencies in order to achieve the pedagogical goals is in itself learning (Hellermann, 2008).

4.2 Managing the task

The following three extracts constitute the pre-opening activity that precedes the group discussion led by student Austin. The group of students orients to this pre-opening to make plans for the task. In the three extracts, students orient to various discourse identities to accomplish various task-related actions. A learning space is created while participants negotiate meaning to achieve intersubjectivity.

Extract 4.2: what about_T1_TB-Austin/ making plans

53	→	Aus	+uh:: what about (0.2) un choosing (.)+two people (0.9) +write
54			out the stories (0.7) + two people (0.6) + [go up to stairs
55		San	[stay:: °here°
56			(0.2)
57		San	uh [huh↑ ((nodding her head))
58		Aus	[stage and (0.2) [tell everybody
59		T	[only one

(Figure 4.2: line 53, 'uh::')

(Figure 4.3: line 53, 'two people')

(Figure 4.4: lines 53-54, 'write out the stories')

(Figure 4.5: line 54, 'go up the stairs')

Learner participants in this extract are about to launch a pictured-storytelling task after the

teacher chooses the group leaders by handing them digital recorders. Learner Austin is chosen to be the leader of the group here formed by four people, Austin (Aus), Sandy (San), Cindy (Cin), and Emily (Emi). In this extract, Austin performs his leader duties by taking initiative to suggest a way to formulate the task discussion. His suggestion in this pre-task opening (Hellermann, 2008) provides opportunities for all group members to negotiate and decide how the discussion will be conducted. Group leadership is displayed in the way Austin suggests the plan and the way other participants respond to his turn.

Austin employs a series of hand gestures, eye gazes and body movements accompanied with his speech while initiating his turn. The use of non-verbal expressions successfully engages everyone's attention and enforces mutual understanding. His suggestion is delivered in a slow speed with many in-turn pauses. He firstly leans forward to the girls and starts his turn with a stretched marker "uh::" (figure 4.2). To make the suggestion, he uses the phrase 'how about' that serves as the first pair part of an adjacency pair and opens the space by inviting other learners' opinions. His hand movements which almost synchronize with his speech successfully secure the attention of his addressees (Goodwin, 2003). In the figures above, we can see the girls either fixes gaze at Austin or shift gazes with his physical movements. Cindy looks up at him when he holds up two fingers saying 'two people' (figure 4.3); while Austin points to his worksheet to highlight the pictures to be described, she also shifts her gaze back to her worksheet (figure 4.4). Emily, who has focused on her worksheet, finally gazes at Austin in the end of his speech (figure 4.5). Despite the in-turn breaks, no one interrupts Austin's turn except Sandy's overlapping utterance in line 55. The overlapping verbal phrase suggests Sandy has been closely monitoring Austin's talk. Sandy's attentive listenership is also evidenced by her fixed gaze at Austin throughout the turn. At the end of the sequence, Sandy uses an acknowledgement marker 'uh huh' with head nods to display recipiency and arguably, agreement with Austin's plan (57).

<u>Extract 4.3</u>: We vote_T1_TB_Austin

68		T:	so:: if you vote (0.2) if you vote
69			(0.7)
70		T:	°you don't want° hehe ((looking at Austin)
71	→	San:	we vote [we vote⁺=
			⁺ ((San quickly points her index finger at C, E and then towards A; holds up her right arm twice after the pointing))

(Figure 4.6: line 71)

(Figure 4.7: line 73)

72		Aus	[ohhhhh
73		San	=Austin (0.5) ahhhhuhuhu

Extract 4.3 closely follows the talk in extract 4.2 with a few lines omitted. In this extract, the teacher repairs Austin's task plan since only one person will present the story. He advises the group to select their spokesperson by having a vote (line 68). Judging from the T's speech at line 70 with his gaze shifted to Austin, the idea of voting for the spokesperson is not welcomed by Austin since it's very likely that he will be voted as the spokesperson. This happens in the following turns produced by learner Sandy with a strategic interactional arrangement accompanied by tactical use of gestures. Sandy immediately adopts T's suggestion. The way she responds to the teacher's suggestion is interesting. Instead of using a single person indicator such as 'I' that refers to herself, she uses 'we' that indicates more than one person is involved in the action. She does not only adopt the teacher's suggestion but his language in her reply (71). By using the first-person collective, she verbally categorizes all the group members as the voters. To identify the voters and the person to be voted more clearly, she points her index finger first at C, E then towards A, and then raises up her hand to gesture

voting someone. Sandy's pointing gesture in figure 4.6 firstly directed at Emily and then at Cindy categorizes the girls including her as a group of voters and Austin, the one voted. Sandy's gestures seem to enact 'We, Cindy, Emily and I, vote Austin as our spokesperson'. The laughter in line 73 as well as the smiles on E's and C's faces seem to say "sorry man, you're set up". This extract demonstrates further how identity is locally situated and constructed by participants' language. The short side sequence of selecting the spokesperson also demonstrates L2 learners' ability to adjust their interactional practice on a moment-by-moment basis in compliance with the online interactional agenda. Through the interactional arrangements, this group of students accomplishes part of the task activity and is able to proceed.

Extract 4.4: I'n gonna/you need to

74 → Aus okay, and $^{+}$I'n gonna write down the (0.3) stories
75 (0.2) ((gazes at all other group members))
76 San yeah
77 (1.4)
78 Aus mm:::::::::::::::::::::: ((S, C, E all gaze at him))
79 (0.5) ((A raises his right hand holding a pen))
80 Aus you need to summarize s- story to me and $^{+}$I will present the
81 story (0.5) on::: ssstage

(Figure 4.8: line 80 'you'- 'me')

82 (0.4) ((E nods her head))
83 San so:: (0.9) $^{+}$we (0.3) huh::: I have to:: write it down

(Figure 4.9: line 83 'we')

84 (0.8)

85 Aus: hm:::: it suppose to ⁺you need to (0.2) discuss
⁺ ((moves his left hand from side to side to refer to the girls))

(Figure 4.10: line 85 'you')

86 San: huh huh↑ ((nodding her head))

87 Aus: or ⁺↑we need to discuss

(Figure 4.11: line 87 'we')

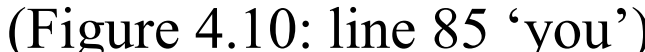
88 San: so okay ((nodding her head))

Austin accepts the result of the 'vote' with an agreement token '*okay'* which also signals the end of the voting sequence. In accordance with the new role, Austin immediately modifies his original task plan (extract 4.2). He uses a self-reference *'I'* and a future expression, *'gonna'*, to assume his responsibility and propose an altered plan. His assertive tone of speech and the fixed gaze at his group members in line 74 is responded by Sandy's acknowledgement token 'yeah' in line 76 (Gardner, 2001). After a long pause of 1.4 second (77), Austin makes a long-

stretched 'mm' sound lasting for 1.4 seconds before he revises his plan again in lines 80-81. The sound stretch draws everyone's attention while at the same time gives Austin extra time for mental processing. Again, such long-stretched sound does not lead to any interruption or language support from other participants. That all the girls are waiting patiently for Austin to continue his talk indicates their orientation to A's role as a leader while expecting for further instructions from him. On the other hand, Austin's orientation to DBGL is evidenced by his use of language with accompanying hand movements and gaze shifts as shown in figures 4.8-4.11. Let's focus on his language first. Austin's language here divides the group into two teams, the girls and Austin, to carry out two different tasks, story construction and presentation. He addresses the girls as a team by using a collective-reference and a modal auxiliary, 'you' + 'need to' to assign the work they are required to do while assigning himself the other task by using self-reference *'I'* with a modal *'will'* for something he plans to do. However, with his gaze fixed at Sandy alone while giving his instruction, his speech seems to be addressed to Sandy alone (figure 4.8). Apparently, it is so interpreted by Sandy as to initiate a turn in line 83 to request clarification (figure 4.9).

To check if she has to construct the story alone, Sandy initiates a clarification request (Long, 1993) by changing the collective-reference 'we' to the self-reference 'I' along with corresponding gestures (figures 4.9) to identify her referents. Moreover, with a modal phrase 'have to' to claim her responsibility, Sandy's language choice aligns with Austin's instructional tone (*you need to*, line 85). This also evidences Sandy's orientation to Austin's role as a leader who has the authority to assign duties to other group members.

85	Aus:	hm:::: it suppose to +<u>you</u> need to (0.2) discuss
86	San:	huh huh↑ ((nodding her head))
87	Aus:	or +↑<u>we</u> need to discuss
88	San:	so okay ((nodding her head))


(Figure 4.10: line 85 ‘you’)

(Figure 4.11: line 87 ‘we’)

Sandy’s self-repair effectively brings Austin to awareness of his confusing language use. To clarify, he stresses the word ‘you’ in line 85 and simultaneously makes a hand gesture moving from side to side to signify all the female students (figure 4.10). Austin’s pointing gestures at this moment demonstrate an embodied display of meaning clarification. The gesture is used in the repair sequence to avoid further confusion because the second person pronoun *‘you’* can be used to refer to a single person or a group of people. This empirical evidence resonates with McNeill’s (1992) notion of gesture as co-expressive with speech, a complementary form of communication different from speech. Sandy responds with an acknowledgement token together with a head nod to show mutual understanding (86). After the meaning is clarified, Austin goes on to elucidate the girls’ task, ‘to discuss’, to pinpoint the collaborative nature of the task. Without further request for clarification from peers, Austin self-repairs with a stressed *‘we’* (87) to replace *‘you’* in his preceding turn. By repairing the referential term, Austin aggregates himself in the activity of group discussion. This might be because he realizes that being a group leader and story spokesperson, he’s unavoidably involved in the collaborative process of story construction.

<u>Extract 4.5</u>: choosing the spokesperson_T1_TB_Kevin

1	Rub:	maybe we we we don’t we don’t (conclude) anything we just give
2		(0.2) the (.) r/e/son (reason?) for (0.2) our lesson (0.7) hehe
3		(0.3)
4	Kev:	so (it’s then) >maybe you will [be our representative<

5	→	Rub:	[no (0.4) NO you
6			represent[ahuhuhu
7		LLs:	[huhuhu
8		Kev:	no [you go
9	→	Rub:	[no:: you are leader ahehe
10	→	Kev:	I'm leader so I have to stay [here
11		Rub:	[no
12		Cla:	hehehe
13			(1.9)
14	→	Kev:	you GO ((points at Ruby))
15			(0.3)
16		Rub:	no
17			(0.4) ((K points at Ruby again))
18	→	Kev:	I am the leader I order you to go +[GO

(Figure 4.12: line 18, 'GO')

20		Rub:	[no [no no=
21		Cla:	[ahehehe
22		Kev:	$ok penguin go$
23		Cla:	no way
24		Kev:	°penguin go°
25		Cla:	no way
26		Rub:	can we (.) elect (0.3) we (0.3) we vote
27			(0.3)
28		Rub:	who:: agree (0.2) uh Kevin represent?
29			(0.5)
30		Jes:	$°a.hhehh°$ ((gazes at Kevin))
31			(0.8)
32		Rey:	°right [ok?° ((raises his hand))
33		Cla:	[Kevin Kevin ((raises her hand))
34		Jes:	°are you sure ahehehe° *((raises her hand))*

(Figure 4.13: line 28-34)

35		Rub:	[Kevin
36		Cla:	[Kevin yah [Kevin
37		Rey:	[Kevin
38		Rub:	I agree whole agree whole agree Kevin represent=
39		Rey:	=ok DEAL Kevin

In this extract, the identity 'group leader' is displayed differently in varied ways explicitly referred to by a group member, Ruby (Rub), as a resource for selecting the group spokesperson. We can clearly see how students employ different strategies to avoid being the spokesperson. First, they transform each other's language to be their supportive grounds (1-5, 10-11). Second, they orient to certain responsibility or privilege that is ascribed to a given identity (9, 10, 18). Third, Ruby's strategic use of language, gestures and gazes (26-28) that involves other members as a majority successfully transforms a personal preference into a choice of the group in a social practice (26-39). This again provides evidence that language learners are social agents who perform social actions in a community of practices. What learners learn is not the linguistic items but how to do things with others using the language and other resources.

Extract 4.6: paper scissors stone _T2_TB_Austin

1		T:	ah:: tse choose a spokesperson
2			(1.2)
3	→	Aus:	paper scissors stone?
4			(0.6)
5		T:	tse you are the group it's up to you

6			(0.3)
7	→	Aus:	I am the group leader ((points at himself))
8			(0.6)
9		San:	uh?=
10		T:	=ok you can choose [the way
11		Aus:	[I can decide it
12	→	San:	so you-
13		Aus:	I can choose one
14		San:	uhuh so so you=
15		T:	=no (.) [you can choose the way
16	→	San:	[you have to
17			(0.4)
18		Aus:	hmm:::::::::::::
19		Emi:	ahhhh
20			(2.5)

The group leader in this extract, Austin, who was voted as the spokesperson for Task 1 (extract 4.3), proposes a commonly used choosing method, *paper-scissors-stone* (line 3). Compared to his passive acceptance of the teacher's suggestion for a vote in extract 4.3, Austin's active response to the teacher's instruction opens up more participation space for himself. The sequence of choosing the spokesperson is oriented to an argumentative talk first (10-16) and a hand game explanation later (in next extract). The result of the vote in task 1 projects a possible outcome for task 2 once the group decides to vote for the spokesperson again. To avoid being selected as the spokesperson again, Austin explicitly orients to his role as a leader and claims his right to choose the spokesperson (lines 7, 11, 13). He adroitly converts the teacher's words "you are the group, it's up to you" in his favour by saying "I'm the group leader. I can decide it." However, the pause following the end of the first TCU (turn-constructional unit) projects a possible TRP (transition relevance place) and therefore causes interruption from the teacher and learner Sandy in Austin's turn in progress (10-12). The teacher allows him to decide on the choosing method and Sandy tries to have Austin select himself (12, 14, 16). Austin repeats his overlapped TCU with some adjustments. He cleverly adapts the teacher's words again by simply changing the key words such as the other-

reference ‘You’ to the self-reference ‘I’ and most importantly the object of the verb ‘the way’ to ‘one’ referring to the spokesperson. Compared to the way learner Sandy constructs her argument in line 12, 14 and 16, Austin’s argument shows a higher level of interactional competence. The resources used by Austin include a variety of argumentative competence and linguistic competence.

21	Aus:	count finger ((sticks out three fingers))
22		(1.1)
23	T:	I got ten ((opens his palms facing up))
24		(1.0)
25	Aus:	no (0.4) limit to (.) five ((gestures five))
26		(1.2)
27	T:	it’s up to you
28		(0.6)
29	Aus:	hmm::::::
30	(2.1)	(A draws a circle in the air several times with his right hand and index finger to show an anticlockwise direction in which they’ll count the fingers))
31	Aus:	這樣子數阿 ((tr.: we’ll count in this way))

(Figure 4.14: line 31)

The second part of the extract is about another choosing method proposed by Austin in line 21. After the teacher denies his claim with a clear negative ‘no’ and re-asserts Austin’s right (15), Austin puts forward another choosing method which is unfamiliar to the teacher and learner Cindy. Considering the number of the group members, *count-fingers* seems to be a better method than *paper- scissors- stone*. Austin’s incorporation of a hand game in class activity provides opportunity for Cindy and the teacher to know the selecting method and creates more space for his own participation as well. To explain the rules of the method,

Austin employs nonverbal resources such as gestures, fixed gazes and bodily orientation to set the environments of the instructive talk. He first repairs the teacher’s turn to limit the number of fingers for the count (25); he then uses gestures and physical movements to signal the way to count each member’s fingers (figure 4.14); in the end of this extract, the L1 is used to supplement the nonverbal expressions. Despite the lack of L2 expressions, Austin manages to ‘show’ other participants that they will count fingers counterclockwise. In this dataset, iconic gestures are found to be frequently used by learners, with or without verbal expressions, as a resource for elicitation of a word in search from peer interlocutors. It is reasonable to assume that the teacher has no understanding of Austin’s gesture followed by a turn in Austin’s native language (30-31). Otherwise, it is likely that the teacher will offer the needed adverb ‘counterclockwise’ at a relevant moment. Further discussion on embodiment will be seen in later section of this chapter.

Extract 4.7: count finger__T2_TB_Austin

33 T: do you know how to do it? ((gazes and points at Cindy))
34 (1.2) ((everybody looks at Cindy))
35 Aus: no?
36 (0.7)
37 San: 可是我們都還沒有- ((tr.: but we haven’t-))
38 T: -I don’t know how to do it
39 (0.4)
40 Aus: one two THREE and +count fingers (0.4) and::::: start here
41 >one two three four five six.< seven↑

(Figure 4.15: A gazing at Cin, not captured by the camera)

42 (1.2) ((Aus fixes gazes at Cin))
43 Aus: who is the number (.)
44 Cin: oh::::::
45 Aus: who is the [speaker ((points at his worksheet))

46	Cin	[ok
47		(2.4)
48	Aus:	ok? (↑good)

The side sequence of Austin's instructive talk starting in last extract, line 21 continutes and ends in this extract, line 48. The instruction is directed to Cindy because she is the only member in need of the information. Cindy's no-understanding of this selecting scheme is inferred from the exchanges in lines 33-35. Her understanding after Austin's instruction is displayed in lines 46-48. To explain the selecting method to Cindy, Austin employs multimodal resources including language, gesture and a fixed gaze at her to scaffold her understanding (figure 4.15). After everyone's understanding of the rules, the selecting method is successfully executed (lines 50-57). The above analysis shows Cindy's expression of no-understanding offers Austin an opportunity to make the instructive talk (35). Likewise, at the end of last extract, if Austin had been aware of his lack of the adverb (counterclockwise) while making the gestures and requested help from the teacher instead of switching to the L1, (lines 30-31), there may have been an opportunity for accidental vocabulary learning. As chapter two shows, L2 learning opportunities are co-constructed by the interactants engaging in the use of the language. It requires L2 learner interactants' attentive monitoring of each other's utterances, awareness of the need for help and relevant orientations to achieve the joint interactional business and language learning in the classroom.

50	Aus:	one (1.0) one: two: ↑three
51		(2.5) ((All four members stick out their fingers after Aus counts to three. The number of all the fingers added up is the number they'll count to.))
52	Aus:	one two three (0.4) <u>ni</u>ne (.) nine ((Aus stops counting and points at Cindy))
53	Aus:	one two three four five six seven eight ↓<u>nine</u> ((A counts the group members and Sandy is the number nine.)) ((A fixes his pointing gesture at Sandy))
54		(1.2)

55 San: so↑

56 (0.6)

57 Aus: you are the speaker

(Figure 4.16: line 57, 'you are the speaker')

After Austin's demonstration and explanation of the selecting game, this group starts to select their spokesperson using this method. The group members' cooperation by sticking out their fingers for counting displays their understanding of the game through Austin's explanation and their willingness to follow the group leader's instruction (51).

The above analyses demonstrate an interlocking relationship between L2 students' interactive practice and the construction of learner identity in task interaction. By closely examining the interaction in extract 4.2 and 4.3, I have demonstrated how learner identities are situated and changed with their language adjustments during the progression of task interaction. While talking to plan the task, Austin and his peer participants also talk themselves into being a group leader and group members. In extract 4.2, Austin talks more like an active participant; whereas in extract 4.3 the display of leadership is self-evident while learners adapt their language to achieve online interactional purposes respectively such as giving and receiving instructions. As shown in the analysis, group leadership in task interaction is displayed through a distributed and co-constructed process which encompasses both the leading speaker's talk and his hearers' operations. This process appears recurrently in the following extracts which demonstrate DBGL in various practices for different interactive purposes.

4.3 Turn Allocation, Managing Turn-taking and Signaling Boundaries

<u>Extract 4.8</u>: it’s your turn_ T1_TB_Austin

112 → Aus: so just [tell me
113 T: [It’s yours you have this. ((pointing at the worksheet))
114 San: ya (.) erm (.) I think (0.5) erm (0.7) my (.) imagination er (1.2)
115 er::: I got a new job last turday (0.2) Saturday (0.4) So I (.)
116 invited my friends (1.0) and have a party (0.7) a<u>hhhhhhh</u>.
117 (1.5) ((S points at Cindy, Figure 4.17))

(Figure 4.17: line 117)

118 → Aus: okay (0.2) +[°continue° ((A points at Cindy))
119 San: [continue (0.3) you

(Figure 4.18: line 118)

Following the task plan made in previous extracts, all female participants will talk about the pictures before Austin presents the story to the class. DBGL in this extract is demonstrated in leader Austin’s turn allocation practice and the students’ management of turn-taking.

In ordinary conversations, the current speaker selects the next speaker if no one else self-selects (ten Have, 2007). In teacher-fronted classroom settings, the teacher controls most of

the turns (Seedhouse, 2004). In a task-oriented classroom context, however, the turn-taking system is closely related to the way learners interpret and perform the task (Seedhouse, 2004). In this dataset, three types of turn-taking patterns are identified. First, turn-taking is controlled and managed by the selected leader when the group participants orient to DBGL; second, the leader partly controls turn-taking; and third, when there is no orientation to DBGL, the right to speak is equally distributed to each member. Extracts 4.8 and 4.10 provide examples of the first type; the other exchange pattern will be discussed in extract 4.11 as a comparison. As seen in the task-planning interaction in extracts 4.2 -4.4, students Austin and Sandy take up almost all the turns with Austin as the initiator and Sandy, the respondent, while the other two participants, Cindy and Emily, remain reticent during the discussion. In this extract, the right to speak is first controlled by Austin and then follows a recurrent pattern in which all the female participants take turns to describe the pictures.

Discussion for this task starts with Austin's open allocation in line 112 which is responded by Sandy's self-select to describe the first picture. Austin uses a commanding and authoritative tone of speech 'just tell me' to elicit opinions from his group. This commanding tone of Austin continues in all of his turn allocation practices. It is also adopted by other group leaders to engage group members. After Sandy's lengthy telling in lines 114-116, she implicitly selects Cindy who's sitting next to her as the second speaker by pointing at her (Figure 4.17). Cindy responds with a quick look at Sandy's hand and then gazes back at her worksheet. Following the girls' nonverbal exchanges in the 1.5-second pause, Austin responds to Sandy's telling with a transition marker 'okay' and nominates Cindy to continue the telling also with a pointing gesture (Figure 4.18). Cindy responds immediately by lifting her head and gazing at Austin. Compared to Sandy's nomination using a vague pointing gesture, Austin's soft spoken reference '°you °' following a transition marker 'okay' that works to close Sandy's turn has a better effect engaging Cindy's attention. Arguably, Cindy's quick response indicates her obedience to leader Austin's command. The change-of-activity token

‘okay’ (Gardner, 2001) that marks the end of current talk and a movement towards next topic or action opens the space for next participant’s contribution. Moreover, the use of ‘OK’ in a turn-initial position has been identified as a ‘framing move’ characteristic of teacher talk (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). Austin’s nomination method is repeated when Cindy finishes her turn. Although the right to choose next speaker belongs to the leader, other group members may interrupt in a turn-in-progress to initiate a form-focused negotiation as shown in next extract (extract 4.9).

<u>Extract 4.9</u>: John and Claire_Cindy_Austin

121		Cin:	.hhh (I think) I think (0.2) +°John and Claire°
			+ ((Cin points at her worksheet))
122		T:	hhheya °it’s° [John and Claire
123		San:	[<u>oh</u> John
124		San:	okokok
125			(0.2)
126		T:	ahuhuhu not Sandy
127		San:	John got .hh a new .hhh (0.3) <u>John</u> got a new job las ↓Saturday
128			(0.2)↑so (0.4) he hh (0.2) .hh he: in<u>vite</u> (0.5) his friends and
129			have a party (1.3) yap they have a (0.4) party
130	→		(2.6) ((A looks at C and moves the recorder close to her))
131		Cin:	uh::::
132			(2.1)
133		Cin:	↑while (0.6) while they had a::(1.1) where they had fun
134			(.)
135	→	San:	Whose?
136		Cin:	their party
137			(0.4)
138		Cin:	(°till° there had) a one (0.7) ah:: (thief↑) ((sounds like teef))
139			(0.5) steal ((sounds like stew) (0.5) uh:: (0.4) something
140			in (0.3) uh: her car (0.4) um: (0.6) their friend’s car
141			(1.2)
142	→	San:	stolen
143			(0.4)
144		Cin:	stole

145 San: stole stolen (0.8) ya

This extract demonstrates a repair sequence embedded in a story-telling practice. Following extract 4.8, Cindy accepts Austin's turn-allocation (line 118) and takes her turn to describe the second picture. She starts her turn with an opinion-giving token 'I think' (Craig & Sanusi, 2003). After a 0.2-second in-turn pause, she points at her worksheet and changes the subject word 'I' used in Sandy's telling to the names of the main characters in the story which is clearly instructed on the worksheet. By referring to the worksheet, Cindy uses the task material as a resource for her implicit repair. This linguistic adjustment is noticed by the teacher. He explicitly points out the error Sandy has made in her talk (122, 126). Sandy's uptake of the repair is shown in her second telling of the first picture (127-129). The teacher's repair which grabs the floor from Cindy provides a learning space for Sandy to complete a self-repair.

After Sandy's self-repaired telling, the long pause lasting for 2.6 seconds signals a TRP. To continue the task, Austin engages Cindy again by shifting gaze and pointing at her (130). Cindy resumes her talk and finishes her turn at line 140. In line 142, Sandy initiates a form-focus repair by giving a past participle of 'steal'. Arguably, Sandy may have intended to provide a past form of the verb as the task requires but mistakenly provides a past participle form instead. Apparently, Cindy is aware of her intention and therefore self-repairs by giving the correct form in line 144. Although the female students wait for Austin's cue to take their parts, they are actually free to participate in the discussion. Rather than controlling turn-taking, Austin's turn allocation ensures participation of every member.

Extract 4.10: okay_you_T1_TB_Austin

149 Cin: °sstole°
150 (3.1)

151	→	Aus:	okay
152			(1.5)
153	→	Aus:	you ((shifts gaze at Emily and points the recorder at her))

(Figure 4.19: line 153)

154		Emi:	me °ouh°
155			(1.1) (Emi leaning forward to her worksheet)
156			uh:::: (0.8) then↑ (0.2) they leave the party

In extract 4.10, Austin acknowledges Cindy's contribution with the token 'okay' (151) and then hands the floor to Emily using the other reference word 'you' with a pointing gesture (153, figure 4.19). Emily responds by changing Austin's other-reference to self-reference 'me::' with an utterance 'ouh' which sounds like a Chinese token '喔' that is usually used to show understanding or a change in the speaker's state of mind. This shows an alignment between the role Austin constructs with his language and his group partners' perception of the role he plays. In other words, the social identity as a group leader is co-constructed by the interactional behaviors of all the group participants; and vice versa, the identity is employed by all the participants as a resource to organize their interaction. Thus, DBGL is a dynamic and situated practice in group interaction rather than a static entity. This resonates with Widdicombe's view (1998, p. 191) of identities as "something people do" not "something they are". Not all teacher-assigned group leaders in this study display leadership in their group discussions. The following extract which shows weak DBGL illustrates another turn-taking organization.

<u>**Extract 4.11**</u>: John and Claire_T1_TB_Berlinda

1	Joy:	°John and [Claire°
2	Ber:	[John and Claire John and Claire
3		(2.6)
4	Rac:	John
5	Cat:	John
6	Rac:	John and Claire (0.2) in (.) vited
7		(1.7)
8	Rac:	un invited
9		(0.4)
10	Ber:	invited (0.8) invited (0.7) his friends
11		(0.3)
12	T:	um you need to decide (0.2) how to use these words to tell a
13		story
14	Cat:	last Saturday
15		(1.1) ((Cat quickly looks at B then back to her paper))
16	Cat:	John and Claire have a party
17	Rac:	and they invited (.) [invite
18	Ber:	[and they invited their [friends
19	Rac:	[friends
20		(0.6)
21	Rac:	to celebrate he get a new job ((gazes at B))
22	Cat:	to ce to celebrate (.) new jobs
23		(1.2) ((Cat gazes at Ber and Ber nods her head))
24	Rac:	(they) get a new job

Extract 4.11 displays another group of students' description of the first picture for the nine sequenced pictures task (task 1). Unlike Austin's group, they orient to the task discussion directly without any pre-task plan. Each of the group members takes turns freely and describes each picture together at the same time. The assigned leader, Berlinda (Ber), acts like other group members without exercising the right of turn allocation as Austin does in previous extracts. The only possible DBGL is in lines 15, 21 and 23 when both Rac and Cat shift gazes to Ber after they make an utterance. The gaze shifting can be interpreted as a request for Ber's acknowledgement, which Ber does with a head nod in line 23. As all members talk at the same time, overlaps, interruptions and repetition of one's or other's utterance construct most

of this extract of talk. Although opportunity to participate is equally distributed to every member, the progress of task discussion is hindered. In effect, the group discussion is more like overlapped monologues of individual student engaged in the work alone rather than meaningful exchanges between group members. Four ‘parallel actional trajectories’ are deployed rather than a co-constructed conversation of four individuals. Each student forms his/her turn by using the given phrases under each picture following the teacher’s instruction in line 12. That may explain the number of overlaps in this talk. Similar phenomenon is reported in Hellermann & Doehler (2010). In their case, the participants give up the task completely. In this data, when the group of students fails to work out the story, they switch to their L1 and discuss about what may have happened in the story. Hence, their method for task accomplishment is switching between two languages. They use the L1 for doing thinking and discussing for the task; while using the L2 to do story telling as required by the teacher.

Unlike Berlinda’s group discussion which is messy and unorganized, Austin’s turn allocation leads to the formulation of turn-taking in this group’s Task1 interaction: Sandy→Cindy→Emily→Sandy. After the first round of taking turns, all group members take turn following the same order to describe the pictures without waiting for a cue from the leader Austin. The group members’ self-select to be the next speaker demonstrates alignment between their interpretation and Austin’s arrangement.

DBGL evidences itself in task participants’ arrangement of turn-taking and sequences as discussed above. The turn-taking method initiated by Austin and oriented to by all participants provides an order for the task interaction. As the leader’s control is not as tight as a teacher’s, responding to the leader’s turn-allocation may be less oppressive than to a teacher’s nomination. Austin’s next speaker selecting method successfully elicits response from all group members and therefore ensures every member’s participation. This pre-allocated turn-taking management can also be adopted as a strategy used in task interactions

especially in Asian L2 institutional settings in which students tend not to take initiative in classroom conversations (Tsui, 1996). Another method the leaders use to involve quiet or indifferent participants is nomination. The following section will present the way leader students nominate their group members and assist their contributions.

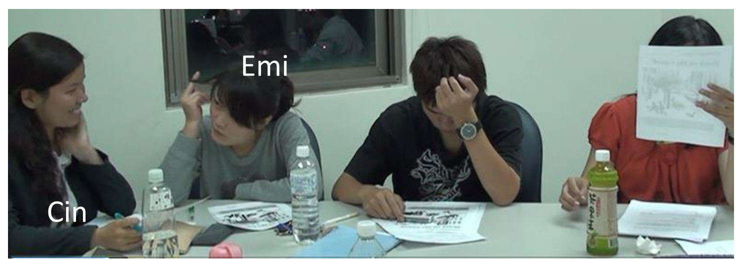
4.4 Engaging Peer Participants

Section 4.3 introduces a turn-allocation method used by Austin to involve all group members. In the groups where taking-turn is less controlled by the leader student, the ability to engage inactive or 'strayed' participants in the discussion demonstrates another aspect of DBGL.

In group discussions, due to lack of teacher's supervision, students sometimes orient to off-task or private talk (Markee, 2004). Moreover, previous studies on L2 learners' classroom participation have reported that some Asian L2 students tend to avoid participation in L2 classroom discussions. It is also not unusual in this case study that students use the L1 for most of the discussion in order to accomplish the task in time. Therefore, students who are aware of and able to improve the above situations will create more learning opportunities in task interaction. Extracts presented in this section involve three groups of learners collaborating to solve a mystery for task 2. These three excerpts of talk demonstrate how leader students Austin, Rinoa and Kevin navigate their group members' participation in the discussion using different interactional resources. After successfully engaging peer participants, some group leaders are able to extend their group members' contribution using interactional strategies often used by L2 teachers such as scaffolding, questioning and giving more wait time for mental processing (Walsh, 2006). These pedagogical practices display characteristics of classroom interactional competence (CIC) which is defined by Walsh (2006, p. 130) as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning".

<u>Extract 4.12</u>: So who kill him_T2_TB_Austin

1		Cin:	°so who kill him° ((talking to Emily))
2		Emi:	<u>you</u>
3		Cin:	a<u>he</u>huhehe



(Figure 4.20: line 2-3, "you")

4	→	Aus:	SO↓
5			(1.9) ((shifts gaze at Emily's worksheet)
6	→	Aus:	who (0.6) kill (0.2) him:::::

(Figure 4.21: line 6 "who…")

7		Cin:	((makes a pointing gesture directed toward Austin))

(Figure 4.22: line 7-8: "you")

8		Emi:	you ((shifts gaze at Austin, Figure 4.22))
9		Aus:	\$ME↑\$
10			(1.7)
11		San:	um::::::: the <u>tree</u> uh:: ((points at the tree on the worksheet))

(Figure 4.23: line 11, “the tree uh::”)

In the above extract, Austin shows his leadership by navigating Cindy and Emily’s private talk back to the group discussion. In lines 1-3, these two girls are joking about the mystery to be solved. In fact, in the first few minutes after the task is launched, all the students are engaged in private thinking with a focus on their worksheets (Task 2). There are a few L1 exchanges between Austin and Sandy about what has happened in this picture (Task 2). The group discussion in which every group member tells about their interpretation of the picture starts after Sandy initiates a turn in line 11 following Austin’s question. To bring the topic on the table for a joint discussion, Austin uses a stressed marker *SO* with a falling pitch to close the chat between Cindy and Emily and navigate the transition to the core business (line 4). Using discourse marker *so* as a resource to launch an upcoming talk in both mundane and institutional conversations has been reported in Bolden’s (2009) study. As noted by Bolden, the ‘incipiency marker’ ***so*** plays a significant role in projecting the core of the upcoming interaction. Following the transition device, Austin makes a question without nomination of a specific respondent that invites all participants to bid the floor (6). Both Cindy and Emily reply with an answer, nevertheless, a joked one (7-8). Austin responds with a rising tone and facial expression (9). After a long pause, Sandy gets involved by turning towards Austin and telling him her interpretation of the story. The interactional business for solving the task is finally back on track.

<u>Extract 4.13</u>: Mandy say something_T2_TL_Rinoa

1 → Rin: Mandy, say something

2		(0.8) ((Rin turns to Man and moves the recorder towards her.))
3	Sug:	hello
4		(0.3)
5	Man:	maybe they:: (.) murder (0.6) they (.) plan a murder
6		(0.3)
7	Rin:	they plan to murder
8		(1.0)
9	Man:	they (.) plan the murder
10		(0.2)
11	Rin:	they (.) plan the murder
12		(0.8)
13	Man:	a long time
14		(0.2)
15	Rin:	a long time
16		(.)
17	Man:	hh .hhh (0.3) .hhh (.) mm
18	Rin:	a long [time
19	Sug:	[now time's up
20		(0.3)
21	Rin:	a day? A week? (0.5) or huhh (0.3) an hour? Huhh

(Figure 4.24, line 1-2, "Mandy, say something")

Different from Austin's open questioning, Rinoa (Rin) engages Mandy (Man), who is quiet in their group discussion, by directly selecting her as the next speaker (line1). Rinoa orients her upper body towards Mandy while holding the digital recorder closer to her (Figure 4.24). After a 0.8-second pause, Sugar (Sug), an active student in the group, joins Rinoa using a greeting token 'hello' to attract Mandy's attention. A short pause later, Mandy finally responds to their effort by giving her interpretation of the mystery. In the exchanges between Rinoa and

Mandy following Mandy's contribution, DBGL manifests itself in Rinoa's repetition of Mandy's turns. Rinoa's repeating after Mandy resembles teacher echo in the classroom. Teacher echo has several functions including 'repeating for other students, acknowledging student's contribution and confirming correctness' (Walsh 2006, p. 123). This might apply to learner echo in peer-peer interaction. As Mandy is shy, she speaks with a very low voice. Rinoa's repetition of her turn allows other two participants to hear what Mandy says. However, Rinoa's repetition also fills up the time that Mandy may need to process her thoughts. In line 7, Rinoa makes a direct repair that changes Mandy's noun into a verb although both forms are acceptable. When Mandy repeats her first turn instead of Rinoa's correction, Rinoa repeats directly to show acknowledgement. Rinoa's repetition which closely follows Mandy's turn may hinder learning opportunity by reducing the time for Mandy to develop her turn. Mandy's posture in figure 4.24 shows she seems to defend herself from Rinoa's elicitation by slightly orienting her upper body away from Rinoa and the voice recorder. Compared to the short pauses before Rinoa's repetition (6, 10, 14), the longer pauses before Mandy's turn (8, 12) suggest Mandy needs more wait-time to deliver her turn. The out-breath and in-breath in line 17 signifies the tension in Mandy's voice. What's more, Rinoa's prompts mixed with some laughter at the end of the sequence may sound aggressive and insincere, so they fail to elicit more response from Mandy.

Engaging quiet members in the group discussion is mostly done by leader students in the dataset. It may be deemed by the leaders as part of their duties. However, the way they engage peer participants and their follow-up acts may have different impacts on other members' participation. One interactional strategy used by teachers in the classroom is scaffolding (Bruner, 1990). The following extract demonstrates one example of scaffolding, albeit not performed by the group leader.

Extract 4.14: how about you Ruby_T2_TB_Kevin

1	→	Kev:	how about you (0.9) Ruby↑
			((Kev moves the recorder toward Ruby))
2		Rub:	I think it's an (.) a/ssi/dent
3			(0.7)
4		Cla:	°mm mm° (0.3) how
5			(0.9)
6		Rub:	so may- maybe he:: he wa:s a heart a/ch/ack heart attack
7		Cla:	°uh::::° ((nodding head twice))
8		Rub:	heart attack
9			(2.5)
10		Rub:	becau::se based on the picture I don't know who is the (.)
11			killer↑ or:::(0.8) some group-

(Figure 4.25: line 1, "how about you Ruby↑)

Compared to Rinoa's direct nomination in extract 4.13, Kevin (Kev) uses a more mitigated way to choose the next speaker. The selected speaker, Ruby (Rub), has been reticent while other participants bid the floor to give their thoughts on the mystery (task 2). Whenever someone initiates a turn, Kevin moves the recorder toward that person to receive his/her voice. Being aware of Ruby's silence, Kevin positions the recorder in front of Rub while inviting her opinion with a common elicitation phrase (line 1, figure 4.25). By doing so, the voice recorder here is talked into a device for turn allocation. Ruby responds by offering her views with an opinion expression marker 'I think' (Craig & Sanusi, 2003). After Ruby gives her idea in line 2, Claire (Cla) responds with a continuer type of back-channel 'mm mm' followed by an open question 'how' after a short pause as a prompt to draw out more words from Ruby (4). This is a typical practice of scaffolding which facilitates the first speaker's extended contribution. It successfully shapes Ruby's explanation for Mr. Robinson's death as

an accident. Claire responds using a stretched ‘uh’ accompanied with head nods which signify mutual understanding. Ruby goes on to repair her phonological imperfections with more standard-like pronunciation of ‘heart attack’. After a long pause of 2.5 seconds with no interruption from other participants, Ruby produces another reason to support her interpretation of the mystery (10, 11). Obviously, compared to the abundant peer echoing in extract 4.13, peers’ interactional strategies used in this extract have a better effect on shaping participation space. The long pause in line 9 functions as an extended wait-time which facilitates speaker’s extended contribution (Walsh, 2006). DBGL in this example is initiated by Kevin’s next speaker selection and achieved by Claire’s scaffolding techniques. As previously mentioned, identity is situated and a dynamic entity which is subject to changes with the interaction. Scaffolding technique as seen in this extract is also frequently employed by Kevin in other parts of the group discussion which will be presented in later sections.

4.5 Collaboration in Word Search

Analyses so far show that one important aspect of DBGL is the leader students’ display of attentive speakership as well as active listenership. Only through close monitoring of peer participants’ interactional moves during the discussion can the leader students collaborate and provide appropriate assistance for the agenda at the moment. As the two sides of a coin, attentive speakership and active listenership involve listening to and observing carefully interlocutors’ verbal and non-verbal expressions before formulating one’s response. As the current speaker’s turn is at the same time a response to the preceding turn, interlocutors are simultaneously both listener and speaker (Farr, 2003). A great number of studies have identified the types and functions of listener responses (Drummond & Hopper, 1993a, 1993b; Duncan, 1974; Duncan & Niederehe, 1974; Gardener, 1997a, 1997b, 1998; Goodwin, 1986; Hayashi & Hayashi, 1991; Jefferson, 1984; Schegloff, 1982; Yngve, 1970; Zimmerman, 1993). DBGL in this section is presented in the responsive turn made by leader students to

facilitate learning opportunities in two word search practices. The functions of the leaders' responsive turns examined here include showing engaged listenership and providing scaffolded support.

The following extracts show that learners orient to DBGL to repair communication breakdown caused by the speaker's insufficient knowledge or lack of intersubjectivity. When this occurs, leader students, who are selected by the teacher, and therefore, are presumably, though not necessarily more competent learners, are involved as expert-students to provide language support.

<u>Extract 4.15:</u> wind blow_T2_TB_Austin/Sandy

4 Aus: SO↓
5 (1.9) ((shifts gaze at Emily)
6 who (0.6) kill (0.2) him:::::
A few lines omitted
11 San: um::::::: +the <u>tree:::</u>

(Figure 4.26: line 11-12, 'the tree')

(Figure 4.27: task 2 worksheet)

12 (0.3) ((A leans towards S and gazes at her worksheet))
13 San: +uh::: (.) 一陣風然後把那個 (.) 樹吹倒 於是
((tr.: a gust of wind, it uprooted the tree, so
14 (1.0)
15 San: 它打到他的頭 ((tr.: it hit his head))
16 (0.6)
17 Aus: $太戲劇化了吧$ ((tr.: isn't that too dramatic?))
18 → San: +你知道這樣怎麼翻 <u>一陣風</u>吹來 你知道怎麼講

((tr.: how do you translate this, "一陣風吹來" (a gust of wind blows), you know how to say that?))

The above talk is extracted from Austin's group discussion for Task 2. To accomplish this task, they have to find out what has caused Mr. Robinson's death. As previously mentioned in extract 4.12, Austin initiates a question to navigate his group members back to a joint discussion (4-6). As a response to Austin's solicitation, Sandy takes initiative to give her interpretation of the mystery. As Sandy positions herself as the story teller, she takes up most of the turns. The control of turn-taking is hence passed from Austin, the group leader to Sandy. Austin's role of leadership is talked into a language provider when lack of knowledge obstructs Sandy's telling.

In line 13, Sandy starts with a long stretched sound followed by a noun phrase 'the tree' (11). She points at her worksheet (figure 4.27) to identify the tree while referring to it as what caused the death. The pointing gesture engages Austin's attention (figure 4.26). After another sound stretch and some pauses, she switches to the L1 (13). Sandy's code-switching plays an important role in this excerpt of talk. The translation of the L1 shows it is used by Sandy to self-repair her utterance in line 11. The L1 is inserted here to explain why the tree fell (13) before it hit Mr. Robinson (15) and caused his death. With this reformulation, the events in Sandy's story are logically sequenced. After a 0.6-second pause, Austin comments on Sandy's story (17). Sandy's reasoning for the death is judged by Austin as unrealistic. Compared with the teacher's comment in line 40 (extract 4.16), Austin's question-formed judgment is a mitigated disagreement. Instead of replying to Austin's comment, Sandy requests his help for a collaborative translation of the L1 content. Sandy's 'let pass' Austin's comment suggests his disagreement is not strong enough to induce a self-repair from Sandy to modify her reasoning. It also shows that Sandy's turn is still in progress. The L1 is not only used to fill the communication gap due to insufficient knowledge at that moment. It also serves as a tool to obtain the content instantly which then turns into a site for L2 production (DiCamilla and

Anton, 2004). This is evidenced by Sandy's request for help with the L2 translation of the L1 content (18). The discussion at the moment is oriented from a meaning-focused context which aims to solve the mystery to a form-focused translation sequence (extract 4.16) which serves the purpose of obtaining language support to complete Sandy's contribution.

Extract 4.16: wind blow_T2_TB_Sandy_Austin

18		San:	⁺你知道這樣怎麼翻 一陣風吹來 你知道怎麼講 ((tr.: how do you translate this, "一陣風吹來" (a gust of wind blows), you know how to say that?))
19			(1.1)
20		Aus:	ah::::: ((gazes to his left front side))
21		Emi:	那他自己跌進河裡嗎= ((gazes at Sandy)) ((tr.: so he fell into the river?))
22		San:	=↑wind ((facing A and E, Figure 4.28))

(Figure 4.28, line 21-22)

23	→	Aus:	wind (.) [>°自己跌進河裡°< ((tr.: he fell into the river))
24		San:	[↑wind ((gazes at her worksheet, Figure 4.29))

(Figure 4.29, line 24, ↑wind)

25			(1.5)
26		San:	⁺flow 嗎? ((tr.: is it "flow"?))

(Figure 4.30, line 26, flow 嗎?)

27			(0.6)
28		Aus:	+flow::: ((gazes at his worksheet))
29			(0.4)
30		San:	°是 flow?° ((tr.: is it “flow”?)) + (0.3) ↑°wind°

(Figure 4.31, line 30, ↑°wind°)

31			(0.8)
32	→	Aus:	°b:low:::°
33			(0.5) ((A slowly turns his head to look at S))
34		San:	+blow? ((gazes at A, Figure 4.32))

(Figure 4.32, line 33-35, blow?)

35		Aus:	hmm ((gazes at S and nods his head once))
36		San:	blow↑ and::: the +tree↑= ((gazes away from A))
37	→	Aus:	=collapse
38			(1.2)
39		San:	so (0.4) hit (0.7) his (0.5) head enaa::::
40		T:	impossible

This translation sequence reveals Sandy’s positioning the leader Austin as an expert by explicitly requesting help from him (Brouwer, 2003; Reichert & Lierbscher, 2012). As

previously mentioned, the interactional goal for the side sequence is to produce the English translation of Sandy's L1 content. Any talk not serving the purpose is treated by the main speaker, Sandy, as irrelevant. Therefore, when Emily initiates a question in line 21, Sandy latches into her turn to start the translation practice by producing the subject word 'wind' with her gaze shifted to Austin and Emily, not even noticing Emily's question (22). Austin, on the other hand, replies to confirm her understanding while simultaneously engaged in the translation practice (23). This shows Austin's attentiveness to any utterance made by other group members. This attentiveness also characterizes Austin's role of leadership in the rest of the talk.

After producing the subject word 'wind' in line 22, Sandy is in search for the verb. She involves Austin and Emily for a joint search with a gaze shift to them. After a 1.5-second pause, she produces a candidate word 'flow' in line 26. To make sure she has the right word, Sandy shifts her gaze again towards Austin to seek confirmation from him (figure 4.30). Austin repeats the candidate word with a stretched voice. This sound stretch along with his gaze fixed on his worksheet signifies Austin is engaged in thinking. Without receiving an answer from Austin, Sandy repeats the candidate word again in line 30 with her gaze shifted to Austin and immediately shifted back to her worksheet. Figure 4.31 clearly pictures Sandy's engagement in thinking with her gaze fixed on the worksheet while repeating the subject word 'wind' with a soft-spoken voice. After a pause of 0.8 second, Austin produces another candidate verb 'blow' in a small volume and then turns toward Sandy to engage her attention (32-33). The soft-spoken production suggests Austin may not be completely sure about this candidate verb. However, when Sandy requests his confirmation by repeating the verb (34), Austin confirms with an agreement token 'hmm' and a firm head nod simultaneously (35). Sandy's seeking confirmation from Austin (30) and her incorporation of Austin's repair in the subsequent turn (36) indicate her orientation to Austin's expertise.

Sandy adopts the verb immediately and thus closes the translation sequence. She goes on to describe the movement of the tree after it is struck by the strong wind. However, when Sandy produces the subject word 'the tree' in a higher pitch accompanied with a gesture that simulates the tree's movement (36), Austin latches into her turn and produces the verb 'collapse' directly (37). Austin's move shows his attentiveness to Sandy's talk and his orientation to himself as a language expert. The given verb is incorporated by Sandy in her turn in progress to complete her story (39). Although Austin assists Sandy's turn completion, a language support that is not invited by the current speaker is an interruption as well as a deprivation of interactional space. Instead of taking up the space for peer participant, Austin should give more wait-time for Sandy to develop her turn as experienced L2 teachers would do for their students in the classroom (Walsh, 2006).

The above analysis of the translation sequence shows both Sandy and Austin employ a number of interactional resources to construct their online identities at the moment respectively as help seeker and provider. First, the L1 is used by Sandy as a resource to obtain the content of talk which becomes a subject for an L2 translation sequence later. Through a collaborative translation practice which involves Austin as a language supporter, Sandy is able to complete her turn and achieve accidental L2 learning. Second, gaze shift is communicative in the way that it helps co-participants to make appropriate responses (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986). Both Sandy and Austin use gaze shift as a resource to engage and disengage peer participants during the translation sequence. They shift gaze at peers to engage their attention, to display recipiency, and to invite peer's participation (22, 26, 32, 34, 35, 37); gazing away from others signals disengagement from the discussion or engagement in thinking (24, 28, 30, 36). Third, with the practice of repair (32) and repair initiation (26, 30), a learning object is introduced by Austin to Sandy and becomes part of Sandy's repertoire to form her interpretation of the mystery. The following extract shows another aspect of group leader's attentive listenership. What Austin attends to includes peer participants' non-verbal

behaviours. His interpretation of and response to peer's soundless communication constructs another important characteristic of group leadership, which in turn enhances participation of group members.

<u>Extract 4.17</u>: the cat bite_Cindy_Austin

65 → Aus: ok
66 (1.2) ((Austin turns to Cindy))
67 → Aus: $^{+}$it's your turn

(Figure 4.33: line 67, it's your turn)

68 (3.2)
69 Cin: the er °I ↑think°- (0.5) it (wa:s) (0.3) a/si/dent
70 (0.5)
71 Cin: because **the $^{+}$↑cat-**
72 (1.8)
73 → Aus: hmm=
74 =$^{+}$°cat°
75 → Aus: what
76 (8.4) ((C enacts the cat attacking someone)
77 Aus: ↑/ə:::h/
78 (1.4)
79 → Emi: 咬嗎 ((tr.: bite?)) ((looking at Cindy))
80 (0.6)
81 Cin: 咬/ yiao ((tr.: bite)) ((shifts gaze at Emily))
82 (1.5)
83 Cin: bit?
84 (0.5)
85 Aus: bite?=
86 Emi: =bite=
87 Cin: =bite (.) bite 他// ((tr.: him)) (0.2) $^{+}$bite him
88 (1.6)

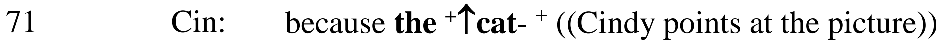
89 Cin: so::: ((looks at A and E))
90 (1.0)
91 Cin: °he:::°
92 → Aus: $he die↑?$=
93 Cin: =he:: he (0.2) scare (0.2) and (0.3) fall fall dow::n °in the° canal
94 Aus: ri-↑ (0.3) oh canal
95 (0.6)
96 Cin: an::d (.) °after that° (0.5) +he can't can't swim

In this practice of word search, nonverbal expressions are used as a mediational tool to assist the process of search. DBGL is demonstrated in the negotiation of mutual understanding between group members. By closely monitoring his group member's, contributions, Austin is able to understand Cindy's embodied display and provide relevant assistance to complete her turn.

Cindy initiates a turn in response to Austin's nomination (67). The trouble source appears when Cindy fails to produce a verb that can describe the cat's behavior (71). To solve this problem, she initiates a series of gestures to enact a cat attacking people in a long period of silence lasting for 8.4 seconds (76). Her gestures successfully attract other participants' attention and involve them in the collaboration of searching for the action word. Cindy's gesticulation mediates mutual understanding between the group members. These gestures display Cindy's inner state at that moment; with her cognitive state openly displayed in the gestures, other participants are able to understand and respond appropriately. Hence, the gesticulation is also used by learners as a resource that scaffolds their language production. While trying to help Cindy develop and extend her turn, Austin displays his leadership in his orientation to a number of interactional practices that create opportunities for extended participation and accidental vocabulary learning.

The first feature of DBGL is Austin's ability to signal the boundaries and his practice of turn

allocation. In section 4.3, Austin uses a connector ‘So’ to close private talks and engage all participants in a joint discussion for the task. Here, another discourse marker ‘ok’ is used by him to close Emily’s contribution and hand the floor to the next speaker, Cindy (65-67). In extract 4.15, to open the group discussion, he uses a question to involve all group members. Sandy self-selects to be the first contributor. After Sandy’s turn, Austin selects Emily to be the next contributor. When Emily completes her turn, Austin hands the floor to Cindy by nominating her as the next speaker. Austin’s speaker-selection scheme follows the counterclockwise direction the female participants are seated. The method Austin uses to engage his group members in the task and the way they respond to his nomination share some similarities with L2 teachers’ turn allocation in a teacher-fronted setting. Austin’s enacting a teacher’s role is displayed in some interactional arrangements. He manages the procedure of the interaction with the marker ‘ok’ which signposts a switch from Emily’s contribution to learner Cindy’s (65); he adopts an instructional phrase ‘it’s your turn’ with pointing gesture to engage Cindy’s participation (67); he also maintains attentive participation throughout the group discussion ready to provide feedback and support when needed. His co-participants conform to this orientation as well. They accept his turn allocation and request help from him. Learner identities are co-constructed in the process of task interaction and reciprocally constitute the evolving interaction.


71 Cin: because **the** +↑**cat**- + ((Cindy points at the picture))

(Figure 4.34: line 71, **the** +↑**cat**-)

72 Cin: (1.8)

((Cindy points at the picture again then gazes at A;

E sits up and gazes at Cindy's paper. Figure 4.35))

(Figure 4.35, line 72)

73		Aus:	hmm= ((nods his head.))
74		Cin:	=°cat° ((gazes at the worksheet))
75	→	Aus:	what
76			(8.4)
77		Aus:	↑/ə:::h/

(Figure 4.36, line 76-77)

To engage peers' attention, Cindy draws on a few paralinguistic resources accompanying her speech. In line 71, she points at the cat on the worksheet while referring to the cat with a stressed and rising tone to identify the subject (figure 4.34). To have more processing time, she pauses for nearly two seconds (line 72) and points at the cat again. She lifts up her head and gazes at Austin with a smiling face while her finger still pointed at the cat (figure 4.35). The second pointing gesture brings out Emily's change of posture with a gaze shift at Cindy's paper and Austin's acknowledgement marker 'hmm' followed by a head nod (73). Cindy's

second pointing with reinforced movements, fixed eye gaze and a smiling face seem to function differently from the first pointing gesture. The first pointing is to identify the subject of her talk and the second, to gain more time for mental processing. Apparently, Cindy has problem producing a word to describe the cat's physical movements. She points at the cat again with a gaze shifted toward Austin to invite him to join in the search for the action word (figure 4.35). She then shifts gaze away from Austin towards her worksheet to engage in a private search (74). When Austin shows no understanding with a repair initiator 'what', Cindy gazes back at her worksheet and makes a series of incrementally-modified gestures in eight seconds of silence (set of figures 4.36). Cindy's gestures seem to be directed to herself at first (4.36-1) and then toward Emily and Austin in the end (figure 4.36-4). Throughout Cindy's gesticulation, Austin remains his posture and focuses attention on Cindy's bodily movements and facial expressions without making any interruption. Cindy's last hand movement seems striking that Emily suddenly sits up to look at her and Austin makes a high-pitched utterance with a rise of his upper body (figure 4.36-4).

79 → Emi: 咬嗎 ((tr.: "yiao" (bite)?))

(Figure 4.37, line 79, 咬嗎 ((tr.: "yiao" (bite)?))

80 (0.6)

81 Cin: 咬/ yiao ((tr.: bite))

82 (1.5)

83 → Cin bit?

(Figure 4.38, line 83, bit?)

84			(0.5)
85		Aus:	bite?=
86		Emi:	=bite
87		Cin:	bite (.) bite 他// ((tr.: him)) (0.2) bite him

Cindy's gestures finally yields Emily's preliminary production for the search, '咬' (*yia*o, bite), which is delivered in the L1 followed by a question word '嗎' (*ma*) (79). Although Emily's L1 candidate word does not exactly match with the gesture, Cindy accepts this candidate verb by repeating the word with two head nods and offers the English translation of the verb, 'bit' with a question mark (83). The question form in both Emily's and Cindy's contribution is used by them to check mutual understanding. Figure 4.37 and 4.38 clearly capture their gazes directed to each other while initiating a repair (79, 83). Emily's withdrawal of her gaze from Cindy to the air, shown in figure 4.38, displays a 'thinking face' (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986) which indicates her engagement in Cindy's confirmation request. Cindy's L2 equivalent is regarded as problematic by her peers. Both Austin and Emily repair with a base form in line 85 and 86. Cindy acknowledges the repair by repeating the verb followed by an L1 object noun '他' (tr: him) which is immediately corrected by herself. She then incorporates the verb to complete the trouble source turn beginning in line 71.

89		Cin:	so::: ((gazes forward)
90			(1.0)
91		Cin:	°he:::°
92	→	Aus:	\$he die↑?\$=

(Figure 4.39, line 92, $he die↑?$)

93	Cin:	=he:: he (0.2) scare (0.2) and (0.3) fall fall dow::n °in the° canal
94	Aus:	ri-↑ (0.3) oh canal
95		(0.6)
96	Cin:	an::d (.) °after that° (0.5) $^{+}$he can't can't swim
97	Aus:	oh:::::: whoo^{+}::::::: $^{+}$ *((turns to Sandy and T))*

After Cindy completes her suspended turn with the sought word, she pauses for a while (1.6) and then continues her story with a connective 'so' in line 89. This connective word provides high projectability for the result of the accident. The sound stretch of the connective followed by a gaze shifted away from her recipients indicates Cindy is doing thinking of what should happen next. After a second pause, Cindy produces a subject word 'he' in a lower volume with a stretched tone (91). The sound stretch provides a slot that incurs Austin's interruption to assume the ending of Cindy's story. As shown in extracts 4.15-4.16, Austin, the group leader, has kept close monitor of the interaction all the time ready to guide the discussion and provide assistance. Despite the joking tone of his speech (line 92, the dollar sign indicates a smiling face), his interruption is aimed to help Cindy complete her story. With a rising tone at the end of his turn, Austin's interruption is formed as a confirmation check which triggers Cindy's repair in a latching turn. In line 93, Cindy successfully resumes speakership with an other-initiated other repair and completes her story despite lack of fluency and grammatical accuracy.

Cindy's contribution in this extract provides a good example of embodied expression. The

lengthy silence in line 76 is a non-verbal form of communication and it is so interpreted by the recipients. Through her bodily movements and gaze shifts, Cindy's cognitive state is socially distributed and accessible by Austin and Emily; and hence, they are able to provide the word in search. Based on the analysis of this extract, active listenership can be displayed through appropriate interpretation of silence, which is also a characteristic of good leadership. Something worth noting is that while Austin and Emily listen to Cindy with close attention, there is no sign of Sandy's involvement.

4.6 Scaffolding

Extract 4.18: what accident_T2_TB_Kevin

1		Rey:	now we need to know:: (0.5) why robinson (was) been murdered
2			(0.3)
3		?	°mm:: mm°
4			(3.1)
5		Rey:	somebody have some::: (3.3) some: :::: (0.9) °clues?°
6			(2.2)
7	→	Kev:	↓so does anybody think (0.6) robinson (0.5) is murder(ed)
8			or natural death
9			(2.0)
10		Cla:	°ern° (0.3) °ern°
11			(1.4)
12		Cla:	natural death?
13			(0.4)
14		Jes:	mm hmm↑
15		Cla:	maybe it is accident hehehu
16	→	Kev:	what a/s/cident (0.4) fall into the (lake)?
17		Jes:	yah
18			(1.2)
19		Rey:	accident (0.3) accident I think
20			(0.4)
21	→	Kev:	Why?
22			(0.6)
23		Rey:	because the cat jump (0.2) jump (0.5) when he:::

24			(1.5)
25		Rey:	uh::::raise a hand for to a woman and the cat (0.8) jump on
26			his- (0.3) (that) on his newspaper↑ and he ↑shocked
27			(1.3)
28	→	Jes:	$and fall into thehh river$ [ahehehe
29		Rey:	[$anhhhd FAll into the river and is
30			gone::::
31			(0.9)
32		Jes:	a::nd °die°
33			(0.8)
34	→	Kev:	how about you (0.9) Ruby↑ (turns towards Ruby)
35			(0.5)
36		Rub:	I think it's an (.) a/ssi/dent
37			(0.7)
38	→	Cla:	°mm mm° (0.3) how
39			(0.9)
40		Rub:	so may- maybe he:: he wa:s a heart a/ch/ack heart attack
41		Cla:	°uh::::°
42		Rub:	heart attack
43			(2.5)
44		Rub:	becau::se based on the picture I don't know who is the (.) killer↑
45			or:::(0.8) some group

Another feature of DBGL is the leader's ability to scaffold and extend group members' participation. Scaffolding in SLA is a widely-approached strategy which, based on Vygotskian views of learning process, involves providing learning support in expert-novice and peer interaction (Bruner 1990; de Guerrero and Villamil 2000; Lantolf 2000; Lantolf & Thorne 2006; van Lier 1996). Earlier research on scaffolding has focused on how the expert/teacher or the more knowledgeable other helps the novice. Descriptions of scaffolding in recent years have seen a shift of focus on how learners help each other (Donato, 1994) or on how the novice or learners respond to scaffolding moves (Ko et al, 2003). By investigating teacher talk in the classroom, Walsh (2006, p. 44) reports three types of scaffolding used by language teachers to 'shape' learners' contribution in teacher-fronted settings: reformulation, where a learner's contribution is rephrased to be more appropriate; modeling, where a learner's error

is replaced by a correct version of the language; extension, where a learner's contribution is extended. These types of scaffolded support are also used by group leaders and more active members to modify peer partners' language output in this dataset. Analysis of extract 4.18 provides an example of all three kinds of scaffolding practices done by the leader student, Kevin, while providing feedback to his group members' contributions.

This conversation is extracted from the beginning of the group discussion. Learner Reyes opens the discussion by asking a question which reveals his interpretation of the death as a result of a murder (Task 2, Death on the canal). Before this question is asked, all group members have to agree the death is a case of murder rather than an accident. Being aware of this reasoning fault, Kevin, the group leader, rephrases the question by adopting one of the guiding questions on the worksheet (7). Unlike Reyes's question which constrains the group discussion on only one possibility. Kevin's reformulation opens up more possibilities for discussion. While adopting a guiding question to elicit opinions, Kevin uses the phrase 'natural death' instead of 'an accident' in the guiding questions. This small alternation causes a repair initiated by Claire in line 12, albeit other members such as Jessie seem to have no problem with this term. Without receiving any response from Kevin, Claire gives her ideas by saying it's an accident (15). To prompt for more details, Kevin asks about the accident using the question word 'what' (16). After a 0.4-second pause, he provides an example of accident that is likely to happen in this situation (16). Kevin's prompt functions as two types of scaffolding strategies above-mentioned: extension and modeling. He firstly uses 'what'-prefaced question trying to draw out more information from others and then models a possible answer after some silence to provide further scaffolding. The assumption that Mr. Robinson has fallen into the 'lake' becomes a resource that is recycled by Jessi and Reyes in the subsequent talk.

Reyes's contribution in lines 19 -32 is a collaborative effort with Jessi. Reyes shares Claire's

opinion by saying this is an accident (19). Kevin changes his prompt from ‘what’ to ‘why’ to have Rey elaborate on his views (21). Compared to the question word ‘what’ in line 16, the word ‘why’ here allows more time and space for the recipient to develop the story. In an adjacency pair, the first pair part starting with ‘what’ may project a noun phrase while question words like ‘why’ or ‘how’ lead to a clause that describes how the accident occurs. To provide a second pair part of the adjacency pair which would answer Kevin’s question, Reyes initiates his turn with a conjunction ‘because’ to give the reason for the accident (23). According to Reyes, it is the shock from the cat’s unexpected movement that causes the incident. The 1.3-second pause following Reyes’s turn signals a TRP. Jessi takes the turn and feeds in the language that shows affiliation with Kevin’s assumption in line 16. The added information becomes a resource for Reyes to complete his telling.

21	→	Kev:	why
22			(0.6)
23		Rey:	because the cat jump (0.2) jump (0.5) when he:::
24			(1.5)
25		Rey:	uh::::raise a hand for to a woman and the cat (0.8) jump on
26			his- (0.3) (that) on his newspaper↑ and he ↑shocked
27			(1.3)
28	→	Jes:	$and fall into thehh river$ [ahehehe
29		Rey:	[$anhhhd FAll into the river and is
30			gone::::
31			(0.9)
32	→	Jes:	a::nd °die°

(Figure 4.40, line 23)

Another noteworthy point is the level of learners' attentiveness to each other's language and their involvement in the task interaction. Interestingly, not only the group leader, most of the students in this group also keep close track of the talk-in-interaction so as to respond and assist each other relevantly and precisely. Therefore, the hierarchy in scaffolding here is not evident as in other groups. Students Reyes and Jessi perform collective scaffoldings (Donato, 1994) and co-construct Reyes's contribution in line 19-32. Only Ruby has stayed in silence before Kevin nominates her to participate in the discussion (34). Another scaffolding practice performed by group members is seen in line 38 where Claire prompts with a question word 'how' to involve Ruby further (38-45).

To sum up, this extract has demonstrated all three types of scaffolding device reported in Walsh (2006). First, Reyes's question is reformulated by Kevin to elicit more specific answers from group members (7). Second, space for participation is increased by the use of question words such as 'what', 'why' and 'how' to expand peers' response (16, 21, 38). Third, language support is provided by learners to model a more acceptable form of contribution (16, 28, 32). Orientation to leadership in this extract may be not as noticeable as that in other examples since no group members orient to Kevin as a help provider or task manager; whereas, Kevin's capability of using language to create learning opportunities, clarify meanings, and involve quiet participants has fulfilled his role as a group leader.

This chapter so far has presented DBGL in various types of interactional practices for different interactional environments. Group leadership is first made relevant by the teacher when he selects the leader students in each group (extract 4.1). This identity category also manifests itself in leader students' interactional practices such as managing the task (section 4.2), turn allocation (section 4.3), involving other members (section 4.4), plus collaborating in word search (section 4.5). DBGL is not an individual achievement of the group leader, but

rather, a co-production of the interaction which involves both leaders and their group members. As previously-mentioned, membership of an identity category is displayed by self and ascribed by others. Only through co-orientation of all the participants in a social action can we say that an identity is made relevant. The following section will present other aspects of group leadership in learner-learner task interaction.

4.7 Highlighting the Pedagogical Focus through Repair and Repair Initiation

A pedagogical focus may be the most significant feature that differentiates L2 classroom interaction from mundane conversations. Communication tasks or structure-based production tasks are often used by teachers to teach a specific linguistic structure communicatively (Ellis 2003; Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993). Pedagogical focus for this kind of task activity is twofold: the accomplishment of the task and students' production of the target structure. Two of the tasks in which most of our data is collected fit into this category. The target structures, past simple verbs and past modals for Task 1 (A tale with a twist) and Task 2 (Death on the canal) respectively are listed in the task material and explicitly presented in class by the teacher. Despite the teacher's pre-task instruction of the focused structures, it is found that production of the past tense form is scarce while no past modal forms are used by learners in their discussions. This result is not surprising. Constrained by the time limit, for most student participants, the focus is on the accomplishment of the task rather than the language used (Seedhouse, 2004). In this study, production of the past tense verbs usually appears after a group leader repairs or initiates a repair by referring to the material or the information written by the teacher on the whiteboard. Information on the whiteboard is usually highlighted content of the lesson. In this dataset, information displayed on the whiteboard includes the teacher's instruction on the implementation of the tasks and the requested target forms. Information selected and written by the teacher on the whiteboard usually carries the same importance as the teacher's words. It sometimes replaces the teacher as authority should

argument arise in the group. In the following extracts, group leaders Austin and Rose allude to the target structures while the speakers fail to produce them.

<u>Extract 4.19</u>: past simple tense_T1_TB_Austin

156 Emi: er:::::: then↑ (0.2) they leave the party (0.5) a::nd they say
157 goodbye with her:: ↑ei with their
158 (0.2)
159 Cin: mm
160 (0.5)
161 Emi: with their friends
162 (0.7)
163 → Aus: um::::(0.5) uh:::: we need to:: +°use° the::::
164 (1.0) + ((Austin and Emily look at Austin's worksheet))
165 <u>past</u> simple tense or
166 (1.0)
167 → or ((A shifts gaze to Sandy))
168 San: °(past tenses)°
169 → Aus: ((A turns to look at Cindy))
170 Cin: past continuous

(Figure 4.41, line 163)

(Figure 4.42, line 167)

171 Emi: <u>oh</u> okay
172 (0.2)
173 → Aus: so::
174 (0.9)
175 Emi: then↑(0.4) they leave to- un
176 → Aus: left
177 Emi: un (0.3) they left the party (0.5) and say said goodbye with (0.3)
178 their friends (1.3) a::::nd they realize (0.8) ei (1.0) un:: (2.2)
179 un::::: (0.6) they:::: (1.2) ei (0.4) realize (0.5) uh:: (0.3) what
180 → (1.1) what (stuff?) (0.6) is:::: ei was stealed (0.5) by:::by rob (0.6)
181 uh::(0.5) stuff is ei (0.2) wa en was disappeared (.) .hhh (.)

182 and they:: were (1.3) they were (0.2) very disappointed

Engaged in a picture-sequenced storytelling task (Task 1), students in the above extract need to change the form of provided verbs into past simple or past continuous as highlighted on the whiteboard and the task worksheet while telling a story based on the sequenced pictures. In such a Focus-on-Form task, any account of the story without the target form is regarded by the learners as repairable. Therefore, while learner Emily tells her story without using the correct form, Austin initiates a repair to explicitly identify the pedagogic goal of the task (163). A's repair initiation displays his orientation to the duties of a group leader. He firstly refers to the worksheet where the target forms are presented and successfully directs all group members' attention to the pedagogical focus (163-165, figure 4.41). He then involves Sandy and Cindy by shifting gaze to them to elicit a verbalization of the target form from them (167, 169, figure 4.42). Whether A involves his peers to seek for help because he may have problem with verbalizing the grammatical items (past continuous) or he does so to check peers' understanding cannot be ascertained from the data. However, this repair side-sequence has successfully raised other learners' awareness of the targeted structure. Emily responds with an acknowledgement token 'oh okay' to display her perception of the repair initiation (171) but pauses for a short while. Austin uses a stretched continuer 'so' to prompt E to carry on her storytelling (173).

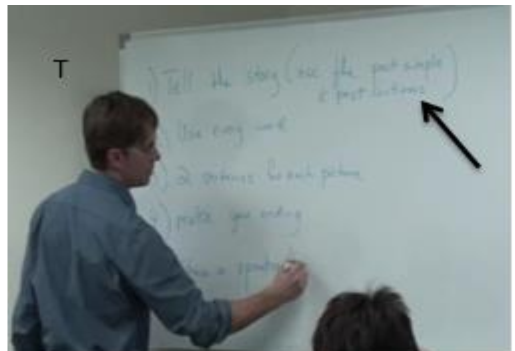
While Emily proceeds to continue her story, she fails to produce the correct verb tense again. This shows Austin's repair by explicitly stating the targeted structure has no effect on Emily's language production. In spite of her acknowledgement in line 171, there is no alignment between her claim of understanding and language use. Claim of understanding does not equate with doing. To repair this imperfection, Austin interrupts to model the correct form directly (176). This is an effective repair technique that hinders the speaker's flow of speech in the least degree (Seedhouse, 2004). A's modeling raises Emily's awareness of the gap

between what she says and the expected output. She is able to self-repair her errors and use the correct form throughout the rest of her turn (180-182). Uptake of the target structure is presented in Emily's self-repairs which display Emily's previous knowledge of the target form. While previous study on pedagogical repair or recast has yielded a rich result on L2 teacher's repair strategy in different contexts (Seedhouse, 2004), not much work has probed into learners' use of this technique. The data in this study show this interactional device is not exclusive to teachers. Modeling the expected language in a repair sequence is also an important feature of learner's talk that scaffolds peer participant's L2 learning.

Extract 4.20: past passive_T1_TB_Rose

Line		Speaker	Talk
1		Rub:	last Saturday they yaa:: (2.0) they had to get to the party to (*)
2			party to celebrate °(they) get a new job°
3			(1.3)
4		Ire:	uh huh (they) get a new job who get the new job
5			(0.5)
6		Jes:	their (°friends°) ((points at Irene's paper))
7		Rub:	maybe aa::::: [John (and Claire)
8		Ire:	[their friends?
9		Rub:	(bo↑both) invited
10	→	Ros:	(**) how to to write (0.8) °past passive°
11		Ire:	be be [invited
12		Ros:	[(past?) ((looks at the whiteboard quickly and turns back)
13		Ros:	be invited ((turns to look at the whiteboard again))
14		Ire:	mm
15	→	Ros:	+but that +aa:: tse- ((+points to the whiteboard))
			((All the other members gaze to the whiteboard))

(Figure 4.43, line 15)



(Figure 4.44, line 15)

16 Rub: past simple [and past continuous

17 Ros: [>perhaps they (left) the theatre and they don’t

18 (realize)< they (0.8) were °were invited°

19 Rub: were invited?

20 → Ros: past passive ((gazes at Rub))

Students in this extract are doing negotiation of forms, past passive. Engaged in a picture-sequenced storytelling task, these students need to change the form of provided verbs into past simple or past continuous as highlighted on the whiteboard while telling a story based on the sequenced pictures. Based on Ruby’s turn in lines 1-2 and the meaning negotiation between Irene and Jessie, the main characters, John and Claire were invited to a party by their friend who has got a new job. In line 9, Ruby intends to say that *John and Claire*, were both invited to a party according to her interpretation of the pictures, but uses active not passive form of the main verb, *invited* (line 9). To fix this grammatical error, the group leader Rose initiates a form-focused repair sequence by raising a question in line 10. Interrupting a current speaker’s talk for a form-focused repair is unusual or rarely seen in ordinary conversations, albeit quite common in L2 classroom teacher-student interaction. Repairing a grammatical error in talk is entitled to a language teacher and a group leader as well. The current speaker, Ruby, doesn’t seem to be offended at all. Compared to Austin’s repair in extract 4.19, leader Rose’s repair initiation is formed in a unique way. Normally, she could just repair the error by supplying a correct form like what Austin has done. Instead, she chooses to raise other members’ awareness of this grammatical structure with a question. It is obvious that Rose

knows how to form a past passive verb in this context (18, 20). Her question functions like a display question which is, different from a referential question, often used by teachers to check learners' knowledge (Walsh, 2006). This question receives an answer from Irene (11). She successfully makes a passive form, albeit not in past tense. Irene's reply immediately incurs another repair initiation from Rose (12). Since the past form is the target structure this task is designed for, it is taught by the teacher using the whiteboard before the launch of group discussion. Rose looks back on the whiteboard and repeats Irene's turn to check her answer again (13). Irene uses bi-syllabic token 'mm' (Gardner 2001; Lambertz 2011) to confirm her answer (14). Irene's confirmation shows either her unawareness of the target form or lack of the linguistic knowledge. In order to bring peers' attention to the pedagogical focus, Rose turns toward the whiteboard again, and points to the teacher's written instructions with a verbal indexical *that* at line 15. Rose's bodily orientation successfully directs other members' gazes towards the whiteboard (figure 4.43) and leads to Ruby's verbalization of the targeted form on the whiteboard (line 16). Figure 4.44 shows instructions for the task on the whiteboard including the targeted form highlighted with an arrow. In line 16, Ruby's verbalization of the target information indicates a mutual understanding is achieved. Her verbalization of the target form is incorporated and transformed by Rose to form a contextualized form-focused repair (17-18). Note that Rose's repair, notwithstanding embedded in her task-oriented speech describing the picture, is acknowledged by Ruby with a rising pitch. Ruby's echo of only the repaired verb phrase (line 19) demonstrates her knowledge of the target structure.

This extract demonstrates Rose's ability to identify the pedagogical goal, understand the gap between peers' production and the targeted form and use questions instead of modeling the correct form to create opportunities for peers' self-repair and scaffold peers' learning. These interactional features display Rose's expertness and classroom interactional competence compared to other group members' competence in terms of interactional behaviors in group

discussion. By highlighting the instructed form in task interaction and raising group members' awareness of the pedagogical focus, Rose also successfully positions her identity as a group leader.

4.8 Giving Word Explanations

In this section, group leaders are treated by their group members as language experts who can provide word meanings. Explaining a word is hence talked into a category-bound duty (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006) that a group leader has to fulfill. Requesting help from group leaders for word explanation is a recurrent scene in the discussion for task 3, NASA game, especially in teacher L's class. In this task, each group will be given a list of fifteen items. Students have to discuss and rank the items based on their importance for survival in the outer space. In teacher B's class, a vocabulary session is taught before the launch of the task. All the items on the list are taught and explained by the teacher in advance. Interestingly, teacher B uses a lot of gestures and bodily movements while doing vocabulary instruction. In this part of discussion, gestures are also used by group leaders as an important resource for word explanation.

Extract 4.21: signal flare_T3_TL_Rinoa

1		Rina:	↑oh:::: (0.6) +°this one° (0.9) this one (0.4) is (0.2) uh::
2			+signal (.) ↓gun
			((+points at her paper, + gestures a gun then gazes at Mik*))*
3			(1.5)
4	→	Sug:	what (0.2) what +this (0.2) use (0.5) use [for::: ((gestures a gun))
5		Rin:	like (0.2) you know (.) Titanic ↑right:::: *((gazes at* Mik*))*
6		Mik:	uh huh ((nodding her head))
7	→	Rin:	so:: they have +to::: (0.4) +↑sh[ooi:::::: +↓bong::
8		Sug:	[°↑shooi:::::: ↓bonhh° okay=

(Figure 4.45: line 7: *to*)

(Figure 4.46: ↑sh[ooi::::::)

(Figure 4.47: ↓bong::)

9	→	Rina:	=to make (0.3) to make others (.) ships know: where (.) they are
10	→	Mik:	信號嗎 ((tr.: signal?))
11		Sug:	SOS (.) SOS *((writing 'SOS' in the air with her finger))*
12		Rin:	yeah yeah (**) signal $^{+}$gun:: (0.2) gun:: it's a gun::
13			(1.4)
14		Sug:	>buooi buooi< ((gestures shooting to Mik))
			((LL write on their worksheets))

This group of students is working on a ranking exercise, NASA Game (Task 3). They have to reach an agreement on the order of the fifteen items listed on the worksheet according to their importance for survival in a space mission. After the teacher's brief introduction of the background knowledge provided by the task material and instructions on task implementation, learner Rinoa, the group leader, opts to work on the meanings of the listed items as a pre-task activity. An interesting phenomenon in the pre-task activity is the unique way the learner participants collaborate to attain the word meanings and the functions of these objects.

In line 1, Rinoa introduces the item, signal flares, by calling it signal gun instead. This is similar to the previously mentioned strategy of using paraphrase for vocabulary explanation. She also uses an illustrator gesture (iconic) that forms the shape of a gun, although these two items might have completely different forms. As what matters in this task is the use of the object on the moon, Sugar takes the turn to ask about it by adopting the language and gesture used by Rinoa in prior turn (4). In her reply to Sugar's question, Rinoa demonstrates how learners' L2 knowledge of a lexical item is co-constructed in a successful embodied word explanation. To explain the use of a signal flare, Rinoa alludes to a scene in a popular movie,

‘Titanic’, where signal flares are used. The movie scene provides the recipients an interpretative structure, or a context, where the speaker and her recipients with shared previous knowledge about the movie attain intersubjectivity. After Miki responds with a head nod, Rinoa uses a connective ‘so’ that directly brings Miki and Sugar to the scene where signal flare is fired. Rinoa’s turn in line 7 is formed by a combination of speech, gestures, and imitated sound of a fired flare: kinetographic gesture for the action of firing a signal flare (figure 4.45), pictographic gesture for the movement of an ignited flare (figure 4.46) and the effect of the fired flare in the sky (figure 4.47). The “performative quality” (Olsher 2004, p. 232) of this embodied word definition has an effect that speech alone cannot achieve. Recipients’ understanding of this embodied word explanation is displayed in line 8 where Sugar’s vocal imitations echo Rinoa’s (7) and Miki’s production of the L1 equivalent in line 10. Apart from presenting the form and sound of firing a signal flare, Rinoa also mentions the purpose of using a flare, which is to notify other ships nearby the location of the distress (9).

Although group leaders are often treated by other members as language experts, they are, in effect, language learners as well. The following extract shows a group leader, Kevin, asks for the word meaning of ‘canal’ from his peer members.

Extract 4.22: what is canal_T2_TB_Kevin

1	→	Kev:	what is canal
2			(1.4) ((Kev shifts gazes from his paper to Jes then to Cla))
3		Kev:	What’s a (0.2) canal
4			(.)
5		Cla:	canal +[rivers
6		Jes:	+[the ri:ver=
7		Rey:	= the river

Jes moves her pen back and forth over the picture of the canal on the worksheet several times

Cla moves her hand over the picture of canal once.

(Figure 4.48: line 5-6, rivers)

In this extract, Kevin asks a question about the meaning of one key word 'canal' in this task (Task2, Death on the canal). The recording of the whole task shows that learner Kevin might be confused with the meanings of 'canal' and 'gondola' in the picture before orientation to this talk. To clear up the confusion, he explicitly asks his peer members about the meaning of 'canal' (1). All three members use a synonym 'river' to explain the word almost at the same time (5-7). Jessie and Claire even utilize a pictographic gesture (McNeill, 1992) to enforce their explanation (figure 4.48). However, the data of Kevin's group discussion after this sequence reveals that Kevin actually doesn't accept his peers' explanation. On the contrary, he apparently mistakes canal for the boat, which leads to a lack of mutual understanding and affiliation between the leader and his group members while they try to reach an agreement to solve the mystery. The following extract of Kevin's class presentation evidences his rejection of other group members' word explanation.

<u>Extract 4.23</u>: the canal_T2_TB_Kevin's presentation

1	Kev:	so::: for question:::
2	T:	shhhhhhhhhh ((T is ordering the class to quiet down.)
3	Kev:	↑one we decided that Robinson was (0.3) murdered (0.2) because
4		it is not possible for him (.) to be alone on the (0.3) <u>ca</u>nal
5		(0.7)
6	T:	mm hm
7		(0.4)
8	Kev:	coz on the canal you have to that have a (0.6) man (.) to (0.4)

9 → rock the canal for you

As seen at line 9 in the above extract, Kevin inappropriately uses the verb 'rock' to describe what a man might do to a canal. Apparently, he ignores his peers' explanation that defines a canal as a river but chooses to believe a canal is a boat which needs someone to 'row', not 'rock'. This I would call 'a leader's flaw' which is caused by a leader's pride. This pride is displayed in leader K's language and action. As a comparison to this phenomenon, the extract below presents a group member's response to a leader's word explanation.

<u>Extract 4.24</u>: canal_T2_TB_Austin

1		San:	**<u>ca</u>**nal 是這個 ((tr.: "canal" is this-))
2			(1.5)
3		San:	+這個東西哦 ((tr.: this?))
			+ ((seems to point at the gondola in the picture, Figure 4.49))

(Figure 4.49: line 3, 這個東西哦, tr.: this?)

4	→	Aus:	+這個河 ((tr.: this river))
			+ ((points at the canal in this picture and moves his index finger up and down along the canal in the picture, Figure 4.50))

(Figure 4.50: line 4, 這個河 tr.: this river)

5 (0.5)

6 San: +↑**ca**nal 是 °河 °- ((tr.: canal is a °river°?))

\+ ((seems surprised and looks closely at her worksheet))

7 Aus: 運河 ((tr.: a canal))=

8 → San: ((stares at the picture for a while then takes out a pen from her pencil case and writes on her paper, Figure 4.51))

(Figure 4.51: line 8)

This extract is presented here to illustrate how learners' responses to a similar word explanation differ and how the difference may affect their language learning. Before Austin's word explanation, Sandy has mistaken 'canal' for the gondola in the picture (Task 2). Sandy's misunderstanding is unveiled in the following talk (extract 4.25) while she replies to a peer learner's question about the lexical item in the pre-opening session.

Extract 4.25: pre-opening_T2_TB_Sandy

1		Rac:	canal she shen mo ah ((tr.: what's canal))
2	→	San:	canal she siao chuan lah↓ ((tr.: it's a small boat))
3		Rac:	°siao chuan↑° ((tr.: °small boat↑°))
4		Joy:	canal? ((looks doubtfully at Sandy))
5	→	San:	canal she ge zhou ((tr.: canal is a small boat.)

This talk happens in a pre-opening session before the students are put into groups to discuss about the mystery (Task 2). When Sandy was asked about the meaning of 'canal', she answered in a confident voice. The ending sound 'lah' with a dropping pitch, which has no meaning in Chinese, however connotes an assertive tone of speech. In lines 3 and 4, both Rachel and Joy responded with a rising pitch, which seemed to display uncertainty about Sandy's explanation of the word. Their responses can also be interpreted as a repair initiation. However, Sandy didn't treat it as a trouble. She gave another L1 translation which also means 'boat' while doing the gesture in line 5. Sandy shows no doubt about her understanding of the target word until her group partner Cindy makes her contribution in their group discussion.

After Cindy's talk about the mystery (see extract 4.17), it is possible that Sandy notices the misalignment in her understanding and Cindy's use of this word. She picks up her paper, points at the gondola and makes the hand gesture synchronized with her speech in line 1. In line 3 (Figure 4.49), we can clearly see Austin's gaze fixed at what Sandy is pointing at. Seeing that Sandy is pointing at the wrong object, he immediately performs a repair by gesturing the shape of the canal in the picture while calling the canal a river (line 4, Figure 4.50). After receiving Sandy's recognition with a repetition in line 6, Austin self-repairs to provide a more accurate L1 equivalent (7). Sandy displays acknowledgement of the repair by nodding her head and writing on her paper. Although the word repair is conducted in the L1, the method used by Austin is noteworthy. The 'embodied word explanation' is frequently used by students and teachers in this dataset. This interactional device should be incorporated to the construct of CIC with its effect on assisting understanding.

The above analysis shows group leaders are positioned as more competent students by their group members who seek help from them; and their language support is usually accepted by group members as reliable and authentic. Something interesting in extract 4.24 is Sandy seeks help from Austin instead of the teacher who also sits next to her. Her quick adoption of Austin's explanation forms an interesting contrast with Kevin's response to peers' language support in extract 4.22. Although it is common that group members request language support from their leaders, it rarely happens the other way around. In Rinoa's group discussion, Rinoa either refers to her electronic dictionary or involves the teacher when she has problems with word meanings. Something interesting in Rinoa's word explanation is when a request is made by group members, she sometimes uses her dictionary to obtain the word meaning first and reports the result of her search to the group instead of showing them the dictionary directly. This may suggest Rinoa, being a group leader, positions herself as a knowledge transmitter.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated how the identity 'group leader' is situated in task interaction, displayed and made relevant by learners' interactional practices in different interactional environments. The role of group leader is first made relevant by the teacher when he passes the voice recorders to the selected students in each group (extract 4.1). It is embedded in leader Austin's engagement in making plans for the task (Section 4.2). The identity category is made relevant and used as a resource by two groups of students while doing 'selecting the presenter' (Section 4.2). Group leadership is further displayed by Austin and his group members through his turn-allocation practices (Section 4.3). Another feature of this identity category demonstrates the leader students' ability to engage reticent or strayed students in a joint discussion (Section 4.4). Group leadership is further displayed while group members orient to their leader as language assistant by explicitly requesting language support in a word

search (Section 4.5, extract 4.16). Group leaders also maintain attentive and active listenership (extracts 4.16, 4.17, 4.18). Only by making sense of what is being said and done by peer participants in the preceding turn can the leader students make relevant responses or provide interactional support in the right place at the right time. This attentiveness should be applied to all group members to make constructive contributions. Another practice by group leaders that creates an opportunity for group members to participate further in the discussion is scaffolding (Section 4.6). Scaffolding can be done in different ways for various purposes.

Group leaders create learning opportunities by navigating their group members to the focus of pedagogy (Section 4.7). Pedagogical focuses are a crucial factor that distinguishes language classroom interaction from mundane conversations. Identifying the goal of pedagogy is normally done by the teacher before teaching a lesson or launch of task discussions. When the participation structure switches from teacher-student cohort to student-student interaction in small groups, the leader of the group takes over the responsibility and navigates group discussions towards the goal. Also important is the unique technique of repair and repair initiation they use to trigger a joint focus (extracts 4.19 and 4.20). This strategic repair is usually employed by teachers. The form-focused repairs initiated by leader Austin and Rose provide opportunities for the speakers to reformulate their contributions by using the target structures. The last aspect of DBGL is demonstrated in group leaders' word explanations (Section 4.8). When peer participants claim no understanding of a lexical item and explicitly requests help from the leaders, the leaders are once again oriented to a language expert. By seeking and providing word explanations, group members and the group leader orient to each other as expert/novice and help provider/help seeker. With the mutual understanding of positioning, the problem of the lexical term is solved.

To sum up, while orienting to the role of group leader, the selected students make plans for the task, manage turn taking, and provide language support. Without an interview with the

teachers, there is no explanation why these students have been selected by their teachers to be group leaders. However, based on the above analyses in each section, it may be safe to assume that they are chosen because of the level of their English proficiency and the level of involvement in previous class activities. Although a group leader's linguistic competence plays an important role in terms of giving language support to their members, what matters is how their language advantages are made relevant and used to benefit the group work. The ability to use language as a resource to mediate language learning in the classroom is central to the notion of classroom interactional competence. L2 learners' CIC to manage tasks and identity work will be presented in next chapter as the main contribution of this thesis. The overall findings of the data analysis will be further discussed to highlight the implications to pedagogy and classroom practices.

Chapter 5. Discussion

5.0 Introduction

The data analyses in chapter four have reported the findings as follows: (1) a variety of interactional features have been identified while students in groups orient to the role of group leader; (2) learning opportunities are created or increased when group leaders perform managerial or pedagogical practices which are often done by teachers in teacher-fronted settings, such as giving instructions, managing turn-taking, repair and repair initiation, scaffolding, and providing language support; (3) multi-modal resources are employed by the students to do the identity work and conduct the group activity; (4) interactional features of DBGL (doing-being-the-group-leader) share part of the characteristics of CIC; (5) The role of group leader is not always made relevant throughout group interactions. This chapter will summarize and discuss the findings further in relation to the literature review and research questions. Methodological and pedagogical implications of the findings will be presented as the key contribution of this thesis.

Section 5.1 will further discuss the main findings and contribution of this research. The analyses of the data showed while doing being a group leader, students talked the group interaction into a miniature teacher-fronted talk in that the assigned leaders took on a teacher's role by performing different pedagogical practices. These semi-pedagogical practices facilitate learning space and share part of the characteristics of CIC proposed by Walsh (2006). This section will highlight L2 learner CIC that manifests itself in this specific context. Section 5.2 will discuss the embodiment of learner-learner task interaction with a focus on group leaders' configuration of an artefact at hand, a voice recorder, for online interactional fulfillment. Section 5.3 will present the multi-orientations to DBGL emergent in the data to highlight classroom dynamics. The multi-orientations to DBGL demonstrate how

the selected students perceive and perform the role of group leader differently and how the variations lead to different organizations of group interactions. This supports the argument for a micro-analytic investigation into L2 classroom task interaction. In section 5.4, a discussion on how the nature of the task may impact learners' task performance will be made to provide a suggestion for task selection. Following this, section 5.5 will discuss how the findings of this thesis can implicate task-based L2 learning and classroom pedagogy. A conclusion will be provided in section 5.6 to end this chapter.

5.1 L2 Learner CIC in Student-Led Small Group Task Interaction

Analyses in chapter four demonstrated that the role of group leader was made relevant through the following interactional practices:

(1) Planning the task and giving instructions (Section 4.2)

(2) Allocating turns and signaling boundaries (Section 4.3)

(3) Engaging peer participants (Section 4.4)

(4) Word search (Section 4.5)

(5) Scaffolding (Section 4.6)

(6) Highlighting pedagogical focus, repair and repair initiation (Section 4.7)

(7) Giving word explanations (Section 4.8)

These interactional features demonstrated the appointed leaders' ability to manage the group work, involve peer participants and provide language support for the purpose of task accomplishment. In classroom interaction, the relevant "default identities" are teacher and student (Richards, 2006); in student-led group discussion, they are group leader and group member. The most significant feature that characterizes teacher-learner relationship in teacher-fronted interaction might be an asymmetry of power and knowledge (Markee & Kunitz, 2015; Richards, 2006). From a CA's emic perspective, this power and knowledge

differential is accountable only when it is made relevant through interaction. In a teacher-fronted setting, the teacher, who is the leader of a big group (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003), controls the topic of conversation and turn-taking. It is the teacher who 'controls the floor, asks questions, issues instructions, prompts and evaluates, while the students, addressing their responses to the teacher, respond directly to these turns" (Richards 2006, p. 61). When teachers construct their role as a *commander* by controlling the topic, information and turn-taking, the interaction is tightly controlled as in a traditional teacher-fronted setting. The teacher-learner interaction is an asymmetric exchange system. However, if the teacher takes less control with the right to speak more equally distributed to the students, a teacher-learner interaction may appear to be a casual conversation in which the teacher acts as a knowledgeable interlocutor. In other words, a teacher may or may not talk his/her role into being (Richards, 2006), and how teachers orient to their role has a great impact on classroom interaction. The inter-relationship between L2 teachers' interactional decisions and classroom interaction is detailed in Seedhouse (2004) and Walsh (2006). This interactionally constructed identity and its effect on classroom interaction also applies to the construction of a group leader and its impact on the group interaction.

Based on the features of DBGL listed above, doing being a group leader is in some way doing being a teacher. As shown in the analyses of data, the selected students oriented to identity categories which demonstrate different aspects of a group leader: task manager, language expert and language facilitator. Group leaders talked themselves into a task manager by giving instructions, launching the discussion, signaling the boundaries, eliciting ideas, and highlighting the pedagogical focus (Sections 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4). When language problems occurred, some group leaders were oriented into a language expert to assist word searches (Section 4.5), correct linguistic errors (Sections 4.5, 4.6), and provide word definitions (Section 4.8). They also facilitated participation by providing information and scaffolding (Section 4.5 & 4.6). These interactional practices in which the identity categories are invoked

demonstrated group leaders' potential to do what teachers do in the classroom. It might be safe to assume that only when the appointed leaders conduct these semi-instructional practices is the student-led group interaction made relevant. However, not all group leaders oriented to the above mentioned roles, and the relevant pedagogical practices only occurred on occasions. For instance, Austin was the only leader that took on a manager's role by giving instructions. Although most of the leaders helped with language problems, other group members were also involved to provide assistance. The point to raise here is these semi-pedagogical practices facilitate mutual understanding and learning opportunities. Students adopting the role of a group member also demonstrate their ability to manage group work by participating in the discussion, requesting clarifications, displaying insufficient knowledge and seeking language support. Through these interactional arrangements, L2 learners are able to assist or mediate self's and others' learning in second language classroom. L2 learners are not merely defective users of the L2; they are competent learners and learning collaborators (see Modern Language Journal 1997, 1998, 2004, 2007 for the argument). The ability to manage classroom interaction for learning is central to the notion of classroom interactional competence (CIC).

Classroom interactional competence is defined by Walsh (2011, p. 158) as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning". The focus of CIC is on "the way teachers' and learners' interactional decisions and subsequent actions enhance learning and learning opportunities" (Walsh 2012, p. 5). With increased CIC, teachers and learners will be able to create more learning-oriented interactions (Walsh, 2012). Walsh's research which focuses on teachers' discourse highlights CIC in teachers' use of extended wait-time, scaffolding, paraphrasing, and etc. CIC can also be highlighted from learners' perspective in teacher-learner interaction. As concluded in Seedhouse & Walsh (2010), "CIC manifests itself through the ways in which interactants create space for learning, making appropriate responses 'in the moment', seek and offer clarification, demonstrate understandings, afford opportunities for participation, negotiate meanings, and so on" (p.

145). As CIC is mostly determined by teachers (Walsh, 2006), it is rarely discussed in learner-learner interaction. This thesis investigating students' discourse in constructing leadership and managing task activities aims to fill the gap of literature on classroom interactional competence. Students in this thesis perform a dual role as an L2 learner and a group participant. Based on the findings drawn from the data analysis, L2 learners in this study demonstrate their ability to mediate learning in task interaction in the following aspects. First, learner CIC demonstrates learners' ability to manage and navigate group work. Second, learner CIC facilitates learning space. Third, learner CIC uses language that is convergent to the purpose of group discussions. Fourth, learner CIC involves learners' ability to manage their role in convergence with the interactional agenda. Fifth, students arrange appropriate code-switching to fulfill online interactional needs. Finally, learner CIC involves learners' ability to configure multi-modal resources to communicate and participate in group discussions. These interactional features have been discussed in chapter four mostly from a group leader's perspective. As identity is co-constructed by all interlocutors, this section will highlight L2 learner CIC from perspectives of both the group leaders and members.

(1) Learner CIC involves learners' ability to manage group work

L2 teaching in the classroom may mostly happen in teacher-fronted settings; however, from the perspective of learning as participation (Firth & Wagner, 2007; Pekarek-Doehler, 2004, 2010), learning in the L2 classroom is mostly done in dyadic or group activities generated by teacher-assigned language learning tasks (Hellermann, 2008; Skehan, 1996). Participating in pair or small group work is a recurrent practice for students in task-oriented classroom contexts (Seedhouse, 2004). Research using CA has explored L2 learners' interactional competence in managing pair and group task activities in the classroom. Hellermann (2008) and Hellermann & Cole (2008) documented students' methods for opening and disengaging from dyadic task interactions within different classroom communities of practice. Hellermann

(2008) concluded that students of lower proficiency levels tended to directly launch the start of the task while more advanced students oriented to a shift in participation structures using discourse markers, allocating turns for the task, and framing the upcoming task. Using a conversation analytic method, this thesis hopes to contribute to this area of interest by investigating a rarely-researched phenomenon, doing-being-a-group-leader in student-led small group interaction. In classroom settings such as group task interaction when the teacher is not always around to provide assistance, a group leader with learners in this study demonstrate their ability to manage different aspects of group work: framing and launching the group interaction, navigating, collaborating, and facilitating in the group interaction, and summarizing the discussion. Learner CIC manifests itself firstly in the way group leaders manage, collaborate, and facilitate group interactions. This sub-section will focus on how they manage the group work. Learners' ability to collaborate in task activities will be discussed in next sub-section.

Giving Instructions

The analysis of Section 4.2 showed leader Austin managed the tasks by giving orders or instructions. Group leaders' instructions at the beginning of the task usually refer to teachers' instruction about the task. Practices of giving instructions have been discussed in some CA-based studies on teacher-learner interaction (Hellermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Markee, 2015; Seedhouse, 2008); however, it is rarely mentioned in research into learner-learner interaction. As highlighted in Markee (2015), teachers' instructions at the beginning of class are interactional, not monologic. An instruction has to be acknowledged, interpreted and followed. As the data analysis showed, while giving instructions, leader Austin employed imperatives accompanied by shifted eye gaze and pointing gestures toward group members. He constructed his turns using instructive phrases like '**I'n gonna**', '**you need to**' and '**I will**', as part of TCUs along with a fixed gaze and pointing gestures to do 'giving instructions' to all

his group members (extract 4.4). His instruction was acknowledged and accepted by group members Emily and Sandy with an acknowledgement token 'huh huh" and 'so okay'. Interestingly, leader Austin's instructive discourse in Task 1 and 2 were similar to teacher Brooks' (teacher participant in this study) in some way. The extracts of talk below evidence striking similarities between their practices. To highlight the similarities, all responding turns by other members are not shown.

Austin's Instruction

74	Aus:	**Okay**, and **I'n gonna** write down the (0.3) stories
80	Aus:	**you need to** summarize s-story to me and **I will** present…
85	Aus:	hm………it suppose to **you need to** discuss
87	Aus:	or **we need to** discuss

Teacher Brooks' Instruction

1	Tea:	**Ok**. so these are what **you're gonna** do. In your small groups
Eight lines omitted		
10	Tea:	**Ok** (0.6) **you have to** use all- **I'm gonna** write the rules yeah. **You have to** use all the rules (0.4) **You have to** use them in the right tense (0.7) as well (0.4) And then **you also have to** make your own ending to this story. **I'll ask** you a question at the end. So **you have to** make your own ending.

The teacher's instruction for Task 1 is made before group discussions. As shown above, teacher Brooks uses very similar language (emphasized in boldface) used by Austin in extract 4.4 to frame his instruction. This evidences Austin has somewhat developed the language of giving instructions- using **'I'n/I'm gonna'** and **'I will'** to project future actions and **'you need/have to'** to instruct others and demonstrate authority. The modal auxiliaries used by Austin and teacher Brooks express their attitudes towards peer group and student group and highlight the asymmetry of power in leader-member and teacher-student interaction. The similarities of their language use suggest that Austin may have incorporated teacher Brooks' instructive discourse as a repertoire through recurrently receiving instructions from the

teacher in classroom activities. While learning the linguistic knowledge to shape an instruction, learner Austin has simultaneously developed interactional competence for managing classroom activities as an instructor. This resonates with socio-interactionist's view of L2 learning that what language learners learn in the classroom is not decontextualized linguistic knowledge, but the method of using the L2 to accomplish practices that are performed by certain roles (Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Firth & Wagner, 2007; Young, 2008).

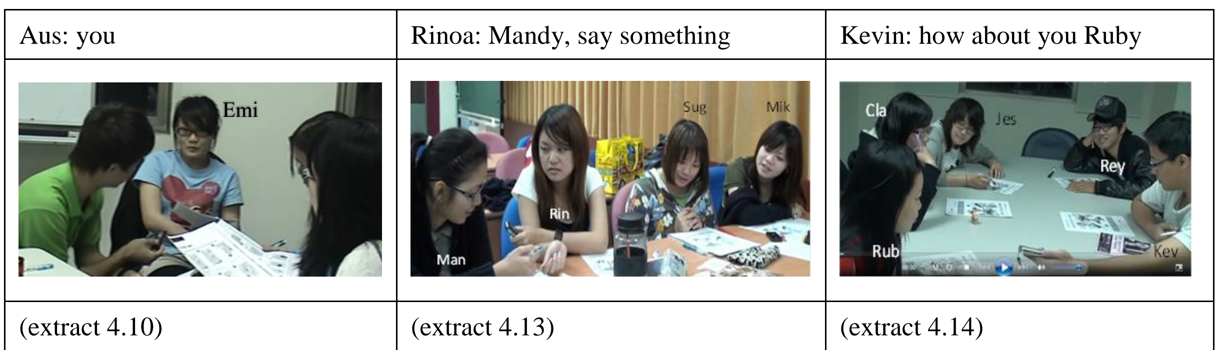
Managing Turn-Taking

Another rarely reported phenomenon in CA learner-learner interaction research is how learners manage turn-taking in group discussions. A learner-learner interaction is usually a symmetrical exchange system in which participants are free to take turns. When the right to speak is controlled by the group leader, the group interaction is asymmetric as in a teacher-whole class interaction. Hence, like instructions-giving, control or management of turn-taking is exclusive to student-led group interactions. In this study, group leaders allocate turns to manage group work and engage peer participants.

As the analysis in Section 4.3 showed, leader Austin managed the group discussion by allocating turns to group members. His turn allocation reflects their task plan agreed by all members (see Section 4.2, extract 4.4). According to their plan for Task 1, all the female members take turns describing the pictures and Austin will report to the class (see the above extract of Austin's instruction). Sandy, sitting to the right of Austin self-selected to describe the first picture and later pointed at Cindy on her right to tell the second. Cindy didn't respond to Sandy's selection, but instead, waited for her turn to be allocated by Austin. In other words, Cindy acted at Austin's command (extract 4.8), and so did Emily, the third teller in the group (extract 4.10). This evidenced group members' orientation to Austin's leadership and his right to allocate turns. The unique management of turn-taking differentiates student-led interactions

from common learner-learner interactions which normally apply local allocational means as in daily conversations. In everyday conversations, the current speaker selects the next speaker, or other speaker self-selects, or the current speaker continues to talk (Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson, 1974). The turns in Austin's group discussion are in fact pre-allocated based on their plan. Austin's turn allocation only appeared in the first round of telling. For the rest of the group discussion, all group members except Austin take their turns in due course.

Turn allocation is a common practice of teachers in the classroom. In educational settings, questions are often used by teachers to check students' understanding and knowledge. When no one answers the question, the teacher will directly nominate a student to provide an answer. Nomination is also used by group leaders Kevin, and Rinoa to engage other participants (extract 4.13, 4.14). Different from Austin's turn allocation which 'forces' each member's participation in the activity, Kevin and Rinoa allocate turns to members only to elicit their opinions rather than controlling the right to speak. Their elicitation may receive no response from group members, who may keep silent, avoid eye contact or use an explicit 'CIK' (Sert, 2011) to opt out of participation. The following figure shows a comparison of three leaders' turn allocation techniques:



Aus: you	Rinoa: Mandy, say something	Kevin: how about you Ruby
(extract 4.10)	(extract 4.13)	(extract 4.14)

(Figure 5.1: Engaging group members)

Figure 5.1 clearly shows the similarities and differences in the ways Austin, Rinoa and Kevin engage group members. Both Austin and Rinoa use imperatives and shift gazes at the targeted

member, while Kevin uses an opinion elicitor ‘how about you’ with a pointing gesture at the selected member. Both Rinoa and Kevin nominate the members, whereas Austin uses a second-person reference ‘you’ to involve Emily. The single reference ‘you’ without extra information indicates a tacit understanding between Emily and Austin. As the turn is pre-allocated following their task plan, Austin’s turn allocation serves more like a signal to ensure group members take their turns at the due time. Interestingly, all three leaders incorporate the mini-recorder as a turn-allocation device to engage members. Using classroom objects as a resource for managing talk has gained increasing interest from CA classroom research (Markee, 2015). This unique practice of learners will be further discussed in later section.

Signaling boundaries and summarizing the discussion

Group leaders also manage the group work by keeping the talk on track. When more than three people participate in a group discussion, the conversation may be chaotic with overlaps, interruptions, backchannels, and off-task talk. Group leaders need some methods to keep the focus on the task. To keep the discussion on track, leader Austin uses transition markers ‘SO↓’ to signal the launch of a topic and ‘OK’ to close a sequence (see extract 4.8, 4.15, and 4.17). He highlights the transitions with an increased volume to draw the group’s attention. By signaling the boundaries, Austin successfully navigates off-track private talk back to the group discussion, and forecasts the upcoming action (Section 4.3 and 4.4). Moreover, Austin summarized each member’s opinions to help the group review, analyze and compare different ideas before reaching an agreement. Although it was made in the L1, the summary that recaps what had been said provides the information for the subsequent action. It is a shame that Austin chose to summarize in his native language. By doing the summary in the L2, learners can create more opportunities for them to use the language.

(2) Learner CIC facilitates learning space in small group task interaction

CIC enhances L2 learning in the way space for learning is created, maintained and sustained through teachers' and learners' interactional adjustments (Walsh, 2012). Space for learning refers to interactional space that learners need to participate in classroom interaction using the target language. Interactional space can be created and maximized through appropriate language use which is convergent to the pedagogical goal and interactional agenda of the moment (ibid). In this thesis, space for learning is created when learners orient to the following interactional practices.

Eliciting Ideas

Group leaders elicit ideas from group members using a prompt, an open question or adopting the guiding questions provided by the task materials. The elicitation strategy of the leader can influence group members' responses and hence, the space for learning. Some task materials provide guiding questions to help L2 learner conduct their work. This is the case for this study. Materials for Task 2 provide three guiding questions to direct the group discussion. To complete the task, students need to provide the answers to the questions through group discussions. It is expected that the guiding questions are used by learners to launch their discussions. As shown in extract 4.18, leader Kevin adopts one guiding question (Is Mr. Robinson murdered or is it an accident?) as a resource to repair group member Reyes's launching question (Why is Mr. Robinson murdered?). To complete the task, learners in groups have to discuss and decide whether the death is an accident or a crime. Through leader Kevin's reformulation, the launching question opens up more possibilities that may solve the mystery. A question, which is a first pair part of an adjacency pair, draws out an answer, the second pair part. Using the guiding question at the beginning of the discussion ensures the interaction starts off on the right track. Moreover, using wh-questions instead of yes-no questions invites elaboration on the topic and therefore creates more opportunities for participation.

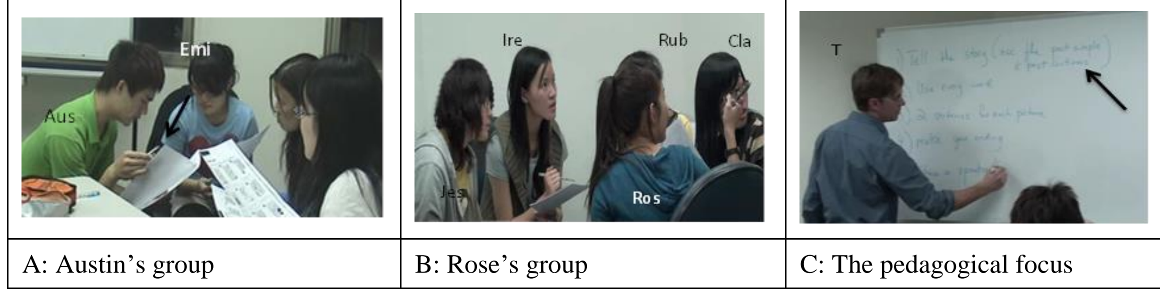
Repair and Repair Initiation

As mentioned in Section 2.2.2, unlike repairs in daily conversations, language teachers' repairs of students' linguistic errors serve a pedagogical purpose in language classroom (Seedhouse, 2007). Lyster & Ranta (1997, p. 42) mention teacher's corrective feedback as 'analytic teaching strategy'. For the purpose of language learning, repairs of learners' errors are mostly "initiated by teachers, completed by learners, and confirmed by teachers" (Yashui, 2010, p. 44). Compared with teachers' repairs of learners' language, learners' repairs of other learners' language are relatively limited. As mentioned in Chapter 2, according to Seedhouse (2004), repair is initiated mostly when a trouble source obstructs task accomplishment. No attempt to correct linguistic errors is made by students engaging in task interaction. This is evidenced in this study. Repairs in this study are mostly initiated to check understanding and fix misunderstanding or no hearing. The ability to seek clarification or clarify misunderstandings is also an important aspect of CIC (Walsh, 2011). This being said, two cases of error correction are found in this dataset. More interestingly, they are performed in a very unique way with a specific function. This repair sequence is initiated by group leaders Austin and Rose who invite all their group members to do a joint repair.

Other-initiated joint repair

One intended goal of planned focus on *form* task instruction is for learner participants to produce specific linguistic structures while engaging in communicative task activities (Willis & Willis, 2007). Task 1 and 2 used in this study belong to this kind of task. Despite both teachers' instructions which highlight the targeted forms before group discussions, orientations to the focused structures are relatively scarce in this study. All these orientations occur in Task 1 (A tale with a twist) discussions, in which students have to use the past form of the verbs listed in the task worksheet to construct a story out of sequenced pictures

(Appendix D). Group members' failure to produce the past form is treated by leader Austin and Rose as a violation of the pedagogical goal and therefore repairable (section 4.7). The form-focused repairs (or error correction) initiated by Austin and Rose not only display the leaders' identity and expertise but also their interactional strategies that facilitate learning space. They firstly direct their groups' attention to the targeted forms: past simple and past continuous, and then complete the repair. Austin interrupts in the very beginning of Emily's turn to highlight the focused structure. He refers to the worksheet while partially stating the pedagogical focus, pauses for one second, and then shifts gaze to group members Sandy and Cindy (Section 4.7, extract 4.19). Rose uses a display question (Long & Sato, 1983), to which the answer is known by the questioner, and directs the group's attention to the targeted form (extract 4.20). Involving all group members in a multi-party repair by directing their attention to the task material (see Figure 5.2, part A) and the whiteboard (Figure 5.2, B & C), Austin and Rose create learning spaces for other participants by raising awareness to the pedagogical focus. When contributors fail to produce the correct form, they complete the repair by modeling the language.



A: Austin's group	B: Rose's group	C: The pedagogical focus

(Figure 5.2 Directing group members' attention to the pedagogic focus)

In this way, the repair is not only directed to the trouble source maker, which is usually the case in learner repair of learner errors; it is directed to the whole group just as teachers usually do in the classroom. This type of correction which involves participants' negotiation of form instead of giving the correct form immediately as in recasts or explicit corrections is more learning-beneficial (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The leaders' semi-pedagogic practice evidences

learners can do what teachers do to enhance learning in the classroom. By comparing the effects of TLD (Teacher-Led Discourse) and LLD (Learner-Led Discourse) on L2 morphosyntactic development, Toth (2011) concludes that TLD has better effects by consistently directing attention to the target structure and by cueing it or eliciting it as output. These interactional moves which he claims are unlikely to appear among learner peers alone are actually found in this study. Another significance of this repair sequence is its multimodality. The joint focus to the target form is made available through the leaders' coordination of language, their bodily orientations, gestures, gaze directions, the task material, the whiteboard and other participants. Interactional behaviours involving multimodal resources can only be observed through a micro-analytic method.

Word Search

Another practice of learners that create space for learning is word search. As shown in Section 4.5, two word search practices initiated by group members as a side sequence create learning spaces for other participants by involving them in a collaborative practice. The first search initiated by learner Sandy was embedded in a translation practice (Section 4.5, extract 4.16). In their group discussion for task 2, learner Sandy self-selected to first explain the mystery. When her talk broke down, she switched to the L1 and invited group leader Austin to translate the L1 together. After producing a candidate word, Sandy asked confirmation from Austin. The other word search in the same group discussion occurs in Cindy's telling (extract 4.16). Due to lack of linguistic knowledge, Cindy used gestures to complete her turn. While doing the embodied completion, she shifted her gaze to other group members and therefore invited all in a search for the word. Although Sandy's use of the L1 and Cindy's nonverbal expressions may show their lack of knowledge at the moment, these two interactional arrangements also demonstrate their ability to tackle the linguistic deficiency. Moreover, by involving other participants in a multi-party word search, both Sandy and Cindy created a

learning space for all group participants. Another interactional arrangement that demonstrates learner CIC and enhances learning space is scaffolding.

Scaffolding

The scaffolding metaphor is initially used to describe a support given by an adult to a child mostly through tutorial or inquiry interactions (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). It is later used to examine expert-novice interactions such as parent-child, teacher-student, or proficient-less proficient students (Wertsch, 1979; McNeil, 2012; Huong, 2007). Scaffolding is especially important in second language classroom as participating in interaction is crucial to language learning. Linguistic assistance from the teacher or a skilled student through questioning, reformulation, repetition or elaboration helps learners to co-construct new knowledge (McNeil, 2012). Scaffolding has been a topic for L2 interaction research on both teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction from a perspective of sociocultural theory (de Guerrero and Villamil, 2000; DiCamilla and Anton, 1997; Donato, 1994). These studies have mostly focused on how teachers or learners provide scaffolded support, how learners seek or respond to their assistance, and the effect of scaffolding on L2 learning. One recent study on the relationship between scaffolding and power relations has expanded our understanding of scaffolding in managing classroom talk. The findings in Kayi-Aydar's study (2013) conclude that in student-led group interactions, scaffolding is either failed or ineffective without teacher guidance. More powerful students tend to compete rather than collaborate with each other in group work. They dominate the interaction and leave no room for less proficient students. The researcher provides suggestions for teachers to improve students' knowledge and practice of interactional skills in terms of scaffolding, such as encouraging students to keep scaffolding logs and teaching pursuit questions.

Kayi-Aydar's study showed one teacher-assigned leader Akio failed in scaffolding because

she acted more as an evaluator than a collaborator. Group members' contributions were not attended to or expanded by the leader. On the contrary, all the three leaders discussed in this study are collaborative and treat group members' contributions with great attention. As shown in the analyzed extract, leader Kevin employed various types of scaffolding tactics to help develop Ruby's turn. He firstly reformulated Reyes's question in compliance with the task instructions; he tried to expand Claire's contribution by requesting clarification and modeling the possible explanation; he also invited a quiet student to join the discussion (Section 4.6, extract 4.18). All these moves demonstrated leader Kevin oriented to his role as a facilitator and collaborator, not merely an evaluator or acknowledger of peer participants' contributions. Learners' providing scaffolded support to another learner may not be rare; however, continual scaffolding provided by one learner to different learners in the same interaction is quite unusual. This supportive feedback is usually done by teachers in teacher-student interaction.

In general, DBGL involves students' recurrent orientations to a manager-cooperator, expert-novice and facilitator-contributor relationship in which the leaders elicit, repair, scaffold, and expand group members' contributions in order to maintain the continuity of group interactions. With the leader's appropriate interactional arrangements, active students like Reyes can self-select to participate in the discussion without dominating the talk; and reticent students may take part in the group work with the leader's guidance and support.

Incorporating other's language

Incorporating part of other interlocutor's talk to extend one's own turn is often seen in daily conversations. In L2 classroom, teachers' or advanced peers' language can be used as an important resource by learners to create more interactional space. This interactional practice was reported in section 4.2 (extract 4.3) in which learner Sandy adopted part of the teacher's turn 'if you vote' as a TCU to construct her turn 'we vote we vote Austin' while selecting the

group leader as their presenter. Secondly, while arguing about who should present their work (extract 4.5), group leader Kevin recycled part of Ruby's turn 'you are the leader' to support his argument 'I'm the leader so I have to stay here'. Moreover, learners usually adopt the language fed by another participant in a word search to continue the turn which is halted due to lack of knowledge. Reyes in Kevin's group repeated the turn of Jessi which provided the language Reyes needed to complete his turn (Section 4.6, extract 4.18). Learners recycle peers' or teachers' language for various purposes. Fixing a gap in communication due to the speaker's insufficient knowledge not only relies on other interlocutors' language support but also the current speaker's interactional knowledge. In addition to repairing a communication breakdown, adopting others' language also functions as an interactional strategy for the speaker to construct and expand his/her turn.

(3) Learner CIC uses language that is convergent to the pedagogical focus of the task

According to Walsh (2011), creating 'space for learning' entails teachers' and learners' ability to promote interactions that are appropriate for the specific pedagogical goal in a particular micro-context. It is usually the teacher who sets up the goal for the lesson being taught. In a teacher-fronted interaction, CIC manifests itself when the teacher uses language that is convergent to the pedagogical focus (ibid). For instance, in a context in which the main concern is to elicit ideas from learners, an experienced teacher usually ignores learners' linguistic errors to maintain the flow of speech (Walsh 2006, 2011, 2012). Accordingly, in task interactions, learners' language that is convergent to the pedagogical focus of the task demonstrates learner CIC. As the tasks used in the group work are aimed to have students produce specific linguistic structures while accomplishing the tasks, students' production of the targeted structures becomes one of the objectives of the task activity. Group members' failure to produce the structures is problematic (Section 4.7). As above-mentioned in sub-section (2), leaders Austin and Rose repaired group members' discourse which showed no use

of the targeted form. Group leaders' awareness of the mismatch in peer participants' output indicates their understanding of the alignment between language use and the pedagogical focus. With this understanding, they were able to repair the mismatch at the right time using the right way that increased all group participants' awareness to the pedagogical focus of the task and enhanced the opportunities to produce the target form in their subsequent talk. There are some issues with the focused tasks used in this study. I will leave that in a later section. Here, I only focus on the convergence between learners' language and the pedagogical focus set by the teacher or enclosed in the task.

(4) Learner CIC manages and negotiates participant roles appropriate for online interactional agenda to complete the task

As the role of group leader was assigned by the teacher when he gave instructions, students' performance of their role as group leader and member can be regarded as part of the task accomplishment. The relevance of the group leader also serves as a defining character that distinguishes a student-led small group interaction from other student-student interactions. As shown in chapter four, the role of group leader was made relevant and recognizable when group participants oriented to a variety of complementary roles listed below that are convergent to the online interactional agenda.

a. Instruction giver and receiver/follower (extract 4.4)
b. Turn allocator and turn taker (extract 4.8, 4.10, 4.13, 4.14, 4.17)
c. Topic initiator and developer (extract 4.12, 4.18)
d. Questioner and respondent (extract 4.8, 4.10)
e. Error corrector and error maker (extract 4.19, 4.20)
f. Help provider and help seeker (extract 4.16, 4.21)
g. Facilitator and contributor (extract 4.18)

By appropriately managing and negotiating their participant roles, learners are able to accomplish the task through collaboration in the group discussion led by a peer participant. As

reviewed in Section 2.3, identity construction has been identified as an important part of interactional competence. While talking the group leader into being, students oriented to an asymmetry of power and knowledge in a student-led group interaction. Asymmetry of power emerges in the group talk when the group leader gives instructions, assigns duties to group members (Section 4.2) and selects the next speaker (Section 4.3). Imperative phrases 'you need to', 'your turn' and 'you' are used by leaders to ensure participation of each member (Section 4.3). Pointing gestures, shifted gazes, and bodily movements are used alone or accompanying the speech to give instructions or allocate turns to group members. Group members make a co-orientation to power asymmetry by acting as instructed. In some Asian L2 classrooms where students with lower proficiency are not keen to participate in L2 activities due to lack of confidence and concerns of 'losing face', nomination is often used by L2 teachers to engage students. By performing their roles, group leaders are able to involve each member and create opportunities for participation.

Interactional identities shift on a turn-by-turn basis. The role adopted by participants is not only a result of participants' interactional management; it is also used as a resource for negotiation. In section 4.2, leader Austin argued with teacher Brooks for his right to select the presenter by referring to his identity as a group leader, 'I am the leader. I can choose (the presenter)'. Teacher Brooks partly agreed by saying 'ok you can choose the way'. The same strategy is used by Kevin for the same purpose when trying to appoint a presenter by saying 'I am the leader. I order you to go'. Group leaders enact their role as a resource for negotiation, and so do group members. Sandy and Ruby shift their role as group member to enact power of the majority by using a collective referent 'we vote' instead of 'I vote' to achieve their interactional purposes at the moment. The ability to manage and negotiate power asymmetry to fulfill online interactional needs, be it constructing a specific role or competing for the right to make decisions, demonstrates another aspect of learner CIC.

Learner CIC also manifests itself when learners orient to differential knowledge as a resource to construct identity, identify and solve linguistic problems, and facilitate participation in group discussions. Just like power is co-constructed by interactants through interaction, so is linguistic expertise. As commented by Thorne & Hellermann (2015, p. 281), "expert-novice relationships do not rest upon linguistic competence (or any other single factor alone), but rather manifest in actual interaction in complex and multidimensional ways". When linguistic problems obstruct participation in group discussions, students in groups talk the identity of leader-member into an expert-novice relationship. Seeking language support from their leaders, group members use phrases like 'what is …' 'how do you translate …' 'do you know…' or use nonverbal expressions such as iconic gestures to do an embodied turn completion (extract 4.17). With these interactional arrangements, learners take an 'unknowing epistemic stance' which invites the group leader or other participants to collaborate or provide language support (Heritage, 2012, cited in Sert 2012, p. 2). With the leaders' (expert) assistance, the group members (novice) are able to maintain the floor and complete their turn.

The expert-novice relationship is not a static entity; like group leader-member relationship, it arises and shifts through participants' turn design to fulfill interactive purposes. Group leaders do not necessarily have higher linguistic competence than their members. Leader Kevin's request for word meaning from his group members displayed his lack of the knowledge at that moment (extract 4.22). A teacher may orient to the role of novice when his lack of specific knowledge is displayed. In extract 4.7, it is the teacher who takes an 'unknowing epistemic stance' by saying "do you know how to do it" while asking leader Austin to explain a selecting method. In another context, the teacher may use the same phrase 'do you know how to …' in a display question to check students' knowledge. Both interactional arrangements invite interactants to provide information and therefore create a learning space for student participants. This elicitation strategy is also used by learners to involve peer participants both for requesting help and checking knowledge. Learner Sandy oriented to her lack of

knowledge and sought leader Austin's language assistance by asking 'how do you say that in English' in the L1 (extract 4.16). On the other hand, leader Rose initiates a repair by asking a display question 'how to write past passive' to highlight the targeted structure (extract 4.20). She provides the answer at the end of the repair sequence to complete the semi-pedagogical practice. By involving other participants, both Sandy and Rose create learning opportunities through interaction.

(5) Managing Code-Switching

Another interactional feature of learner CIC is L2 learners' strategic language alternation in task interaction. Studies that view L2 learners as inferior language users tend to advocate the ban of L1 use in the classroom to create a 'whole English' environment. However, socio-interactionists have argued for using the L1 as a mediational tool for L2 learning. Vygotskyan approaches into learners' use of L1 have evidenced that L1 can be a useful tool to scaffold the L2 production (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Brooks and Donato, 1994). A range of functions of L1 use are also reported in different contexts (Cook, 2001; Hancock, 1997; Levine, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain (2005) look at learners' code-switching in L2 classroom as constitutive of bilingual language practice. They claim that with a shared understanding of L2 as the main learning goal among the teacher and the students, code-switching strategy similar to what language teachers do or bilinguals do in non-classroom contexts provide opportunity for L2 learners to feel like and learn to be fluent bilinguals. L2 learners' ability to manage code-switching as a resource for communication and L2 learning can be an important part of learner CIC. Examples of using the L1 as an interactional resource have been found in this research. Firstly, the L1 is used by students to seek confirmation of a lexical item. One example appears in Rinoa's word explanation. When leader Rinoa explained to the group what a signal flare was using lots of nonverbal cues, group member Miki provided the L1 equivalent to check her understanding of Rinoa's embodied explanation

(Section 4.8, extract 4.21). Miki's use of the L1 serves an interactional function in displaying understanding of a word explanation, checking confirmation, and scaffolding other participants' understanding. This use of codeswitching also scaffolds other participants' understanding of this term and triggers Sugar's additional information related to a signal flare. Another case of using the L1 for checking the meaning of a lexical item is reported in the same section. In Austin's group discussion, Sandy switches to the L1 to seek confirmation from the leader about the meaning of the word 'canal' (extract 4.24). The whole side sequence is conducted in the first language. The L1 serves for a metatalk to clarify a word meaning. Using the L1 in a metatalk for task planning and solving a problem in the task can be an effective strategy in a task activity with a short time limit. While doing the picture description task (Task 1, Appendix D), Berlinda's group had trouble figuring out the story embedded in the pictures. They switched to the L1 to work out the story and translated the story into the target language together. This L1 use saves the time for group discussion but in turn obstructs the opportunities for using the target language for communication. Similar strategy is used by learner Sandy to construct her turn. In Section 4.5, learner Sandy switches to her native language to construct part of her turn and invites group leader Austin to collaborate for the L2 translation (extracts 4.15, 4.16). This management of codeswitching, which is similar to the one reported in Anton & DiCamilla (1999), serves as a floor-holding (Eldridge, 1996), scaffolds the L2 production, and ensures the continuity of Sandy's contribution. Code-switching is different from using the native language as a major means for communication. L1 can only be used to support not replace the L2 conversation. After all, an L2 learning task which is done by learners in their native language can never be considered as task-based interaction (Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009).

(6) Deploying multimodal resources

Group leaders employ both verbal and non-verbal resources to perform their roles. Besides

role construction, students in this study use multimodal resources to achieve various interactional purposes. While initiating a topic, students use fixed eye gazes and bodily orientations toward other participants to engage attention (extract 4.4). They also use gestures to clarify misunderstanding caused by speech (extract 4.4). Gestures are also used by learners to explain a selecting method or do the selection (extract 4.4, 4.6, 4.7). Learners use gestures to do an embodied completion or invite interlocutors for a joint completion (extract 4.17). While explaining a word meaning, group leaders use iconic gestures to enhance understanding (Section 4.8).

In addition to verbal and nonverbal interactional cues, students also manipulate objects at hand to enhance communication and implement specific actions. To highlight the targeted grammatical structure, group leaders using a pointing gesture direct all group members' attention to where the highlighted structure is displayed in the task material and on the whiteboard (Figure 5.2). The voice recorder which is a research tool for collecting data is employed by both the teacher and the leaders as a selecting device (Section 5.2). More importantly, it is also used by the teacher and leaders to manage the shifts in participation structure. It is used by the teacher to signal the shift from teacher-fronted cohort to student-student structure, and by the selected student to manage turn-taking. Using the voice recorder to allocate turns and engage participants, group leaders talk the group interaction into and out of a mini interview session in which the roles of questioner and respondent are pre-assigned. Research into the embodied turn (Nevile, 2015) or multimodality in L2 and social interaction (Stivers & Sidnell, 2005) has increasing interest in conversation analysis and other disciplines. Further discussion on the embodiment of DBGL will be presented in next section.

Summary of the section

Through the micro-examination of students' identity construction, I have highlighted L2

learners' ability to manage learning through task interaction. This ability to mediate learning with language is central to the notion of CIC. DBGL is not a regular classroom practice. The focus is not on what a group leader is but what they do with others to manage and facilitate learning while accomplishing the task, be it group work, pair work or individual work. As highlighted in this section, students in this study have the potential to manage and negotiate their roles for different interactional agenda. If every L2 learner acts like an active, supportive and collaborative group leader, opportunities for learning-oriented conversations will be created and enhanced.

5.2 Embodied DBGL: Multimodality in L2 Classroom Task Interaction

With the advance of video-recording technology, there has been a gaining interest in examining the role of nonverbal behaviors such as gestures, gazes and bodily movements in social interactions (see Gullberg, 2010 for a review). In the past, gestures were viewed as part of strategic competence used to fix a communication breakdown (Canale & Swain, 1980). Recent studies on L2 learning and interaction have started to explore the role of nonverbal behaviors in language education from different perspectives (Carroll, 2004; Goodwin, 2000, 2003, 2007; Lazaraton, 2004; Markee, 2004, 2005; McCafferty, 2002, 2004; Mori & Hayashi, 2006; Olsher, 2004; Seo, 2011). With a sociocultural view of learning, McCafferty (2002) examines how learners' gestures create a ZPD. In Olsher's study (2004), a practice of "embodied completion" is reported as a common strategy used by L2 learners to complete a current turn. Employing classroom artefacts as a resource for talk construction has gained increasing attention in more recent CA-SLA studies. These studies examine how classroom items such as white/blackboards (Sert, 2011), overhead projectors (Markee, 2008), task materials and rarely seen digital interactive tables (Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009) are used by teachers and learners to enhance learning in classroom activities. This thesis so far has reported different types of nonverbal resources used by group leaders and members alone or

concurrently with interactional and linguistic resources to accomplish different actions. Deictic gesture (McNeill, 1992), such as pointing, is used by leaders with imperatives to select a speaker (Section 4.3). Iconic gestures which can be *kinetographic*, representing bodily action, such as rupturing or *pictographic*, representing the form of an object, have been used by Austin's group to conduct a collaborative word search practice (Section 4.5), and by Austin alone to introduce a selecting method (counting fingers, Section 4.2). In response to group members' requests for word definitions, group leader Rinoa uses iconic gestures, synonyms and the L1 equivalents to explain a word (extract 4.21). In addition, classroom artefacts including voice recorder, whiteboard and electronic dictionaries are used by group leaders in this study to achieve various interactional purposes. To highlight the pedagogical focus, leaders Austin and Rose employ pointing gestures directed to the task material and whiteboard where the targeted forms are noted (extracts 4.19 & 4.20). These nonverbal resources are not only used as a language supportive device, but also used to replace verbal components of language for more effective communication. In extract 4.4, hand gestures are used by leader Austin and learner Sandy to clarify a misunderstanding caused by speech. All these interactional features demonstrate how DBGL is embodied with multimodal resources. A rising trend in CA-SLA shows an interest in exploring embodiment (Streeck et al, 2011) or multimodality (Stiver & Sidnell, 2005) in classroom interactions. As a contribution of this thesis, this section will highlight a unique practice of group leaders, an embodied turn allocation, the explanation of which is unprecedented, to my knowledge, in L2 classroom interaction research.

A defining characteristic of DBGL is the assigned leader's orientation to power asymmetry in their talk. To talk the asymmetric relationship into being, the leaders have used imperatives to give instructions and used nominations or second-person referent accompanied by a pointing gesture to allocate turns (Section 5.1). An embodied DBGL is made relevant through the leaders' use of a voice recorder as a resource to engage group members and manage turn-

taking. The original function of the recorder is collecting data which is a basic procedure for doing CA. However, in this research, it is transformed into a constitutive element of the talk in progress. The voice recorder is first used by the teacher to do 'selecting the group leaders' (extract 4.1) and later by the designated leaders to do 'selecting the next speaker' in group discussion. By saying "whoever I give the recorder to is the leader" while delivering the recorder to the selected students, the teacher transforms the function of a recorder from recording voices to assigning roles. The teacher's handing over the recorders signposts a transition from the teacher-fronted talk to the student group discussion. It may also be understood by students as a transfer of responsibility and authority. When group members are selected as the next speaker by their leaders with the recorder pointed forward toward them, almost all selected speakers respond positively and make their contributions. Leaders' selection along with members' acceptance evidence an asymmetry of power in student-led group interactions. By allocating turns to group members, the leaders provide opportunities for participation at the same time. When the recorder is pointed forward to the selected speaker, it functions almost like a microphone inviting the participant to talk. The group discussion is then talked into an interview between the group leader and the selected member. Just like most interview interactions, the leader-member talk is made mostly of adjacency pairs in the form of question and answer (Section 4.3). When the speaker fails to provide an answer to the leader's question, another group member self-selects or the leader selects another participant and may, therefore, start another interview talk. Again, these details of how DBGL is embodied in a unique turn allocation practice and how it has affected learning opportunities and the evolving group interaction cannot be captured without a multi-modal approach to the data.

The ability to manipulate objects in the environment for interactional or pedagogical purposes evidences the teacher's (classroom) interactional competence (Hall, Hellermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2011). Markee (2008) reports how a teacher constructs a listing talk using the slides

projector. The slides projector is strategically incorporated by the teacher to support and construct pedagogical talks. Studies on L2 learners' discourse also describe the embodiment of learners' classroom practices. Cekaite (2009) reports how learners shape lexical summons using multimodal resources including prosody, body postures, gestures, and classroom artefacts. Seedhouse & Almutairi (2009) propose a holistic approach to group task interaction generated by digital tabletops. Their study demonstrates the multimodality in classroom task interaction. L2 learners' ability to manage multimodal resources including verbal and nonverbal cues, classroom artefacts, and surrounding objects is an important feature of L2 learner CIC. For researchers interested in CIC, L2 learners' and teachers' employment of nonverbal resources for managing classroom communication and learning serves as a fresh ground for further exploration.

The embodiment of DBGL proves that learner task interaction is fundamentally a multi-modal phenomenon. It requires a specific data collection and analytical technique to capture all the details of learners' interactional behaviours. Conversation analytic method which investigates talk-in-interaction on a moment-by-moment basis is the most powerful tool to serve this purpose (Burch, 2014; Nevile, 2015; Sert, 2015). With the rapid development of information and Internet technologies, smart phones, tablets, public shared videos, etc. have proved to be new forms of teaching and learning tools in language classrooms (Licoppe & Morel, 2012). To find out how students integrate these forms of resources to participate in classroom interaction may be a focus of interest to future CA studies.

5.3 Teacher Instructions, Learner Interpretations and Task Performance

It is found in the data analyses that there is a mismatch between the teachers' instructions and learners' interpretations and the interpretations of learners have an effect on their group interactions. Previous studies have reported the differences between the task designers'

intentions and learners' interpretations of the tasks (Coughlan & Duff, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1991; Mori, 2002; Ohta, 2001; Seedhouse, 2005c); however, few have looked at the gap between teachers' instructions and learners' interpretations or the variation of learners' interpretations and its effect on their task performance. Kumaravadivelu (1991) lists ten sources of the mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation by exploring teacher's and learner's perception of the nature, the goals, and the demands of language–learning tasks. Most of the sources including learner's lack of world and linguistic knowledge, communication skills, are mostly related to learner's deficiency. However, in his work, he gives no further information about what consequences the mismatch has caused in the interaction. This thesis will contribute to the literature by presenting learners' multi-orientations to DBGL as varied reactions to the teacher's instruction. As shown in section 4.1, teacher Brooks asked the groups to choose their own leader and a presenter but immediately self-repaired by saying he would assign the group leader. This repair of instruction might have caused confusion about whether the two task roles, the group leader and group presenter would be performed by the same learner. According to the words of the teacher, the assigned group leaders will present the group work. However, students displayed various understandings of the same instruction. Most groups had their leaders present their work while some groups select the spokesperson (extracts 4.3, 4.5, 4.6). Some groups had different members to present for different tasks. Another source of the confusion might have come from the teacher's self-repair about who would select the group leader. The variation in learner's interpretation of teacher's instruction evidences the dynamics of classroom interaction. Students' task performance is closely related to not only the nature of the task but teachers' instructions as interpreted by them.

Dynamics of task interaction are also displayed in the way students open their tasks. Two groups of students orient to pre-task planning before they launched the discussions. One example can be found in Section 4.2 (extract 4.2). Analysis of the data showed pre-task

planning had an effect on task performance. The turn-taking in the group discussion was somewhat pre-assigned in the task plan which had all the other students take turn to describe the pictures and Austin, the leader, present their work. This implementation of the task is very different from all other groups and so is their participation structure.

Students' multi-orientations to the role of group leader also demonstrate dynamics of group interaction. While guiding the group discussions, the selected leaders oriented to three main categories that demonstrate different aspects of a group leader: a task manager, a language expert, and a facilitator. These different identities are often performed by a teacher as well. Leader Austin takes on a role of task manager at the beginning of the discussion. He conducts the group work by proposing a task plan, gives instructions, controls turn-taking, signals boundaries, and provides feedback (Sections 4.2 & 4.3). Group leaders orient to their language expertise by providing language support when a request for help is made by interlocutors (Sections 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7). Leaders Kevin acts more like a facilitator. Although he holds the floor most of the time, all group members are free to take part in the group discussion without a control from the leader. This type of leader allocates turns to group members when no one self-selects to talk, and provides scaffolding to maintain and expand a speaker's turn. The expertise of leaders is made relevant when a language problem occurs. Rinoa's giving word explanations is an obvious example. A leader may orient to all three roles in convergence to online interactional needs. However, the above mentioned leaders orient to a specific role most of the time across different tasks. In some groups, the role of the assigned leader is 'invisible' (Section 4.3, extract 4.11), while some active members emerge to lead the discussion (Leeming, 2014). As the leader in each group is assigned by the teacher, different orientations to this role suggest that students' perceptions and performance of this specific role or their responses to the teacher's instruction are varied. If the role of a group leader is differently performed, group interactions led by group leaders might as well be constructed in different ways, and accordingly groups' task performance will vary, too.

There is a relationship between students' orientations to the role of group leader and the organizations of task interactions. When the leader takes on a task manager's role by giving instructions, allocating turns, acknowledging contributions, and giving feedback, the participation framework of the group interaction resembles that of a controlled teacher-fronted talk. The right to speak is controlled by the leader most of the time (extracts 4.8, 4.10). When group members orient to the leader's language expertise by requesting language support, the interaction is temporarily focused on form (extracts 4.15~4.17, 4.21). The group interaction is collaborative and expanding when the leader takes up a facilitator's role by providing scaffolded support (extracts 4.13, 4.18). Moreover, if no orientation to DBGL is made, the group interaction may go off-task or become quite messy with lots of overlaps (extract 4.11) and interruptions, and some groups even use the L1 as the main medium for discussion. These roles display different aspects of leadership. They also reflect how the assigned leaders position themselves and are positioned by other group members. The notion of *positioning* is used by positioning theorists as a dynamic alternative to the concept of 'personhood' or 'role' which is static and formal (Harré & van Langenhove, 1991; van Langenhove & Harré, 1993; Davies & Harré, 1999). Positioning, as a discursive process, refers to "the ways in which interactants index their own and others' relationships to roles and social categories by means of interactive resources" (Reichert & Leibsher, 2012, p. 600). In other words, positioning is a process of 'doing identities' in talk (Andreouli, 2010, p. 4) The findings of this research verify this dynamic view of identity.

The multi-orientations to DBGL expand our understanding of the language classroom dynamics by demonstrating how differently a teacher's instruction is interpreted and followed by the students and how group leaders' performance may affect group interaction. Whether this positioning is simply transferred from their L1 experience or developed through L2 classroom interaction is worth further investigation. In the scope of this study, the focus is on

the relationship between DBGL and group interaction.

5.4 Pedagogical Focus, Task Type and Space for Learning

Using language that is appropriate for the specific pedagogical goal in a particular micro-context is one of the most important features of CIC (Walsh, 2011). In a teacher-fronted setting, the pedagogical focus is usually highlighted and reflected in the teacher's language. However, in a task-oriented interaction, as pinpointed by Seedhouse (2004) and further demonstrated in this research, learners orient to task accomplishment as the main focus of the task activity and treat the linguistic forms as less important. The tasks used in this research in which the data is presented aim to elicit learners' production of specific forms while engaged in meaningful communication. Production of the targeted form, past simple and past continuous, for task 1 is increased in two groups after their leaders highlight the form through a repair practice (Section 5.1, part 2). A few cases of repairs for the form are found in Berlinda's group. No production of the passive modals targeted in task 2 is identified in this study. In fact, the meta-talk of Berlinda's group reveals that using the targeted form has impeded their story construction. Leader Austin also expresses difficulty in working out the tale with a twist (Task 1) while switching to a meta-talk in his native language. As explaining the stories embedded in the pictures require higher level processing, the need to produce the targeted forms puts on the load. This problem reflects an issue of task selection and task design which is based on what to be learned by learners. As said by Seedhouse & Almutairi (2009, p. 313), "orientations to task may take different forms according to the type of task'. The use of focus-on-*form* tasks in L2 classroom is promoted by TBL (Task-based Learning) proponents to generate L2 production in meaningful communications. However, if orientations to the L2 production impede meaningful communication, using this type of task should be done with more caution. To facilitate learners' interactional competence, divergent tasks (Duff, 1986) which involve personal views and experiences and lead to more discussion

and debates seem to be a better choice.

5.5 Implications for CIC and Learning English through Classroom Interaction

L2 learners have long been referred to as defective L2 communicators in most cognitive SLA studies. This conception of L2 learners is based on a view of linguistic knowledge as the object for L2 development. However, successful communication relies on interactants' ability to achieve intersubjectivity or "confluence" which is central to the notion of interactional competence. By examining group discussions led by student participants, I have identified and illustrated in details how L2 learners in this study orient to a teacher-assigned role to complete the task. Interactional features of learners are identified while they orient to different aspects of group leadership. These features of learners' discourse demonstrate L2 learners' ability to manage group work, co-construct an identity, mediate learning for themselves and others, manage code-switching, and utilize a variety of interactional resources including verbal and nonverbal cues. The way group leaders manage their group work is similar to the way a teacher manages a classroom interaction.

To increase teachers' awareness and understanding of classroom interactional competence, Walsh develops an SETT framework (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk) which can be used by teachers as a means for self-reflective practice (Walsh, 2006, 2010, 2011). Based on the findings of this study, student leaders display learner CIC while they manage, navigate, and assist group work by giving instructions, managing turn-taking, signaling boundaries, dealing with language problems, clarifying meanings, and expanding contributions. CIC highlighted from the perspectives of group members includes seeking language assistance, adopting others' language, using resources at hand, word searches, and code-switching, etc. The findings of this thesis will contribute to CIC research and L2 learning in at least two ways: to expand SETT by incorporating learner CIC and to develop an SEST (Self Evaluation of

Student Talk) model for learner self-reflective practice.

Based on teachers' talk in four classroom context modes (see section 2.3.3), Walsh's SETT framework highlights CIC from teachers' perspective. Although CIC can be highlighted from learners' perspective in teacher-learner interaction, it is quite limited due to the control of teachers' language. With the focus on teacher's talk, SETT does not account for learner-learner interaction such as dyadic or group discussions in which the teachers are not always involved or even invisible in some cases. To give teachers and learners a holistic understanding of CIC and L2 classroom interaction, the current SETT framework should be expanded by incorporating learner CIC identified in learner-learner interaction. This thesis will contribute to this line of research by reducing the gap in the literature.

Implications for L2 pedagogy and learner autonomy can also be drawn from the findings. SETT has been used as a means to enable teachers understand and reflect on their classroom practice (Walsh, 2010, 2011). As emphasized by Walsh (2011, p. 124), "…to improve as teachers, we need to reflect on and change our practices on a regular, ongoing basis." This is also relevant for learners' practices in the classroom. With the dominance of cognitive SLA, most L2 learners focus on the linguistic knowledge emerging in the interaction and paid no or very little attention to what they actually say and how their language affects their performance in classroom activities. To become a better learner, students need to know how to adjust their language to create more learning opportunities. An SEST framework based on the findings of this thesis can be used by learners to analyze and assess their language in group interaction. Only through understanding classroom discourse and researching with their own language use recurrently in real communications can learners develop their own interactional strategies and maximize learning opportunities in the classroom. With enhanced CIC, every student can talk themselves into facilitative and supportive L2 learners like group leaders Austin, Kevin, Rose, and Rinoa in this study; they can also become more involved and active learners like Sandy.

Both types of learners mediate their own and others' learning through facilitative interactional strategies.

As the SEST describes learner CIC in student-led group interaction, it can be adopted by teachers to train students into good leaders. The semi-pedagogical practices including giving instruction, allocating turns, summarizing group discussions, clarifying meanings, and signaling boundaries can be emphasized in an SEST model to raise the awareness of the teacher-like practices. In large classes, group leaders with enhanced CIC may function as teaching assistants to promote group performance. By examining how learners co-construct student-led task interaction, this study has taken the initiative move to propose a primitive SEST framework which represents an aspect of learner-learner interaction. It is hoped that future studies interested in facilitative learner language will expand the framework by investigating learner CIC in a wider range of learner-learner interaction.

5.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have highlighted classroom interactional competence from both group leaders' and members' perspectives. Interactional features of learner CIC evidence L2 learners' ability to manage classroom activities and collaborate for learning opportunities in task interaction. Using a mini recorder to allocate turns, group leaders demonstrate CIC in manipulating and adapting objects at hand to mediate learning in classroom. It is also found in this thesis that students orient to different aspects of group leader. The multi-orientations to DBGL indicate the dynamics of classroom interaction and student' ability to manage different roles to achieve online interactional purposes (section 5.1-4). Identity, power and language expertise are proved to be an achievement and resource of interaction. CA is the most powerful tool to identify these co-constructed interactional features. Based on the findings, this thesis will contribute to the literature on learner CIC and student-led task interaction.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

In this final chapter, the main purpose of this study along with the research questions will be revisited. How the investigation into the data has answered the questions and how the aim of this thesis has been achieved will be discussed. Implications and limitations of this study will be addressed. Future research directions will be suggested.

6.1 The Main Findings

Second language learners have long been regarded by cognitive SLA as defective communicators due to their insufficient L2 knowledge which is developed through a cognitive learning process. This view of L2 learners and L2 learning has been challenged by socio-interactionist SLA or CA-SLA which argues for social interaction as the core site for second language learning (Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007; Pekarek Doehler, 2010, 2011). From the perspective of CA-SLA, language learning is embedded in social interaction and the object for L2 learning is interactional competence (see Section 2.1). In the recent decade, research into L2 interactional competence has evidenced that L2 learners are competent L2 users who are able to achieve successful communication by employing a variety of resources. As language development resides in interaction, teachers' and learners' language choices play an important role in L2 learning in the classroom. Classroom interactional competence (CIC) which is defined by Walsh (2006, 132) as "teachers' and learner' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting leaning" has mostly been researched in L2 teachers' discourse. The attempt to fill the gap by examining CIC in learner-learner task interaction provides a rationale for this study.

The present study was intended to find out how L2 students construct a teacher-assigned role, the group leader, in task interaction and how this construction affects the group interaction

and learning opportunities. The methodology adopted by this thesis is conversation analysis, a micro-analytical tool that is used to investigate the moment-by-moment unfolding of the turn organization. Analyses of the data have produced the findings in relation to the research questions. The first question asks, "How do students in this study construct the role of a group leader in small group task interaction?" To answer the question, I firstly looked at how this identity was interactionally constructed in the task activity. After the leaders were selected, I tracked the selected students' interactional moves that led to sequences of action. The selected leaders oriented to a range of practices including suggesting a task plan, giving instructions, allocating turns, and clarifying meanings. These practices demonstrate L2 learners' ability to manage group work. They also indicate that while doing being the group leader, the selected leaders were doing a teacher's job. CIC manifests itself in these semi-pedagogical practices.

Learner CIC is also evident in L2 learners' interactional practices that enhance learning opportunities. This finding addresses the second question, "How does the construction of a group leader affect group interactions and learning opportunities?". As shown in the analysis and discussion chapters, learning opportunities were created when group members oriented to group leaders' language expertise by inviting them to collaborate in a word search. This finding is closely in line with the research of Brouwer (2003), Lee (2015), and Reichert & Liebsher (2012). Opportunities for using the second language were created when group leaders engaged members through elicitation questions, nominations or turn allocations; learning space was facilitated when leaders provided scaffolding to expand peer participants' turns (Walsh, 2006). These learning-oriented interactions evidence students in this study are competent communicators and second language learners.

While doing being group leaders, L2 learners employed multimodal resources including verbal and nonverbal cues. Learners' utilization of code-switching, gestures, gaze shifts, bodily orientations, and classroom objects demonstrate a specific aspect of learner CIC in

configuring relevant resources at hand to facilitate communication and learning in classroom activities. In particular, a recording device that is used to collect data for this research is adapted by some group leaders as a tool for turn allocation and therefore becomes a resource for managing group interaction. These embodied expressions also demonstrate the multimodal feature of task interactions (Stiver & Sidnell, 2005). This multimodality can be fully captured only through a micro-analytic tool. Conversation analysis which examines fine-grained details of interaction on a turn-by-turn basis is the most powerful tool to document this multimodality.

The findings showed there is a mismatch between the teacher's instruction and learners' interpretations. Various interpretations of the instruction lead to different task performance. Moreover, students' positioning of a group leader is also varied. This variation is reflected in selected leaders' different performance of the role. The variety of students' interpretations of the task instructions and their orientations to the role of a group leader demonstrate the dynamics of classroom interaction.

6.2 Limitations of this Study

One limitation of this study is caused by the selection of the tasks. Although the tasks used for data collection generate different types of activities, most of them are intended for raising students' focus on specific linguistic forms such as past verb tenses and passive modals. The task selection is not convergent with the main purpose of this study which is to investigate learner CIC in student-led task interaction. The tasks were selected for the original purpose of this study which is to track the changes in learners' use of a specific form throughout the same task and across different tasks. The imperfect selection of tasks has led to a limited range of interactional features. Future studies on task-based group interactions should have a wider range of tasks in order to elicit a variety of discourse.

This study uses conversation analysis for micro-analysis of the data. Other research methods used in ethnography research such as interviews and diaries may be employed to elicit students' view towards the appointment of a group leader for group discussions. Interviews with the teachers may provide the reasons for their assignment of the role. Another problem is the quality of some recordings is too low to be used for transcription. Microphones are suggested to be attached to the participants for a better effect.

6.3 Implications for Pedagogy

As discussed in Section 5.5, learner CIC identified in this study should be incorporated in the construct of SETT to expand the framework and enable a holistic understanding of L2 classroom interaction. It will also contribute to the construction of an SEST (Self-Evaluation of Student Talk) model which can be used to facilitate students' self-reflective practices. Different from SETT which characterizes teacher CIC in teacher-learner interaction, SEST describes learners' language use in learner-learner task interaction. Although CIC can be highlighted in teacher-learner interaction from learners' perspective, it is very limited under teachers' control. The expanded SETT will enable teachers to better understand how students manage their language to lead a group discussion and collaborate for a task activity. Furthermore, SEST can be used by students to reflect on and improve their interactional practices. Through recurrent self-reflective practices using the SEST device, students may develop and increase awareness to the relationship between their language choices, the pedagogical goals, and learning opportunities.

The findings showed a relationship between DBGL and the organizations of task interaction. While engaging in a group discussion, group leaders oriented to different aspects of a teacher's role; and accordingly, their group members collaborated by adopting complementary

roles. Group leaders adopted a manager's role by giving instructions, navigating group discussions, allocating turns, and clarifying misunderstandings. Task discussions led by such leaders were well organized but tightly controlled. Opportunity for participation could be limited and obstructed with controlled turn-taking. Leaders acting as a facilitator created learning opportunities by eliciting ideas, correcting errors, identifying pedagogical focus, and providing language support to sustain and extend a peer participant's turn. These semi-pedagogical practices and their responsive moves made by group members demonstrate learner CIC in successfully managing student-led group interaction (see section 5.1). However, chaos was found in group discussions where the selected leaders didn't enact their role. Without the supervision of a group leader, some group discussions were conducted in the L1 or went off-track. To optimize learning opportunities in group work, learners need to know how to work in groups involving a group leader and how to lead a group discussion. As SEST derives from student-led task interaction, it will serve the purpose rightly.

The key findings of this research also provide implications for task selection and implementation, especially for group work. It is found that the first task type, sequenced-pictures story-telling, with language provided may constrain students' discussion. Being forced to use the supplied words and phrases, students' oral production is limited. Language learning tasks which aim to elicit personal views, require extensive descriptions, or provoke discussion and debates are recommended to maximize students' participation (see section 5.4).

6.4 Directions for Future Research on Learner CIC and Task Interaction

Informed by L2 IC studies (Hall, Hellermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2011) and Walsh's work (2006, 2011), this thesis has identified learner CIC by tracking students' orientation to a specific role while engaging in a group discussion to accomplish a task. Through a close

examination of the moment-by-moment development of task interaction, this study is able to understand how students in groups collaborate to construct an identity, manage group work, and create learning opportunities through strategic language use. The construct of learner CIC will contribute to theorizing CIC and the construction of the SEST framework.

To broaden and deepen learner CIC and the SEST framework, future studies should explore learner discourse in a wider range of classroom contexts. As classroom discourse include teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions, learner CIC should be examined in both databases. Informed by this study, future research can compare teacher and learner CIC in these data by addressing these questions: how do learners and teachers lead a classroom activity, allocate turns, clarify meanings, ask and answer questions? What do they do to engage silent students, extend learners' turn, solve language problems, and provide scaffolding? And how do they deal with off-task talk and the L1 use in the classroom? Moreover, as learner-learner interaction involves dyadic and group work, future efforts may provide answers to these questions: Is there any difference in the way learners use language to manage pair and group work? How do students deal with silence in pair and group work? Furthermore, the types of tasks may affect the form of interactions. Future CA based task research should investigate the interactional features of learners' language emerging in different types of tasks. In addition to English classroom, learner CIC can be expanded by examining learner discourse in other languages.

The advanced technology of video recording has enabled and assisted multimodal analyses of classroom discourse. This study has illustrated students' use of a recording device for turn allocation. Students' ability in managing discourse by adapting objects in the surroundings is an under-researched area. There is great potential for studies on learner CIC to explore how learners manipulate classroom objects to manage talk and how they employ different resources simultaneously or sequentially in interaction to mediate language learning. Using an

SEST reflective practice, learners can also become researchers by examining and reflecting on their interactional strategies in classroom interaction. The data generated in students' self-reflective practices may inform and facilitate research of learner discourse from other disciplines using different approaches.

This thesis has illustrated what learners do with others through interaction to accomplish group activities. With an enhanced understanding of the organization and the process of group interaction involving a leader, language teachers are better informed about using group work and selecting group leaders to maximize learning opportunities. It is hoped that this study can not only benefit current and future teachers and learners by raising awareness to strategic language use in the classroom, but also importantly, to expand CA-SLA through theorizing CIC.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Sample Consent Letter

To Whom It May Concern,

I ______________________ am writing this letter to give my permission to participate in Ms. Ming-Fen Lo's doctoral research. With this permission, I consent to myself being audiotaped, videotaped, observed and interviewed during the whole data collection session.

I understand that:

a. any information gathered (as noted above) will be used only for academic purposes and that this information may be shared with the researcher's supervisors, academic associates and possibly with postgraduate students.

b. that all information gathered is to be kept strictly confidential and to be used only for purposes stated.

c. a number code or a pseudonym instead of my real name will be used in the transcribed data and any other records.

d. I have the right to revoke my permission at any time.

______________________	2009-3-17
(Signature)	(Date)

南臺科技大學 Southern Taiwan University of Science and Technology

TEL: +886-6-253-3131 #1101 FAX: +886-6-2543031

Appendix B: CA Transcription Conventions

Most of the transcription symbols used in this study is developed by Gail Jefferson (1989). For the needs of this thesis, some additional symbols are added to this system.

Symbol	Meaning
[	A left bracket indicates the point of overlap onset.
]	A right bracket indicates the point at which an overlap terminates.
=	Equals signs indicate no break or gap.
(0.0)	Numbers in parentheses indicate elapsed time by tenths of seconds.
(.)	A dot in parentheses indicates a micropause.
Word	Underscoring indicates some form of stress, via pitch and/or amplitude. A short underscore indicates lighter stress than does a long underscore.
:	Colons indicate prolongation of the immediately prior sound. The longer the colon row, the longer the prolongation.
↑↓	Arrows indicate shifts into especially high or low pitch.
?	A question mark indicates rising intonation.
,	A comma indicates no strong movement in the local intonation. Comma-intonation is heard as unfinished.
WORD	Upper case indicates especially loud sounds relative to the surrounding talk.
°word°	Degree signs bracketing a sound, word, phrase, etc. indicate especially soft sounds relative to the surrounding talk.
.hhh	A dot-prefixed row of h's indicates an inbreath. Without the dot, the h's indicate an outbreath.
£	The pound-sterling sign indicates a certain quality of voice which conveys 'suppressed laughter'.
(word)	Parenthesized words are especially dubious hearings or speaker-identifications.
(( ))	Doubled parentheses contain transcriber's comments and a speaker's gesture, gaze or other activity.
><	Indicates faster speech.

<> Indicates slower speech.

− cut off.

\+ used to mark the onset of non-verbal features

Appendix C

Task Implementation

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">These tasks are completed in two phases. In the first phase, the class is divided into five or six groups with five students in each group. Group members are fixed for every task. During the second phase, each group has to report to the whole class. Each member in the group takes turns to present the group work. There are three tasks to be completed during the whole data collection session.</td></tr>
<tr><td>1. Picture stories

(sequenced pictures with language cues + open ending)

Learning objects to be tracked:
<u>Past simple + continuous</u></td><td>Give each group a copy of the worksheet. Read the title and explain that ‘a tale with a twist’ is a story with a surprise ending. Tell the students in groups to tell the story, pay attention to the correct use of past tenses, and include the words that are given under each picture.

(1) Worksheets of sequenced pictures and language cues are distributed to the students. (2mins)
(2) The teacher explains how to do the task. (3mins)
(3) Students work on the draft of their stories. (15mins)
(4) The group presenter tells the story. (15mins).</td></tr>
<tr><td>2. Problem solving

Death on the Canal! A mystery

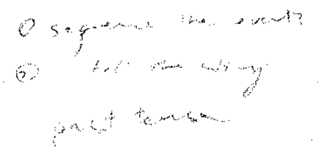
Learning objects to be tracked:
<u>Past modals</u></td><td>(1) Put students in groups of five.
(2) Each group is given a picture that illustrates a mystery.
(3) The students have to answer the questions on the worksheet and work out a story (a mystery) from the picture. (20mins)
(4) Each group tells their story to the whole class. (15mins)</td></tr>
<tr><td>3. Ranking exercise

NASA Game

Learning objects to be tracked:
<u>Keywords introduced</u></td><td>(1) The teacher distributes the handout to each group. (2mins)
(2) All the groups read the instructions on the handout and solve all language problems. (5mins)
(3) Each group discusses and ranks the items. (15mins)
(4) The group presenter reports group solution and gives the reasons for their decision. (15mins)</td></tr>
</table>

Appendix D

Task 1- A Tale with a Twist



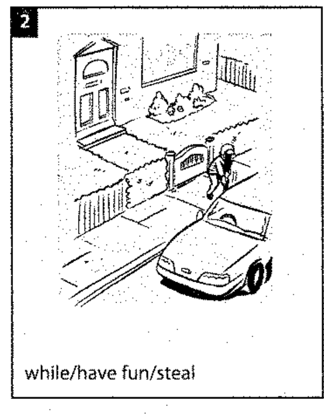
A tale with a twist!

Work in pairs to tell the story of John and Claire Stevens. Include the words given under each picture.

1

last Saturday/have a party/invite friends/get a new job

2

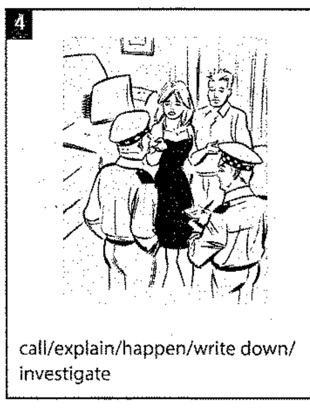


while/have fun/steal

3

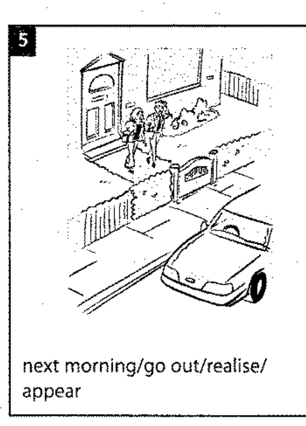
leave the party/say goodbye/ realise/disappear

4



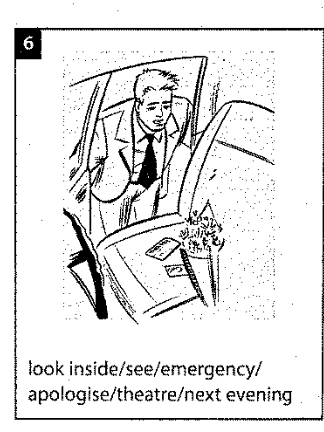
call/explain/happen/write down/ investigate

5



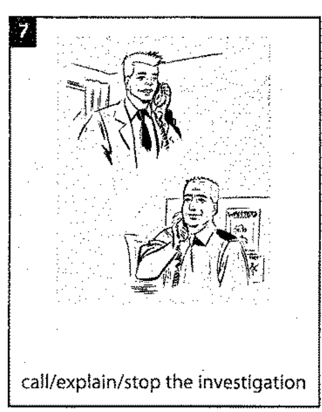
next morning/go out/realise/ appear

6



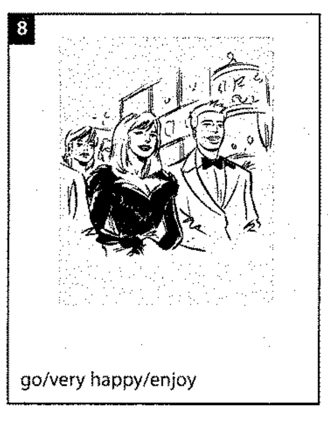
look inside/see/emergency/ apologise/theatre/next evening

7



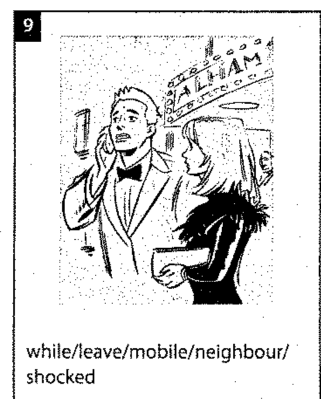
call/explain/stop the investigation

8



go/very happy/enjoy

9



while/leave/mobile/neighbour/ shocked

What do you think the neighbour told John? Finish the story with a partner.

Appendix E

Task 2- Death on the canal

PHOTOCOPIABLE 13 *Mystery!*

Death on the Canal!

VENICE, ITALY — Yesterday, the British millionaire art dealer, Niles Robinson, was found dead in a canal. Robinson, who was 50, had just bought an original painting by Pablo Picasso to bring back to his private gallery in London. He had also been planning his wedding, set to occur in Venice next month, with the young Italian model, Giovanna Lucci. A passing tourist took this picture of Robinson, (seated, on bench), just a few hours before Robinson's death.

1. Was Robinson murdered, or was it an accident?
2. If it was an accident, what happened?
3. If it was murder, who killed him and why?

Photocopiable © Cambridge University Press

Appendix F

Task 3-The NASA Game

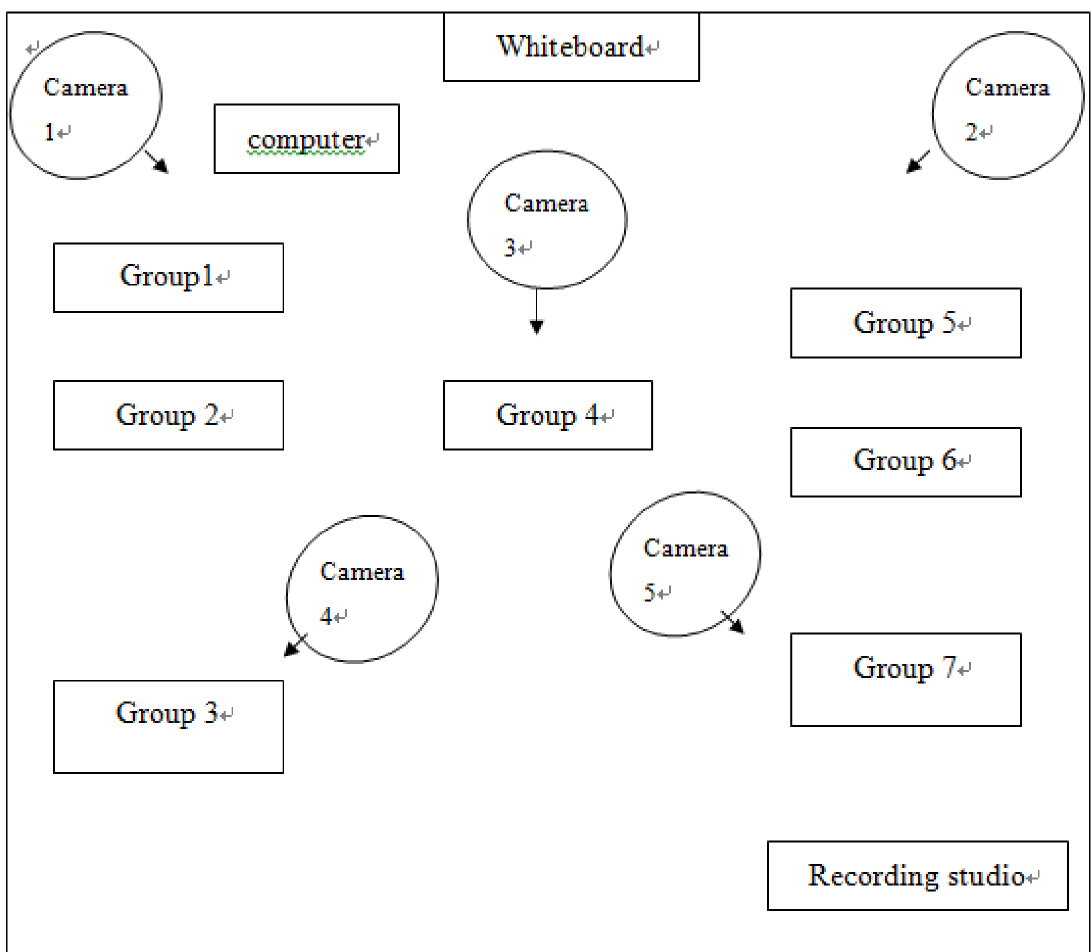
51

You are one of the crew on board a spaceship to rendezvous with the mother ship on the lighted side of the moon. Mechanical difficulties, however, have forced your ship to crash-land at a spot some 300 kilometres from the rendezvous point. The rough landing has damaged much of the equipment aboard. Your survival depends on reaching the mother ship, and you have to choose the most essential items for the 300 km. trip. The 15 items left intact after landing are listed below. Your task is to rank them in order of their importance to your crew in your attempt to reach the rendezvous point. Write number 1 for the most important item, number 2 for the second most important item, and so on through to number 15.

box of matches
concentrated food
20 metres of nylon rope
parachute silk
portable heating unit
two .45 calibre pistols
one case of tins of dried milk
two 50 kilo tanks of oxygen
star map
life raft
magnetic compass
20 litres of water
signal flares
first-aid kit
solar-powered FM receiver/transmitter

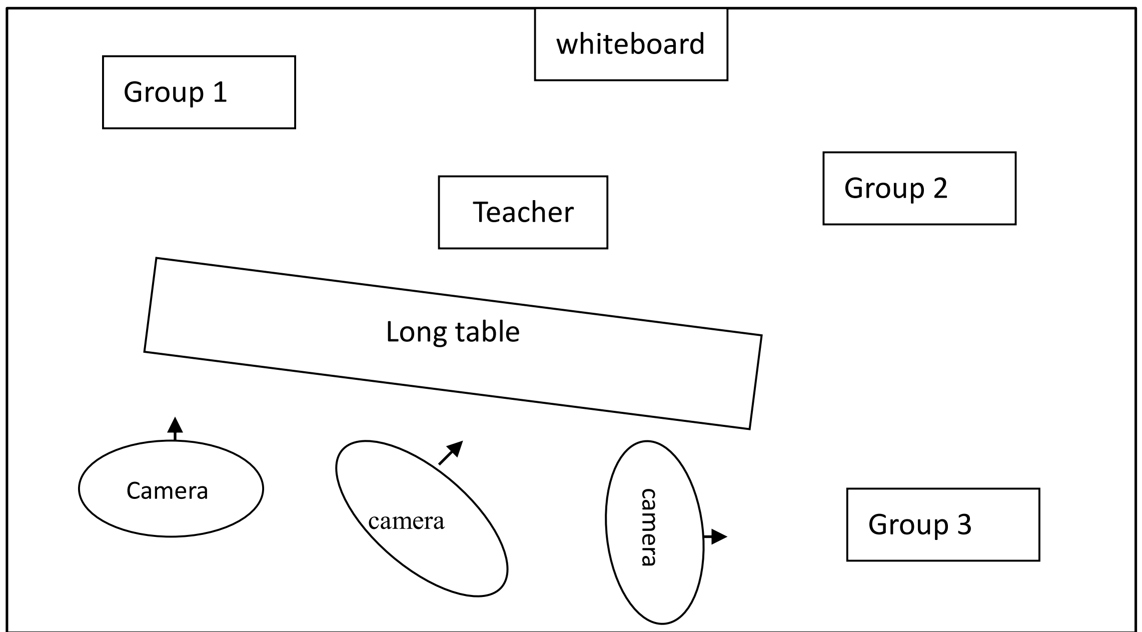
 © Cambridge University Press 1984

Appendix G



(FIG 1. Class A. Cameras 1, 2 and 3 are mounted on the ceiling.
Camera 4 and 5 are set up on tripods.)

Appendix H



(FIG 2. Class B1)