

Negotiation and Co-construction of Learning Opportunities:  
A Conversation Analytic Study of Interactions in One-on-one Instructional Sessions

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## Abstract

This present study closely examines a particular type of institutionalized interactions for second language (L2) learning, namely one-on-one instructional sessions between instructors and learners of Japanese at an intensive summer study abroad program in Japan. During these sessions, both instructors and learners employ various form-focused practices to construct language learning opportunities by making language-related matters relevant to the interaction.

Taking a socially-oriented approach that employs conversation analysis (CA) to examine L2 learning as a locally accomplished social activity, the current research explicates the process of constructing L2 learning opportunities. More specifically, it examines approximately 15 hours of video-recorded data and identifies three focal form-focused practices that participants use. The objective of the study is to explore: (a) what kind of learning opportunities are co-constructed through such focal practices, and (b) how the identified focal practices embody and are shaped by participants' interpretations of the institutional goals and purposes of the session.

The analytical portion of my dissertation is comprised of three chapters, each of which focuses on a specific practice that the participants employ. The first analytical chapter focuses on instructor elicitation as a pedagogical practice and examines how the elicitation design affects the way in which the instructor solicits a targeted language form from the learner. The second analytical chapter investigates how instructors use epistemic status checks (ESCs) (Sert, 2013) to make learners' knowledge states about a particular linguistic item relevant to the interaction. The third analytical chapter examines cases in which learners utilize their verbal and non-verbal resources to embed a form-focused sequence, which I refer to as an embedded linguistic try, during a meaning-focused activity.

Conducting a micro-analysis on these three practices in light of the institutional goals provided by the study abroad program, the current research demonstrates the reflexive relationship between the identified form-focused practices and the institutionality of the one-on-one sessions. This study further strives to contribute to the growing body of CA-SLA research (Kasper & Wagner, 2011) by reemphasizing the importance of considering the larger institutionalized context in order to better understand the social process through which learning opportunities are constructed.

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## Transcription Conventions

### 1. Transcript Symbols

[	the point at which overlapping talk begins
]	the point at which overlapping talk ends
(0.0)	length of silence in tenths of a second
(.)	micro pause
::	lengthened syllable
wor-	glottal stop
=	latched utterance
?/ǃ/, /.	rising/ slightly rising/ continuing/ falling intonation
↑/↓	sudden and extreme rising/falling intonation
<u>Underlining</u>	relatively high pitch
CAPS	relatively high volume
hh	outbreath
.hh	inbreath
(h)	laughter particle interpolated within a word
(word)	unintelligible utterance
> <	increase in tempo
< >	decrease in tempo
◦ ◦	talk quieter than the surrounding talk
((gaze))	transcriber's descriptions of non-spoken actions
- - -	hand claps
↘	head nods

### 2. Abbreviations used in the interlinear gloss

ASP	aspect (represented by -te i)
Cop	various forms of copula verbs
FLR	filler
FP	final particles
LK	nominal linking particle
N	nominalizer
NEG	negative morpheme
P	particle
PASS	passive morpheme
PST	past morpheme
O	object particle
Q	question particle
QT	quotative particle
S	subject particle
Top	topic particle

## Chapter 1

### Introduction

#### 1.1. Objectives

Second Language (L2) learning has long been perceived and examined as a purely internal, cognitive processing in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). After a “social turn” (Block, 2003) that calls for more socially and contextually sensitive views on L2 learning (Firth & Wagner, 1997), however, an increasing number of research has investigated L2 language learning as a socially accomplished, situated interactional phenomenon (e.g., Kasper & Wagner, 2011, 2018; Markee & Kunitz, 2013; Mori, 2007). These studies employ the sociologically-rooted, micro-analytical approach of conversation analysis (henceforth CA) to analyze L2 learning from an *emic*, or participant-relevant, perspective. That is, rather than investigating casual relationships between distinctive operationally-defined factors and L2 learning outcomes, a CA-based approach aims to examine the systematic *process* through which participants observably display to each other what they are doing to accomplish social actions and activities that can be conducive and/or necessary to facilitate L2 learning (Markee, 2017). In other words, once thought-to-be completely context-free, cognitively-loaded constructs, such as corrective feedback, negotiation of meaning, and opportunity for modified output, are re-conceptualized as locally-situated social accomplishments that require participants’ intricate coordination of their own actions at a given moment.

Building on this strand of research, the present study employs CA as a primary methodological underpinning to qualitatively examine, or more precisely *describe*, L2 learning as a social practice in a particular pedagogical setting, namely one-on-one instructional sessions.

More specifically, the study focuses on three distinct practices of instructors and learners during these one-on-one sessions, which display participants' orientations toward accomplishing specific teaching or learning goals—namely, *elicitation*, *epistemic status check*, and *embedded linguistic try*. Such practices are employed by participants as a means through which they orient themselves and thereby direct others' attention toward a particular language form for the sake of L2 learning. The present study examines this interactional process through which participants conduct these practices and respond to them in ways that collaboratively shape the pedagogic session and accomplish specific moments that are co-oriented as L2 learning opportunities. It will further analyze the functions of the focal practices in light of the given institutional objectives of the one-on-one instructional session in order to explore the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction. That is, the research aims to explicate how the uses of the identified practices reflect and are shaped by these institutionalized pedagogical goals.

Given that the current research focuses on three distinct practices identified in the data, this dissertation consists of three separate analytical chapters, each of which addresses practice-specific guiding questions as well as the overarching questions that unify the three analytical studies together. The overall aim of the dissertation is two-fold. First, it investigates what kinds of learning opportunities are co-constructed during the one-on-one instructional session. Second, it interprets the analysis in light of the given institutional objectives of the session and thereby examines how participants are displaying and negotiating their orientation toward the pedagogical goals and the emerging contingencies in the session. By addressing these issues, the current study contributes to the field of CA-SLA research, including CA classroom research, and more generally, applied linguistic research on the relationship between L2 interaction and language pedagogy.

## 1.2. One-on-one Instructional Session

As mentioned above, the current study aims to examine the constructive process through which L2 learning opportunities are occasioned during the pedagogical setting of the one-on-one instructional session. Although it takes various forms, one-on-one language teaching has been increasingly implemented in higher education classrooms and various institutional settings, including Japanese language programs, as reflected in recent conference presentations (e.g., Aikawa, 2021; Hanai & Emori, 2022; Collis & Nakada, 2022). Previous research in education has already bolstered the benefits of one-on-one teaching in various subjects and contexts, demonstrating its effectiveness and flexibility in comparison to larger classroom instruction (e.g., Bleistein & Lewis, 2015; Ireson, 2004; Merrill et al., 1995). The educational value of one-on-one teaching can be largely attributed to its constructive and collaborative approach to learning (e.g., Smagorinsky & Fly, 1993) and its tailorable assistance to learners' individual learning styles and needs (e.g., Bleistein & Lewis, 2015). Under the current circumstances in which the notion of diversity, equity, and inclusivity has also been receiving more attention in the field of language education (e.g., Mori & Hasegawa, 2020; Randolph & Johnson, 2017), one-on-one teaching bears numerous potentials to enhance the quality of language education. More specifically, what the individually customized instruction and interactional feedback that one-on-one teaching can provide appears to be especially conducive to reducing learners' achievement gaps in language classes by supporting individual language development in a way that is not feasible in large classroom settings.

Out of the various forms of one-on-one language teaching, the current study examines the data collected from "one-on-one instructional sessions" implemented in a Japanese language study abroad program in Japan. I purposely chose this term rather than settle with more widely

used terms, such as “tutoring” or “tutorial session,” for the following reasons. First, the word “tutoring” can refer to a vast array of contexts, ranging from university-sponsored tutoring assistance to privately organized tutoring. Accordingly, while some tutoring sessions can be tailored toward facilitating learning for a specific course at an educational institution, some can be very casually held at cafés or through an online service. Subjects that are covered during “tutoring” can also vary and are not exclusive to language teaching and learning. Although it is often dyadic, tutoring occasionally consists of multi-party sessions that involve more than one student and/or teacher. Furthermore, regardless of the type of tutoring, attendance or participation is often not mandatory or institutionally enforced and thus remains optional for those who need or desire further assistance for learning. In order to avoid unnecessary misinterpretation or conceptual confusion with this type of general tutoring, I intentionally avoid the term “tutoring” and instead describe the sessions in this study as “one-on-one instructional sessions” throughout my research. This latter term captures the setting and number of participants simply but sufficiently without including any misleading connotations.

In addition, an instructional document provided by the study abroad program institutionally names and describes this one-on-one instructional session as 個別指導 (*kobetsu shidoo*), or “individually-guided instruction.” Some vernacular terms referring to the same session used by specific one-on-one instructors include 個別授業 (*kobetsu jyugyoo*), or “individually-guided class” (used by one of the instructors) and 個人指導 (*kojin shidoo*), “individual instruction” and 個人レッスン (*kojin resson*), “individual lesson” (both of which are used by the other instructor). In order to respect these multiple descriptions and understanding of the current focal context and preserve an ethnomethodological stance toward the analysis, I therefore decided to use the term “one-on-one instructional session.”

Main objectives of the session, as described in the instructional document, are to review textbook materials with learners individually, provide tailored feedback on their understanding and language use, and have them practice newly learned language forms through talking or discussing different conversational topics. One-on-one sessions are in this sense institutionally implemented means through which instructors monitor learners' both content and linguistic learning effectively. The task of one-on-one instructors is then to carry out some institutionally imposed specific activities to facilitate the overall program goals, which is to promote learners' language development efficiently within a short, intensive curriculum. Unlike those more general tutoring sessions that vary greatly in terms of the teaching materials and goals, therefore, the focal one-on-one sessions share some common institutionalized pedagogical objectives and activities across different sessions and instructors/learners.

This one-on-one instructional session, however, as per the program's guidelines, must also be simultaneously responsive to learners' emerging needs and interests. As such, the session is expected to be deliberately designed to maintain a careful balance between institutional objectives and locally emerging individual contingencies. As Merrill and other educational scholars (1995) claim, by guiding learners' actions, one-on-one session instructors of quality are able to interactionally incorporate learners' contributions into the learning process while maintaining the trajectory of the institutionalized lesson. The one-on-one instructors in this study are similarly required to carefully design their sessions based on institutionally outlined instructional objectives delineated on a document provided by the program while simultaneously paying attention to what each learner is doing at a given moment.

Given that there is this rather complex task that has been imposed on the one-on-one instructors, the same types of learning opportunities facilitated by the focal practices (instructors'

conducts) in the present study are not always accomplished in the exact same manner across different moments. As previous CA-based classroom research has revealed (e.g., Markee, 2005; Mori, 2002; Seedhouse, 2019), what instructors intend to make happen in the classroom may not always happen in a way that completely aligns with their plans. The primary reason for this discrepancy between what instructors *intend* to do and what they *think* occurs in class lies in the fact that interactions are always co-constructed by all participants. That is, whether or not the class will be carried out according to plan, to some degree, depends on how the learner understands and responds to the instructor's conduct.

In the same way, the one-on-one sessions of this study do not simply occur mechanically or by individual instructors alone. Instructors must collaborate with each individual learner by tailoring and modifying their actions in a way that is responsive to emerging contingencies during the session. As there is not only one way to conduct a session even with the common pedagogical goals, the participants also must, in a way, negotiate how they want to achieve the goal or agenda during the session while monitoring each other's actions. Unless one investigates what actually occurs during the session, therefore, the constructive process through which the participants interactionally achieve learning opportunities in situ remains in the black box. The present study focuses precisely on this constructive process through which instructors and learners make sense of each other's actions, in a moment-by-moment fashion, to accomplish what I call "*doing* the one-on-one instructional session."

The one-on-one instructional session is, furthermore, constructed with various interactional practices that have not been examined extensively through the lens of CA in the context of one-on-one language teaching before. Although several CA-based studies have previously investigated individualized ESL tutoring sessions designed for L2 learning, their

analytical focus has been limited to Q&A sequences (e.g., Belhiah, 2009, 2012; Benwell & Stokoe, 2002; Jung, 2017) and repair (corrective feedback) sequences (e.g., Pielke, 2019; Seo, 2011; Seo & Koshik, 2010). Therefore, by shedding light on the three focal practices identified in the data, the current research strives to examine different types of L2 learning opportunities constructed during the one-on-one session.

### **1.3. Conversation Analysis on L2 Learning**

To reiterate, the goals of this study are to provide a detailed, descriptive analysis on how instructors and learners employ different interactional practices to co-construct L2 learning opportunities and collaboratively accomplish one-on-one instructional sessions. With this goal, the current research analyzes video-recorded conversational data and aims to depict a more empirically grounded, complex reality of instructional sessions in which different kinds of learning opportunities are accomplished in situ. In order to systematically capture and analyze this constructive process through which different learning opportunities are occasioned, it becomes important to use a methodological approach that can access participants' point of views on how they understand each other's conduct. To this end, CA becomes a very effective, appropriate, and essential framework to analyze the data.

Originated by sociologists (Sacks et al, 1974), CA has developed as a strictly data-driven empirical approach applied across various disciplines to the study of the organization of human interactions (Maynard, 2013). The primary analytical concern of CA is with how participants display their understanding of ongoing interactions to each other through their conducts (Schegloff, 1996). CA addresses this question by employing the next-turn-proof-procedure (Sacks et al, 1974), that is, it bases and builds its analysis strictly upon the understanding that

participants display, in a recognizable manner to the other party and thus also observable to analysts, through their actions in response to the previous turn. CA thus takes an emic perspective by prioritizing participant-relevant perspectives and only takes into account what participants themselves visibly and audibly make relevant to the ongoing interaction, which includes their verbalized conduct, embodied actions, and displayed orientation toward material artifacts available at the moment of the interaction. From this emic point of view, participants in a talk achieve mutual understanding, or *intersubjectivity*, by designing, conducting, and modifying their actions in a way that is understandable and recognizable to the other party.

From these CA's views on human interactions, L2 learning can be re-conceptualized as a socially constituted accomplishment. Like in typical language classroom settings, during the one-on-one instructional session, participants take part in various actions, such as asking and responding to questions, providing explanations and instructions, telling a story, and providing feedback, comments, and evaluations. Instructional sessions are then similarly organized and carried out in a specific way to accomplish these actions for the sake of making L2 learning and teaching happen. Furthermore, for each action to be accomplished as intended, participants' orientations toward doing a specific action must be interpreted and co-oriented as such by the other participant. In this sense, everything that happens in interactions are locally situated, social accomplishments. When viewing L2 learning from this socially oriented perspective, participants display their orientation to a specific moment as *learning* when they are doing "various accountable actions of orienting to *understanding/using something new/recently learned*" that is related to the target L2 (Theodórsdóttir, 2018; p.32). In the current study, the analytical focus is then on these moments in which participants are employing different practices, such as elicitation, epistemic status checks, and embedded linguistic tries, to orient themselves toward

*doing* language learning by making a specific language-related matter relevant to the ongoing interaction. I refer to such moments as *learning opportunities* throughout this dissertation. With this CA-based framework and conceptualization of L2 learning, the current study aims to explore how each focal practice is designed and sequentially placed in a way to make a specific language matter relevant to the instructional session.

Moreover, to further aid my analysis on the identified interactional practices, the current study also utilizes ethnographic data pertaining to the focal pedagogical setting. From CA perspectives, institutional interactions differ from ordinary conversations in that the former is constructed with distinct interactional practices that are employed to accomplish institution-specific objectives (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage & Clayman, 2010). The CA analysis on institutional interactions can thus reveal how participants' practices embody and are constrained by specific instructionally imposed tasks. This type of analysis however requires ethnographic knowledge of the particular institutional setting to recognize and explain what specific aspects of institutionality the participants' practices are oriented toward achieving. For this reason, the current study, although to a limited degree, uses relevant ethnographic information in regard to the one-on-one instructional session that will help better understand the specific goals or type of learning toward which instructors and learners are orienting themselves and provide more contextualized interpretations of the analysis. It thereby examines the co-construction of learning opportunities in the light of the institutionalized objectives of the one-on-one instructional session as well as relevant program-given teaching materials and aims to explicate how the given institutional goals shape and are embodied through the focal interactional practices observed during the sessions.

## 1.4. Organization

This chapter has outlined the overview of the current research project, explained the focal pedagogical context of the study, and described its methodological orientation and objectives.

The rest of the dissertation is organized into the following chapters.

Chapter 2 contextualizes my research through a review of relevant literatures on how CA has been applied to the study of L2 language learning and classroom discourse. It further discusses potential contributions of CA-based research to SLA and applied linguistics field in general and current gaps in the scholarship. The chapter then presents research questions that the following analytical chapters will address.

Chapter 3 details information about my collected data and the research site, including the setting, participants, and other relevant ethnographic information. This chapter also explains my procedures for building a database out of the collected data and further describes my rationale for selecting specific cases for further analysis.

Chapter 4 focuses on instructor elicitation as a pedagogical practice and examines how its design affects the way in which the targeted pre-planned language form is solicited from learners for the sake of practice. The analysis in this chapter highlights that learners face structural difficulties with simultaneously focusing on both form and meaning when responding to instructor elicitation, especially when the elicitation is designed to implicitly solicit a particular language form during meaning-focused tasks.

Chapter 5 investigates instructors' use of explicit knowledge check questions, referred to as *epistemic status checks* (ESCs) (Sert, 2013), on learners' understanding of a specific language form. The analysis reveals that instructors tactfully utilize ESCs to make different knowledge relevant to the interaction and thereby facilitate different types of pedagogical activities, such as

facilitating comprehension questions, scaffolding form-focused sequences, and initiating metalinguistic talks.

Chapter 6 examines cases in which learners utilize verbal and non-verbal resources to embed a form-focused sequence, which I call an “*embedded linguistic try*,” during a meaning-focused activity. This chapter elucidates the point that learners are not passive participants but rather activate their agency by tactfully inserting linguistic tries. It further illustrates how instructors respond to such embedded form-focused utterances differently depending on how these utterances are displayed.

Finally, Chapter 7 provides a summary of my research’s findings and discusses their pedagogical implications. It, then, illustrates connections between the current study and previous literatures, discussing the limitations of the study as well as directions for future research.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.1. Introduction**

In order to contextualize and theoretically situate the current research, this chapter reviews literatures that provide relevant background information. First, I provide a brief historical and conceptual review on how socially-oriented, CA-based research on L2 learning emerged as an alternative approach that contrasts with the classical, largely cognitively-orientated research in the field of SLA. Second, I will explain the basic tenets of ethnomethodological conversation analysis (EMCA) and review relevant literatures in the field of CA-SLA research that applies EMCA principles to investigate L2 learning as a social activity. Third, I then discuss CA classroom research and the importance of taking into account the institutional context when analyzing classroom interactions. Finally, I present research questions in relation to the reviewed literatures and describe contributions that I intend to make to the advancement of the field of research on language learning.

#### **2.2. Cognitive and Social SLA**

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), the cognitive-interactionist theories predict that interaction facilitates L2 lexical and grammatical learning, which has been extensively examined and robustly supported by a number of empirical research studies (e.g., Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 2007; Mackey, 2012). Interaction is said to be conducive for L2 learning, since interacting with more proficient speakers, typically L1 speakers of the target language, provides various opportunities for negotiation of meaning through which L2 learners receive more comprehensible input and corrective feedback, notice and modify their own

linguistic mistakes, and produce various types of output in their L2 (e.g., Ellis, 2006; Long, 2014; Mackey, 2006; Swain, 2005). The cognitive-interactionist theories thus conceptualize interaction as a source for input, feedback, and output that will be cognitively processed and can lead to language acquisition. The objectives of the earlier cognitively-oriented SLA research is then to conduct controlled experiments, typically with pre-/post-test designs, to investigate causal relationships between different quantifiable factors that interaction provides and their impact on learning outcomes in learners' language abilities.

While these studies that focus on cognitive mechanism underlying the process of SLA have undoubtedly advanced our knowledge in regard to L2 learning and development, some scholars, most notably Firth and Wagner (1997), have made the controversial, yet significant, critique against an exclusively cognitive orientation and perspective on language learning and competence that dominated the field of SLA of their time. The main argument in their influential article is that language *acquisition* should not be understood in isolation from language *use* (Firth & Wagner, 1997). They further maintain that research on language learning should consider interactional context and be expanded, redirected, and conducted with increased *emic* (participant-oriented) (Pike, 1967) sensitivity toward cognitively-loaded constructs in SLA (Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007).

Following this proposal, which is later referred to as a “social turn” (Block, 2003), various socially-oriented theories and approaches began to be implemented in studies on L2 language learning, development, and use, including socio-cultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), identity theory (Norton, 2000), socio-cognitive theory (Atkinson, 2002, 2014), and other sociocultural perspectives (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). As part of this paradigm diversification (Ortega 2011, 2012), an increasing number of socially-oriented researchers have also begun

employing Conversation Analysis (henceforth CA) as an alternative social, participant-oriented approach to L2 language learning (e.g., Hall, 2018; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Mori, 2007; Markee et al., 2021).

Briefly, the basic tenet of CA is that participants of talk-in-interaction make their understanding of and orientations to social actions. Here, social actions are defined as things that participants do with verbal and non-verbal resources, which are available to each other in and through sequentially organized interaction (Goffman, 1983). Under the radically emic perspectives that CA takes, analytical concern is only focused on what participants make a focal concern to the ongoing interaction and how they make their action and orientation recognizable to each other in order to maintain intersubjectivity. Given this fundamental principle, “learning” can be conceptualized as a social activity that is collaboratively achieved by all participants in a locally situated manner. In other words, in L2 interactions, learners and co-participants must design and construct their turns and talks in a way that holds each other accountable for orienting and attending to language learning. This approach to learning as a social activity thus primarily concerns the systematic process and method by which L2 learners and their interactants co-construct learning moments while keeping the progression of the ongoing original task at hand (Kasper & Wagner, 2011).

Although CA-based research on L2 learning has also conceptualized learning in different ways, which will be discussed more in the next section, the following study by Hauser (2005) exemplifies a research orientation that the current study takes. His study reconceptualizes the notion of recast, a type of corrective feedback deemed conducive for language development (e.g., Markey, 2012) from CA’s participant-oriented perspectives. His study empirically demonstrates that whether or not a given turn is understood as “corrective” by a learner is an

interactional matter and thus only becomes an answerable question by qualitatively examining how participants orient to such action. Hauser further argues that this participant-relevant perspective is often disregarded in the coding process typically utilized in cognitively-oriented SLA research.

Socially-oriented research, like Hauser's (2005) study, examines actual interactions through lens of CA and critically reassesses the assumption that is embedded in the cognitively-oriented SLA research. That is, it questions the cognitive interactionist theories' assumptions that L2 learning is purely a cognitive, internal phenomenon in which input/feedback/output are processed like a computer in the human brain and that interactions generate input/feedback/output mechanically. Unlike in those experimentally designed interactions in which diverse cognitive factors are highly controlled and thus assumed to be constant and given, how particular utterances that are concerned with language form(s) are understood by participants is not pre-determined in actual interactions. In this regard, the participant-relevant account on language learning enabled by CA's analytical perspectives can help us better understand how learning opportunities do not automatically appear during interaction but are socially accomplished and locally situated endeavors that require all participants' actions to act as "interactional building blocks" (Jakonen, 2018; p. 759). This illuminates the importance of taking into account "contextual and interactional dimensions of language use" and thereby re-conceptualizes language learning as a social process (Firth & Wagner, 1997). While cognitively-oriented experimental SLA yields decontextualized findings that are intended to explain and predict L2 development, therefore, socially-oriented CA-based SLA research qualitatively describes this social *process* through which learning opportunities are interactionally mediated, attended to, and co-constructed (e.g. Kasper, 2009; Markee, 2011; Markee & Kunitz, 2013; Mori &

Hasegawa, 2009; Mori & Hayashi, 2006). This is not to deny that language learning involves cognitive processing. Rather, the main argument I would like to make clear here is that language learning can instead be understood and empirically demonstrated as a ‘accountable, public, and locally occasioned process’ (Koschmann, 2012; p.1040)

The current research follows this CA-based approach to L2 learning and aims to examine the locality and particularity of the *process* through which participants strive to display and interpret each other’s orientation toward accomplishing social actions and activities that can be conducive and/or necessary to facilitate L2 learning. In the next section, I will review relevant literatures on CA-based research that investigate L2 learning in order to further contextualize the current study.

### **2.3. CA-SLA Research**

Since the social turn, CA-based research on SLA, also referred to as CA-SLA (Kasper & Wagner, 2011) or CA-for-SLA (Markee & Kasper, 2004), has developed as a subfield of SLA, which employs conversation analytical techniques and frameworks to investigate L2 language use and learning in order to “understand, not explain, the phenomena [of L2 learning]” (Markee, 2017; p.371). This section will first review CA’s fundamental tenets and discuss how they can be applied to study the construction of L2 learning opportunities. It then discusses relevant literatures on CA-SLA research in the past decades to provide a rationale for the current study.

Rooted in sociology and developed as a branch of ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1967), CA has been appreciated as an analytical approach to studying ordinary human social interaction across different disciplines. This ethnomethodological conversation analysis (EMCA) is primarily concerned with the sequential organization and interactional method through which

participants of “talk-in-interaction” (Schegloff, 1987) achieve intersubjectivity (Schegloff, 1991). In and through interaction, participants display to each other how they understand one another’s conduct and how they wish others to understand their conduct in a moment-by-moment fashion in order to achieve, maintain, and co-construct intersubjectivity (e.g., Clift, 2016; Sidnell, 2010).

CA takes an emic perspective (Pike, 1967) as its methodological orientation toward analysis so as to empirically uncover people’s methods for achieving intersubjectivity. That is, analysis is exclusively data-driven and empirically grounded and, thus, only concerned with what participants visibly orient toward, what they make relevant to an ongoing interaction, and how the meaning of their conduct is co-established as the interaction unfolds (Markee, 2012). In this sense, the meaning of a given utterance is not pre-determined but is rather co-constructed by participants during the course of the interaction. Therefore, like ethnomethodology that rejects the empirical positivistic perspective on and explanation for human behaviors (Heritage, 1984), EMCA does not rely on exogenous theories or prior theoretical hypotheses to examine and explicate human social interaction. Rather, analytical attention is exclusively focused on the way in which participants display their orientation to the ongoing talk between one another. In doing so, participants uncover systematic methods, such as turn-taking systems (Sacks et al., 1974), adjacency pairs (e.g., question-answer) (Schegloff, 2007), and repair sequences (‘self-righting’ mechanism) (Schegloff et al., 1977), to understand each other’s social conduct at each moment of the talk (Schegloff, 1991).

Although not explicitly stated, CA’s analytical perspectives have been employed to examine L2 data in the previously mentioned article by Firth and Wagner (1997). In this case, CA was applied to L2 data in order to demonstrate how L2 learners successfully construct their

talk despite their limited linguistic resources, thereby reconceptualizing the notion of “non-native” speakers as “defective” speakers. What CA’s methodology has allowed the data to demonstrate is thus a detailed, empirically-grounded account of what L2 learners are actually capable of accomplishing by employing available resources with other co-participants during a talk. This reconceptualization was made possible since CA’s analytical focus is not on language per se. Rather, CA considers an action that a given utterance accomplishes as a basic analytical unit. It then examines how turns are co-constructed in a way that sets anticipated actions in subsequent turns while simultaneously displaying understanding of the preceding turn. In this sense, language in CA is conceptualized as one of the various resources that people utilize to organize talk-in-interaction and establish and maintain intersubjectivity between conversation participants (e.g. Schegloff, 1996). Given this perspective and interactionally-rooted approach based on CA to analyze L2 data, the last two decades have witnessed a growing number of studies that employ conversation analytic perspectives and frameworks to investigate interactions involving L2 speakers and learners (e.g., Kasper & Wagner, 2011, 2014; Markee & Kunitz, 2015).

As the number of CA-SLA studies have grown over the last several decades, two different approaches to L2 learning have emerged and developed: research focusing on learners’ longitudinal change and research examining learning as a locally situated social accomplishment. Although both approaches utilize CA methodology or its analytical perspectives and framework in their respective studies and thus conceptually overlap to some degree, each approach views, defines, and examines L2 language learning in different ways and thus focuses on distinct social dimensions of language learning.

The longitudinal strand of CA-SLA research, or “developmental CA” (Wootton, 2006), conceptualizes learning from a socially-oriented standpoint and aims to document one of the following: learners’ changes in *participation*, in *interactional competence*, or in *orientation to a particular language form* over time. The first *participation* approach empirically illustrates how learners change the ways of participating in specific social settings over time by incorporating other existing socially-oriented learning theories, such as sociocultural theory (SCT) (Ohta, 2000, 2001), situated learning theory, and/or the notion of community of practice (CoP) (Brouwer & Wagner, 2004; Hellermann, 2006, 2007, 2008; Hellermann & Cole, 2008; Nguyen, 2008; Young, 2009; Young & Miller, 2004). The other approach under this longitudinal strand conceptualizes learning as the development of L2 learners’ so-called *interactional competence* (IC) (Hall, 1995, 1999; Hall et al., 2011; Kasper, 2006; Kasper & Wagner, 2011, 2014; Young, 1999). This approach investigates the diversification of an L2 learner’s interactional abilities while efficiently recipient-designing their talk (Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2015), initiates story-telling sequences (Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2016), and delivers a complaint with increased prefatory work (Skogmyr Marian, 2021). The third longitudinal approach follows CA principles most strictly and aims to longitudinally document the way in which a learner’s orientation to a particular lexical/linguistic item changes over time (e.g., Hauser, 2017; Kotilainen & Kurhila, 2020; Markee, 2008).

Despite the conceptual differences between these longitudinal CA approaches, the fundamental objective that underlies all the three is to empirically account for some form of learner *change* over time. This methodological orientation is a direct attempt to respond to scholars who have criticized CA-based SLA studies for their insufficient account for language *development* (e.g., Gass, 1998; Kasper, 1997; Larsen-Freeman, 2004; Long, 1997; Ortega, 2009).

This orientation is also reflected in Ellis's (2010) claim that "any theory of L2 acquisition [. . .] must necessarily account for change in the learner's use of the L2 over time" (p. 44). The longitudinal CA-SLA research, however, has also been criticized for questionable comparability between instances at different occasions (Lee, 2010), risk in losing its emic perspectives (Deppermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2021; Hauser, 2011), conceptual confusions regarding IC (Markee, 2019; Pekarek Doehler, 2019, 2021a; Young, 2019), and difficulty in identifying learning objects to be tacked down (Seedhouse, 2022).

Whereas longitudinal CA-SLA research attempts to empirically document L2 development, the second strand of CA-SLA, which the current study adopts, directs its analytical focus specifically toward the moment in which learning is locally constructed and co-accomplished by participants throughout the interaction. This approach, which is also referred to as the "doing learning" approach (e.g., Kurhila et al, 2020), aims to utilize CA's analytical and methodological forte to specifically investigate *how* participants in a given interaction design and conduct their actions in a way that collaboratively constructs or potentially obstructs learning opportunities that can lead to L2 development (Markee, 2017). As such, this "doing learning" strand of CA-SLA research stays strictly data-driven and committed to CA's ethnomethodological principle. In other words, as an approach to investigating learning, it is only concerned with potential language learning moments that participants visibly and publicly orient to and make the focal concern of the ongoing interaction (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee, 2008). In this sense, the focus of the analysis is not necessarily on what is learned or how collected data fits a priori theories or frameworks of learning. Rather, as previously mentioned, the analysis aims to uncover how learning opportunities are contingently and interactionally mediated, attended to, and co-constructed in and through social interactions during which L2

learners participate. With this analytical discipline, therefore, language learning is re-specified as a publicly displayed social action that L2 learners and co-interactants accomplish collaboratively.

Employing these EMCA perspectives on language learning, various studies have investigated the ways in which different learning opportunities are socially and observably constructed, thereby respecifying once thought to be purely cognitive constructs in SLA. In addition to Hauser's study (2005) mentioned earlier, similar CA-for-SLA research reconceptualizes other cognitive constructs in SLA as socially observable and accountable phenomena, including Focus on Form (Fasel Lauzon & Pekarek Doehler, 2013; Kasper & Burch, 2016), corrective feedback (Theodórsdóttir, 2018), noticing (Eskildsen & Markee, 2018; Kunitz, 2018), and negotiation of meaning (Eskildsen, 2018a). This branch of CA-SLA research has also examined L2 learning from a participant-oriented perspective in a vast array of social contexts, including the language classroom (see Kunitz et al, 2021 for an overview), conversation-for-learning (see Kasper & Kim, 2015 for an overview), and interactions "in the wild" (see Hellermann et al, 2019 for an overview). Employing participant-relevant perspectives, these studies have revealed that *doing language learning*, or achieving mutual orientation to potential "learnables" (Eskildsen & Majlesi, 2018; Majlesi & Broth, 2012), is a social and locally contingent process that requires all participants' accountable actions.

Among all the practices that participants employ to make their orientation to language form, the most frequently and extensively examined one is *repair* practice. From a CA perspective, a repair is defined as an interactional practice by which a participant copes with trouble in speaking, hearing, or understanding the talk (Schegloff et al., 1977). When the trouble contains correctable or learnable linguistic items, either L2 learners or other participants can initiate a repair sequence to show their orientation to the linguistic correctness or issues. In

classroom settings, for instance, instructor-initiated repair is observed more frequently (Gardner, 2013). Seedhouse's (2004) classroom study further shows that while repair is typically concerned with recovering mutual understanding in meaning-and-fluency contexts, it is focused on the well-formedness of learners' utterances in form-and-accuracy contexts. In addition to repairing, it has also been reported that language learning moments emerge from teachers code-switching from L2 to L1 for clarification, using incomplete sentences to provide a slot for students to complete (Koshik, 2002), and providing an opportunity to repeat target forms (Gardner, 2008).

L2-L2 pair-work classroom interactions are another arena in which learning opportunities are co-constructed. In such interactional sites, learners typically initiate word search sequences. Word searches are defined as "forward-oriented repair activities" (Schegloff, 1979) in which a speaker displays observable trouble in producing a next word/phrase/utterance at a given turn and thereby invites other interactants to join the search process. Mori and Hasegawa (2009), for instance, examined how L2 learners of Japanese collaboratively conduct word searches during pair-work activities. Their analysis illustrates that they utilize various resources, including talk, non-verbal actions, and textbooks, to make cognitive states mutually visibly available to each other in order to co-achieve word searches. Similarly, Stone (2019) analyzed how Japanese learners of English co-construct word search sequences during 'off-task' conversations in an ESL classroom. His study found that the learners utilize their L1 as a resource to jointly establish a learnable during the word search, co-constructing a learning opportunity. These studies demonstrate that word search sequences are socially accomplished by participants configuring various verbal and non-verbal resources available at a given moment.

In naturally occurring L2 talk, in contrast with classroom settings, self-initiated (by an L2 speaker) other-repairs (by a more proficient speaker) are the most common and thus a structurally preferred practice to orient to learning (e.g., Hosoda, 2006; Kasper, 2004; Theodorsdottir, 2018). It has been reported that L2 learners employ different kinds of self-initiated repair sequences, including conducting word searches (e.g., Browner, 2003; Eskildsen, 2018b; Eskildsen & Theodorsdottir, 2017; Kurhila, 2006; Mori, 2010) and performing a clarification check (Hosoda, 2006; Kasper & Wagner, 2011). L2 speakers also initiate repair by asking an explicit request for assistance, rising intonation, or making utterances incomplete with sound stretches or cut-offs (e.g., Hosoda, 2006; Kurhila, 2006; Theodórsdóttir & Eskildsen, 2011), and thereby attempt to make linguistic items, correctness, and/or issues a focal concern to the ongoing interaction. Co-participants of a talk complete (or do not complete) a repair sequence, depending on the situation, to make such moments learnable and teachable (Eskildsen & Majlesi, 2018). All the studies mentioned here demonstrate that learnable moments must be visibly oriented to and achieved interactionally (e.g., Eskildsen & Theodorsdottir, 2017). More importantly, these studies have demonstrated that L2 learners play an active role in co-constructing learning opportunities and identifying and turning a particular linguistic matter into a “learnable” (Majlesi & Broth, 2012). Especially in naturally occurring conversations, L2 speakers actively construct such learning spaces by making their L2 learner role relevant to the interaction before impending real-life business (Eskildsen & Theodórsdóttir, 2017; Theodórsdóttir, 2011a, 2011b).

So far, this section has reviewed previous CA-SLA studies that examines L2 learning as a socially accomplished activity. As argued in Eskildsen and Majlesi’s article (2018), this strand of CA-SLA research has highlighted three social dimensions of L2 learning, which includes a) the

collaborative process in constructing learning activities, b) the embodied nature of identifying and establishing learnables, and c) the active engagement in displaying an orientation to learning. However, it should be highlighted that this line of research has overwhelmingly focused on different types of repair sequences and how they are socially achieved. Regardless of its type, such repair sequences are all oriented toward either correcting linguistic inappropriate utterances and/or obtaining linguistic assistance to produce more complete utterances. While achieving joint orientation toward linguistic insufficiency undoubtedly leads to a learning opportunity, there remain other forms of learning opportunities that have not been fully examined. The current study aims to fill this gap by identifying various practices that participants employ during the one-on-one instructional session and investigating the kinds of learning opportunities participants construct using identified practices.

#### **2.4. Classroom CA Research**

The classroom is undoubtedly an environment where various types of learning opportunities for L2 development are created. L2 teaching, however, involves not only carrying out pedagogical activities that facilitate L2 learning but also facilitating learners' participation, managing their questions and behaviors, and incorporating their various contributions into classroom discourse. Given this nature of the language classroom, what sort of learning opportunities are constructed and how classroom interactions are designed to facilitate or restrict the construction of various learning opportunities are empirical questions that must be qualitatively posed. L2 classroom research thus requires a methodological framework that can identify participants' actions and capture the details of the way in which participants manage to locally accomplish distinctive, sometimes competing components of L2 teaching through their

social actions. In order to empirically analyze such structural complexity, EMCA has been selected by an increasing number of applied linguistic researchers as a powerful methodological tool to empirically analyze situated learning in classroom interactions. Now, various CA-based studies have investigated ways in which learning opportunities are interactionally constructed at different moments of teacher-student interactions (e.g., Markee 2000; Seedhouse 2004; Sert 2015; Waring 2016) as well as pair-work interactions (e.g., Hasegawa, 2021; Markee & Kunitz, 2013; Mori, 2004). The following paragraphs will review those relevant literatures on classroom CA studies and what they have discovered.

Earlier CA classroom research aimed to reveal the structural regulations in classroom interactions and that prototypical interaction is comprised of initiation-response-evaluation/follow-up/feedback (IRE/IRF) sequences (Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wells, 1993). This interactional pattern is predominantly employed by an instructor as a basic means to assess what a learner knows and to correct linguistic knowledge as necessary in the third “evaluation” turn of IRE sequences (e.g., Hall, 2004; Mondada & Pekarek, 2004). While these canonical sequential patterns are certainly prevalent and often integral structures implemented in language classrooms, the complex nature of interactions cannot be accounted for by these three-turn sequences alone.

Seedhouse (2004), for example, applies CA perspectives to examine classroom interactions and reveals variations in how the pedagogical interactions are organized. In this study, he identifies different types of pedagogical contexts (e.g., form-and-accuracy contexts, meaning-and-fluency contexts, etc.) and argues that classroom interactions are organized in a way to reflect and embody an intended pedagogical goal through actual teaching. Although prototypical IRE structures are also present in his data sets, Seedhouse’s study reveals that

structural patterns in the language classroom are dynamic and thus always subjected to change at any given moment of an interaction, depending on the pedagogical context created by the instructor and the learner.

In a similar vein, Lee's (2007) research reveals how an instructor tailors and produces a third turn move of an IRE sequence contingently upon a student's second turn response in order to effectively accomplish a pedagogical goal and manage classroom discourse. Lee thereby argues that the third turn position of such three-turn pedagogical sequences reflects the instructor's interpretive endeavor, which is locally produced. He further indicates the importance of interactional contingencies of the learner's second turn response to the understanding of the intricacy of the third turn. These CA-based studies, highlight the "principle of contingency" (Waring, 2016) that is put into play in classroom interactions. In other words, structural patterns of classroom interactions are not static or prescriptive but rather transform in response to emerging local contingencies and pedagogical needs.

Whereas instructors modify their conduct based on learners' responses in order to facilitate learning, their actions can also obstruct potential learning opportunities in the language classroom. Waring (2008), for example, investigates instructors' use of explicit positive assessment in the third turn of an IRE sequence and the possible structural consequences of such assessment turns. Her analysis illustrates that such assessments structurally force the sequence to come to an end and thus inhibit opportunities for learners to further display potential comprehension problems or explore alternative responses in following sequences. Other previous CA-based classroom research has also explored and illustrated such structural relationships between instructor conduct and the potential hinderance of learning opportunities (e.g., He, 2004; Li, 2013; Seedhouse, 2019; Sert, 2021; Walsh, 2002). As Walsh (2002) states:

Where [teachers'] language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated; conversely, where there is a significant deviation between language use and teaching goal at a given moment in a lesson, opportunities for learning and acquisition [can be...] missed. (p.5)

From a CA perspective, missed learning opportunities are therefore moments in which participants' orientations are not completely in alignment. Alternatively, they could be moments in which one party's displayed orientation toward a language form, the content of the talk, or any other problem is not acted upon and made relevant to by the other participant. In other words, what language instructors intend to make happen in their lessons may not always be accomplished in actual language classrooms. Findings on the relationship between learning opportunities and teacher conduct support this claim, and they further demonstrate that classroom discourse is not constructed with fixed sets of structural patterns. Rather, interpretable actions are used as resources during classroom interactions through which participants determine their next contingent actions to do teaching and/or learning.

Such dynamicity and flexibility also become observable when learning opportunities are facilitated by learner initiatives or increased engagement. Previously, CA-based studies have explored the way in which learner initiatives are constructed into learning opportunities, focusing on learners' volunteer responses (Warning, 2011), learner-initiated questions (Warning, 2009), post-expansions after learner-initiated sequences (Jacknick, 2011), or post-expansions after instructor feedback in the third turn (Li, 2013). Such actions indicate an exercise of learner agency that actively constructs learning within teacher-led language classrooms. In addition, from a CA-SLA approach that conceptualizes learning as change in *participation*, learning opportunities, and, by extension, language development, can also be created by learners'

increased involvement and engagement in classroom interactions and activities (e.g., Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Walsh, 2002; Young, 2009). Accordingly, the same line of CA classroom research has explicated how learner participation can be effectively facilitated and maximized in cases in which instructors must, for instance, respond to learners' unexpected contributions to whole group interactions (Fagan, 2012), deal with different learners' responses arising simultaneously (Waring, 2013), or manage learners' emergent knowledge gaps during pre-task activities (Sert, 2017). The moments in which learning opportunities appear is, therefore, not predictable in the sense that they rely on how instructors respond to the emerging contingency in a way that leads to a potential learning moment.

Thus far, reviewed literatures have highlighted the contingency, complexity, and dynamicity of the way in which learning opportunities are occasioned in language classrooms. Specific actions that construct such L2 learning opportunities, however, must be understood and interpreted in relation to the goals that are tied to a given institutional setting. This is because, participants' actions in classrooms are often specifically designed and organized such that institutionally enforced pedagogical activities, agendas, or goals are effectively accomplished. From an EMCA perspective, therefore, L2 classroom interaction is a form of institutional talk and hence largely goal-oriented (e.g., Heritage & Clayman, 2010).

Previously, a strand of research referred to as institutional CA (e.g., Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage & Clayman, 2010) has examined how participants' actions contribute to accomplishing and are simultaneously constrained by given institutional goals in various social settings, including news interviews (Clayman & Heritage, 2002), courtroom proceedings (Atkinson & Drew, 1979), and medical consultations (Heritage & Maynard, 2006). The primary

objective of institutional CA is to examine “how specific practices of talk embody or connect with specific identities and institutional tasks” (Heritage & Clayman, 2010; p.16-17).

The classroom, as mentioned earlier, is also an environment characterized by institutional talk and has been examined through perspectives of institutional CA (e.g., McHoul 1978; Mehan, 1979; Seedhouse, 2004). However, as discussed in this section, previous institutional CA studies have only depicted the structure of classroom interactions to a limited degree. Furthermore, more recently, in a review of his own study (Seedhouse, 2004), Seedhouse (2022) argues that his expert knowledge used to interpret the classroom interactional data was based on his previous experiences as a language teacher and are assumed to be generic. Seedhouse further maintains that CA analysis on classroom interaction should be aided by ethnographic data that provides information regarding the instructional context in which the interaction is situated. This aligns with other scholars who make similar arguments that CA’s sequential analysis on classroom interactions can be supplemented with collected ethnographic information (e.g., Antaki, 2011; Arminen, 2000; Maynard, 2006). Without an ethnographic background that helps contextualize a given pedagogical interaction, what counts as an institutionally acceptable and desirable accomplishment remains unclear (Mori, 2021). Unfortunately, only a very limited number of previous classroom CA studies have incorporated such ethnographic data into their analysis, even when such information appears to be necessary. The current study intends to address this gap by conducting a fine-grain analysis on L2 interactions in a particular pedagogical context while using some ethnographic data that informs institutional demands to interpret the analysis.

The current study further aims to contribute to its field in the following ways. First, it will supplement the ongoing endeavor to broaden the scope of SLA research by shedding light on

“the multilayered ecology within which the given interaction is situated” (Mori, 2021; p. 411). In the Douglas Fir Group (2016) discussion that promotes a transdisciplinary, multifaceted perspectives on SLA, it is argued that L2 learning is mediated by three, simultaneously co-existing and co-dependent levels of influence: the micro-level of social activities, the meso-level of sociocultural institutions, and the macro-level of ideological structures. Analyzing one-on-one instructional sessions in light of the larger institutional context will thus illuminate how micro-level social interactions are embodying and simultaneously are shaped by a meso-level institutional setting of the study abroad program. This empirically demonstrates the multilayered nature of L2 teaching and learning.

Furthermore, the important key element that the new transdisciplinary SLA perspective affords is “ecological validity” (Cicourel, 2007), which refers to “fair and credible representations of the possibilities and constraints faced by L2 learners in their social worlds on all levels of activity and across time spans” (the Douglas Fir Group, 2016; p. 39). In a rather critical response to the article by the Douglas Fir Group and from an essentially more cognitively-oriented perspective, Han (2016) also argues for the necessity of an interdisciplinary approach to SLA and proposes that the field of SLA should take a “division of labor” approach and be divided into three categories: fundamental SLA (FSLA), instructed SLA (ISLA), and applied SLA (ASLA). She suggests that FSLA be focused on the underlying cognitive mechanisms unique to L2 learning while ISLA should aim to investigate how to effectively intervene in L2 learning processes by employing experimental studies. She further claims that ASLA should be concerned with “situated, real-world learning as it happens in various educational settings” and that “the three subfields should form a complementary relationship to elevate the disciplinary rigor of SLA” (Han, 2019; p. 394). As each strand of research has its

own limitations as to what aspect of SLA can be examined and what specific questions in SLA can be answered, this interdisciplinary approach becomes significant in capturing a complex, multi-dimensional nature of language learning. I would therefore suggest that findings generated from the current research can be considered ASLA research and further complement the FSLA/ISLA research by providing interactional accounts on how learning opportunities are co-constructed and mediated by a given institutional constrains.

Lastly, as Kitzinger (2011) claims, practical implications must be made based on the specific institutional goals which the participants of the interaction aim to achieve in order to generate implications as resources to reflect and reconsider some parts of teaching practices in a given institution. The findings of the current research project can therefore be utilized to provide more contextualized pedagogical implications that help instructors become aware of the consequences of their pedagogical actions and that inform about the interactional options that instructors can take when responding to a contingent moment.

## **2.5. Present Research**

The current research focuses on the interactional data collected from one-on-one instructional sessions, each which occur between an instructor and an L2 learner of Japanese. As described in the previous chapter, this one-on-one session differs from typical tutorial sessions in that the one-on-one session in this study is institutionally implemented by a study abroad program as an extension of the program's lecture classes. As such, one-on-one instructors are required to design and carry out sessions in a way that facilitates learners' L2 development based on the instructional objectives outlined by the program. In other words, the interactions that occur during one-on-one sessions cannot simply become casual, everyday conversations. Rather,

each one-on-one instructor is tasked to interpret the given instructional goals and structure their lessons to accomplish *doing one-on-one instruction* as they interact with each learner. This requires specific interactional work from the one-on-one instructor, which reflects their interpretation of the given institutional goals and the purpose of the study abroad program's one-on-one instructional session.

Furthermore, learners play a significant role in co-constructing each session, since, from CA's socio-constructivist perspective, pedagogical agenda and goals are accomplished only when learners understand and respond to instructor conduct in a way that aligns themselves with displayed orientations. This, however, does not mean that learners always must co-orient to the emerging pedagogical focus. Rather, they are given some "wobble room" (Erickson, 2001) through which they can structurally negotiate and pursue their own interests at any given moment of the talk. As such, one-on-one instructors are required to align their conduct with their pedagogical agenda at any given moment of the session to effectively both create learning opportunities and respond to learners' contingently emerging needs and orientations that may also yield various learning opportunities.

By focusing on this specific pedagogical setting, the current research aims to employ CA to examine the way in which one-on-one instructors and learners co-accomplish *doing one-on-one instruction*. More specifically, this study will qualitatively analyze and describe moments in which such learning opportunities are locally accomplished through one-on-one interactions and thereby explicate how both instructors' and learners' interpretations of institutional objectives manifest interactionally and are acted upon during each session. As discussed in this chapter, this convergence or deviance during different pedagogical interactions cannot become visible unless instructors record their own teaching and qualitatively analyze it (e.g., Seedhouse, 2019; Waring

& Creider, 2021). The current study thus aims to illuminate the complexities that are involved in constructing this one-on-one session and thereby empirically demonstrate the way in which the given institutional objectives are interactionally actualized through participants' collaborative actions. The awareness of how learning opportunities are interactionally mediated and are locally co-constructed (or missed) can also help language instructors reflect on their own teaching and allow them to become more responsive to certain moments in class that allow them to perform more finely-tuned pedagogical practices.

## **2.6. Research Questions**

Situated in the research field outlined above, and guided by the methodological orientations based on EMCA, the current research aims to address the following research questions:

- 1) What kinds of learning opportunities are co-constructed by participants during the one-on-one instructional session, and how so?
- 2) How do focal practices of instructors and learners during the one-on-one instructional sessions embody and are shaped by their interpretations of the institutional goals and purposes of the session?

Focusing on specific observable practices of the participants, each analytical chapter in this dissertation will strive to answer the questions above. More specifically, as will be discussed in more depth in the next chapter, the study will employ CA's analytical framework to examine instructors' elicitations (Chapter 4), their epistemic status check questions (Chapter 5), and learners' embedded linguistic tries (Chapter 6) that are identified during the one-on-one instructional sessions.

## Chapter 3

### Data and Analytical Procedures

#### 3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I describe the relevant background information of the collected data and the analytical procedure through which the focal data was selected and examined. I first lay out the focal institutional context, namely the one-on-one instructional session, from which the data was collected. I then introduce the participants of the study and describe the details of the collected data sets. Lastly, I explain the analytical procedures through which the focal excerpts were identified, examined, and presented.

#### 3.2. Focal Context

This section details the institutional setting and purpose of the focal context of the present study – the one-on-one instructional session. All descriptions pertaining to the session here are based on instructional documents provided by the program that are assigned to one-on-one instructors as well as from direct inquiries from focal learner participants. As discussed in the previous chapter, the current study aims to analyze some of the practices of the participants identified in the collected data in the light of the given institutional goals. The following relevant ethnographic information will thus be utilized to better understand the practices that are specific to and closely related to the given setting and its institutional goals.

### 3.2.1. Institutional Setting

The research site from which the data for the current study was collected is located in the Kansai region of Japan and offers an eight-week summer intensive course. Although located in Japan, the program headquarter is based in the U.S., and it manages and offers similar study abroad programs across eight different countries. The focal study abroad program in Japan is administered by the local program coordinators and hosted at a local private college that offers facilities for classes.

The program also offers a partnership program with support from the local host university. Each U.S. university student is paired with a local Japanese college student, and all students live together in off-campus apartments arranged by the study abroad program during the summer. Local college students work together with the program and essentially become a language partner for U.S. learners. They help learners practice speaking Japanese, explore the town together on weekends, and ensure that learners have a positive and immersive study abroad experience.

Like many other immersion study abroad programs, the focal program also enforces a use-only-the-target-language policy, or language pledge, which prohibits the use of languages other than Japanese both in and outside the classroom, as well as with or without the presence of instructors, while attending this program. At the first orientation meeting, the program requires all learners and their Japanese roommates to sign a contract with the rules of this pledge. Violation of this policy, if discovered, prompts a meeting with their instructor and the program director.

A total of 27 students were attending the intensive eight-week study abroad program at the time when the data was collected. All the students came from universities in the U.S. and had taken some Japanese language courses at their universities prior to attending the program. This summer course offers four different levels (see Table 3.1 for an overview), taught by a total of 10 instructors as well as four one-on-one instructors. Students are required to take a placement test at the beginning of the program and are placed into one of the four levels based on their score on the test. Lecture courses meet 20 in-person hours per week and are designed to cover an entire textbook appropriate to each course level in the span of eight-weeks.

**Table 3.1 Descriptions of each course level**

Course Number	Course Level	Main Textbook Materials
LANG 220	Intermediate Japanese	• Genki II (Ch13-23)
LANG 260	Intermediate-High Japanese	• Genki II (Ch18-23)/ Tobira (Ch1-5)
LANG 320	Pre-Advanced Japanese	• Tobira (Ch1-10)
LANG 420	Advanced Japanese	• New Authentic Japanese (Ch1-10) • Brush Up Your Communication Skills in Japanese (Ch1-8)

Additionally, every student must also attend a 60-minute one-on-one instructional session with an assigned instructor approximately once in two weeks (four times in total). Learners' attendance is mandatory, and their performance during this one-on-one session is assessed and graded by the one-on-one instructor. The one-on-one instructors are expected to evaluate the learners' engagement in and preparation for each session (e.g., whether a learner has reviewed materials assigned in the previous session), which will be part of their final grade in the program. Additionally, rescheduling the date and time of the session is not typically allowed, so if a learner misses a session, he/she automatically loses some attendance and performance points. In

this sense, the one-on-one instructional sessions are institutionally implemented as an extension of each learner's lecturing class and as an integral part of the program curriculum.

The primary reason for selecting this program as a research site was this extensive array of contexts offered in which learners interact with others for learning Japanese language. Before the data collection, my initial intention was to collect interactional data from each distinct social context and compare how learners co-construct learning moments with others differently depending on the given context. Although I eventually decided to narrow down focus to the data from the one-on-one instructional session for the current study, for which I will later provide an additional reasoning, the focal study abroad program affords an ideal environment for the initially planned research ideas.

There was also a practical reason as to why the focal program was selected as a research site. This researcher had worked at the program during summer prior to the data collection and made personal connections with the program coordinators during that time. This personal connection with the program made the process of obtaining research approval relatively uncomplicated. Additionally, previously acquired knowledge about the program facilitated the process of planning the data collection in advance. For these pragmatic reasons, the program was selected as a primary and suitable research site for the current study.

### **3.2.3. Purpose of the Session**

An instructional document provided to instructors at the beginning of the program describes the focal study abroad program as one in which “[students] can improve their communicative competence in a short amount of time through small-sized classes.” The program thus promotes itself as one that offers a type of curriculum through which learners of Japanese

will be able to quickly develop their communicative skills in an intensive and immersive environment. The program website further lists academic-related curriculum features that help achieve the given institutional mission effectively, one of which is notably the one-on-one instructional session (Figure 3.1). The website states that “[students] even have one-on-one hours to help turn [their] language weaknesses into strengths or explore [their] own interests.” The one-on-one sessions that the program offers are, therefore, institutionally implemented as an integral part of the curriculum designed to support learners through individually tailored instruction to accomplish the aforementioned overarching program goal.

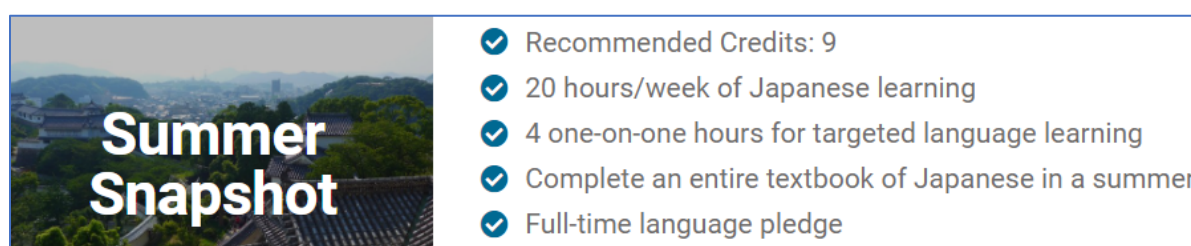


Figure 3.1: Descriptions of the Program (taken from the program website)

More detailed institutionalized objectives of the one-on-one instructional sessions, as described in figure the below (Figure 3.2), are explicitly stated and conveyed to each instructor during the orientation meeting before the program starts. This portion of text is cited from the instructional document provided to instructors who are specifically assigned to one-on-one session instruction. Its English translation is shown below.

個別指導では、何をどのように導入し、学生に練習させ定着を図るのか、綿密かつ柔軟な計画、工夫が要求される。学生は1時間の個別指導で予復習の時間が義務づけられているため、個人指導時間も例外ではなく、学習に必要な予復習を課す。授業内容は、学生の日本語能力、授業の発話や学習目的を考慮し、復習、苦手項目の克服、練習する。しかし、特に学生が希望する内容がある場合は、できるだけサポートし、指導していくことを推奨する。予習／復習時間との配分を考え、学生の日本語上達を支える。個人指導では、確実に日本語学習を支える時間として日本語能力指導を行う。決して日常会話時間とならない指示を出す（学生の能力範囲で話しても上達しない）。

Figure 3.2: Objectives of the One-on-one Instructional Session

Translation: “Individual teaching requires instructors to creatively design detailed, flexible lesson plans that clearly articulate how to introduce students to the given material in a way that helps them practice and retain what they are presented. Since students are required to dedicate one hour to prep/review every teaching session, instructors must always assign the materials necessary for each lesson. During class, materials should be reviewed based on students’ Japanese language proficiencies, language goals, and in-class utterances, and should be practiced to overcome areas of struggle. However, especially if students express an interest in learning about certain aspects [of language or culture], instructors are encouraged to give them the support that they need and tailor lesson plans accordingly. Instructors should also carefully allocate in-class time for material prep/review to facilitate student progress. Individual teaching is specifically a time to help students develop their Japanese proficiency by supporting their learning efforts. Instructors should thus provide clear instructions so as to avoid slipping into daily conversation (since students will not improve from conversing within their current language abilities).” (Translated by the researcher)

Each instructor assigned to one-on-one sessions is required to plan, modify, and carry out one-on-one sessions according to the above instructions. However, these diverse and somewhat conflicting pedagogical goals that the program demands complicate instructors’ task. Among the listed goals, one essential task, which the instructor explicitly states and often observably orients to during the one-on-one session, is reviewing newly learned materials, including vocabulary, grammatical structures, and the content of the textbook materials covered in the main class while focusing on any aspects in which the main lecturing instructor feels the learner needs more practice and review. The task during the session therefore requires instructors to design and make a “綿密な *menmitsuna*” (“detailed”) teaching plan in advance, as indicated in the document.

At the same time, the aforementioned document mentions that a one-on-one session lesson plan should be “柔軟な *juunanna*” (“flexible”) so as to accommodate each learner’s needs, goals, and aspects of the language in which they desire to improve. More specifically, the document indicates, “if students express an interest in learning about certain aspects [of language or culture], instructors are encouraged to give them the support that they need and tailor lesson plans accordingly.” Session instructors are thus asked to recognize and carry out their sessions

based not only on learners' needs and linguistic obstacles, but also on each learner's individual learning interests, which, needless to say, can be a difficult task. The document also emphasizes that one-on-one instructors' interactions with learners should always be pedagogically-driven in order to "avoid slipping into daily conversation," since, as implied, doing so would not allow learners to be challenged linguistically enough to improve their language skills. These are the expectations that the instructors are required to follow, and which largely guide the program's one-on-one instruction. However, as these objectives are many and can potentially conflict, how strictly instructors follow them and ultimately what actually occurs in each session varies depending on each instructor and each learner.

In the current data, there are two main types of teaching materials used by one-on-one instructors: the Japanese textbook and the conversational practice sheet. The textbook used by both of the one-on-one instructors in the current study is the intermediate-advance level Japanese textbook, *Tobira: Gateway to Advanced Japanese* (Oka et al., 2009). Course instructors communicate with one-on-one instructors via email or in-person about what has been covered during lecture classes, including relevant materials and textbook chapters, and whether there is something in particular that needs to be reviewed or practiced for each learner during the session. In this sense, the one-on-one instructional session can be considered an extension of the main lecture class in which each learner is provided more time and space to "practice and retain what they are presented" during class.

In addition to the textbook, another commonly used pedagogical material in this one-on-one session is the conversation practice sheet (Figure 3.3). While participating in this study abroad program, learners are given this sheet that provides topics, "can-do"-like statements, and expressions that they can utilize for practicing conversation with L1 speakers of Japanese. The

learners are then required to get signatures for a certain number of given topics or goals from different speakers or instructors in order to obtain full credit for this assignment, which counts towards their grade (see Figure 3.4). During the one-on-one session, learners and instructors frequently engage in practicing conversation based specifically on this practice sheet, a portion of which can be seen below.

Conversation practice (topics)	Usable expressions and phrases	Signature	
■ 会話練習	使える表現や 言葉	サイン	先生
① 「ルームメイトとの生活マニュアル」を作るために、ルームメイトに、日本の習慣との違いや困ったことについて準備した質問をすることができる。その時、相手の言ったことを確認したり、次の質問に続けたりすることができる。	Noun って？ ～けど。 えっ？、Noun？ ～というのは～？ (生活日本語)		
② 調べて準備をすれば、自分の町や日本の有名な観光地にある名所や名物について、少し詳しく紹介することができる。	建物、気温、名所、名物、楽しむ (とびら第1課)		

Figure 3.3: Conversation Practice Sheet

＜大学生／■ スタッフへ＞ 大学生 ■ は、留学生と練習する時に使える単語や文法表現の使用を勧め(表の中の幾つか選ぶ際、留学生が何を言いたいかで勧める使用表現を選んで下さい)、話し相手に適した自然な会話となる様に練習を手伝って下さい。■ スタッフは、先生方との確認ができる様に、会話の流れと表現を練習します。

Figure 3.4: Instructions to local students and the program staff members

Translation: “To university students/[program] staff: University students are urged to use [the given] grammar expressions and vocabulary when practicing [conversation] with exchange students. (When choosing several [vocabulary/grammar expressions] from the given chart, please urge exchange students to use those that help them express what they want to say.) Please try to help tailor your conversations to the exchange student in a natural way. [Program] staff will practice conversation flow and expressions [with exchange students] in order for them to receive signatures from teachers.” (Translated by the researcher)

In sum, one-on-one instructors are tasked with carrying out carefully planned lessons so as to effectively review materials covered in lecture classes and “avoid[ing] slipping into daily conversation,” all while maintaining the flexibility to respond to learners’ contingent needs and interests at a given moment of the interaction. Sessions are largely centered around two main teaching materials, the intermediate-advanced Japanese textbook and the conversation practice sheet. This process and these materials will be reflected in the analysis in the following chapters.

### **3.3. Participants**

The participants for this study were recruited through an in-person open-search announcement. This process began by my attendance of classes in the first week, during which I explained the purpose and procedure of the current research to all learners and distributed a questionnaire to gauge their interest in participating in the study. More specifically, I stated that the purpose of the study is to record interactions from different social contexts and investigate how learners conduct their learning in each distinct context. Initially, a total of seven learners from three different course levels (260, 320, and 420 levels) showed interest in being part of the research voluntarily and were thus selected as focal participants. These focal participants were all students from universities in the United States at the time (two of them were originally from China) and had taken some Japanese language courses at their university prior to the study abroad program. As explained below, since only two one-on-one instructors consented to participate in the study, the current data sets from the one-on-one session only captures interactions that involve four focal learners. Their demographic information and pseudonyms can be seen in Table 3.2 below. All four agreed to be audio-/video-recorded during the one-on-one instructional sessions without the presence of the researcher during the eight-week program.

Upon the completion of the data collection, each learner participant was given monetary compensation (\$150) for their participation. The focal learners were also asked to participate in semi-structured interviews with the researcher to obtain their demographic information.

**Table 3.2 Demographic Information about Focal Learner Participants**

Name	Level	Age	Gender	Nationality	1st Language	2 <sup>nd</sup> Language
1 Lisa	320	20	Female	U.S.	English	Japanese
2 Sara	320	19	Female	U.S.	English	Chinese
3 Emma	420	19	Female	U.S.	English	Japanese
4 Chen	420	19	Female	China	Chinese	English

In addition to the four focal learner participants, two female one-on-one session instructors consented to be video/audio-recorded for the sake of this study. The first instructor (Tea1) taught sessions for two focal learners in the 320-level course, Lisa and Sara. The second instructor (Tea2) covered sessions for the two other focal learners in the 420-level course, Emma and Chen. Tea1 had a couple of years of teaching experience as a one-on-one instructor in the program, whereas Tea2 was a new instructor, freshly graduated from an MA program in the United States before joining the program in 2019, which information was gathered when a consent was initially obtained. Further semi-structured interviews with the one-on-one instructors were not conducted, since instructors' accounts on their teaching beliefs and perceptions of the focal pedagogical setting were typically not used for CA analysis and thus deemed unnecessary. As will be discussed in Chapter 7, however, this is a limitation of the current study that needs to be reconsidered to some extent for future research.

### 3.4. Data

This study's data was collected in 2019 during the eight-week summer intensive course that the focal study abroad program offers from mid-June to the beginning of August. As explained earlier, the interactional data from different social contexts available during study abroad was collected as part of a larger research project. During the initial observation of the data from the one-on-one instructional session, however, some interactional phenomena caught my attention. These interactional phenomena, as I describe more below, appear to occur with recurring distinct practices. I found such practices worthy of in-depth analytical attention and thus decided to focus on the identified practices in this particular pedagogical context for my dissertation.

The primary data from the one-on-one instructional sessions was video-recorded data. As each learner was required to attend one-on-one sessions four times during the eight-week study abroad program, a total of 15 sessions (one session was not recorded successfully due to equipment failure) and approximately 15 hours of interactions were recorded without the presence of the researcher. Table 3.3 provides an overview of the recorded data from the one-on-one instructional sessions.

**Table 3.3 Overview of Data**

Date	Session#	Participants	Excerpts presented in the analysis
06.20.19	1 <sup>st</sup>	Tea1 – Sara	
06.25.19	1 <sup>st</sup>	Tea2 – Chen	Ch6. Exc3
06.25.19	1 <sup>st</sup>	Tea2 – Emma	
06.27.19	1 <sup>st</sup>	Tea1 – Lisa	Ch6. Exc2/ Ch6. Exc4/ Ch6. Exc6
07.03.19	2 <sup>nd</sup>	Tea2 – Chen	Ch5. Exc4
07.03.19	2 <sup>nd</sup>	Tea2 – Emma	Ch4. Exc5/ Ch5. Exc5
07.04.19	2 <sup>nd</sup>	Tea1 – Sara	Ch5. Exc3/ Ch6. Exc5
07.11.19	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Tea2 – Emma	
07.19.19	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Tea1 – Sara	Ch4. Exc3
07.23.19	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Tea2 – Chen	Ch5. Exc1
07.23.19	4 <sup>th</sup>	Tea2 – Emma	

07.25.19	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Tea1 – Lisa	Ch4.Exc1/ Ch4. Exc2/ Ch4. Exc4/ Ch5. Exc2
07.31.19	4 <sup>th</sup>	Tea1 – Sara	
08.02.19	4 <sup>th</sup>	Tea2 – Chen	
08.02.19	4 <sup>th</sup>	Tea1 – Lisa	

In addition to the recorded data, I gathered relevant documents from the program that were distributed to instructors. These documents include a program guideline and policy, program schedules for one-on-one sessions, student directories, and other pedagogical materials, such as conversational practice sheets for each course level. All documents were used to better understand the institutional setting within which the one-on-one instructional sessions are conducted. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, learners' demographic information was collected from information surveys collected at the beginning of the program as well as during semi-structured interviews.

In the current study, the collected ethnographic information was used only to the extent of a "limited affinity" (Maynard, 2003; p.65). That is, when analyzing the data, the ethnographic data is used as supplemental and complimentary only when relevant to CA-based analysis. More specifically, I use ethnographic data to describe the relevant social setting and relationship between participants to contextualize my analysis. In addition, and more importantly, the ethnographic information pertaining to the institutional settings is used in this study to better understand and analyze specific pedagogical activities and participants' practices observed in the data. Such information helps clarify the institutional goals to which the participants are oriented through their practices during the one-on-one instructional sessions. Furthermore, I also utilize ethnographic information relevant to the institutional objectives of the session in order to draw practical pedagogical implications based on the findings of the analysis, which will be discussed in Chapter 7.

### 3.5. Procedures for Analysis

This final section of this chapter describes the procedures through which I conducted an analysis of the collected data. As indicated in previous chapters, I employ ethnomethodological conversation analysis (EMCA) (e.g., Arminen, 2005; Heritage, 1984a; Kasper, 2006) to investigate the collected interactional data from the focal study abroad program. As based on the EMCA approach, the focus of the research is not necessarily concerned with what is being learned as a result of learning, but rather focuses on the systematic process through which participants make their orientation toward language forms relevant as situated concerns in a mutually recognizable manner through their actions. In order to access such participant-relevant, or *emic*, perspectives on L2 learning, CA research is always based on the recordings of naturally occurring interactions and the highly detailed transcriptions of the recordings. The current study also follows this process.

At the initial stage of analysis, I first viewed the video-recorded data repeatedly while taking notes on cases that caught my attention or appeared to be salient. This initial observation followed CA's conventional procedure of "unmotivated looking" (Sacks, 1984) to identify seemingly interesting phenomena that can be analyzed in more details. I then found that there are various moments in which participants orient to language forms with distinct interactional practices. This led me to determine the moments to which I paid more attention to collect cases for further analysis. More specifically, I paid special attention to moments in which participants displayed an observable orientation toward understanding, using, modifying, or correcting a particular linguistic form through their conduct, since such moments are considered to constitute learning opportunities for L2 learners in various CA-SLA studies (e.g., Brouwer 2003; Eskildsen & Theodorsdottir, 2018; Markee & Kasper 2004; Pekarek Doehler 2010; Theodorsdottir, 2018).

Among all the identified cases, there are some practices that especially caught my attention, since they exhibit distinct features or serve specific functions that are seemingly tied to the pedagogical goal of the session and/or have not been extensively examined through the lens of CA in previous studies. More specifically, I identified three distinct, recurring participant practices through which a particular language form or language-related concern is made relevant to the ongoing interaction: instructor-initiated elicitations, knowledge check questions, and learner-initiated form-focused practices.

Subsequently, I roughly transcribed the 15 hours of the collected data and investigated the transcribed database to identify all cases that resemble or encompass one of the three focal practices listed above. Table 3.4 shows the number of each focal practice that I identified in the current data.

**Table 3.4 Overview of Focal Practices**

Identified Practices	Number of Cases
1. Instructor-initiated repair	193
2. Instructor-initiated elicitation	121
3. Instructor-initiated knowledge check question	50
4. Learner-initiated form-focused practice	46
Total	410

Among all the cases ( $n = 410$ ) in which participants visibly and/or audibly orient to a specific language form, the most commonly observed practices were instructor-initiated repairs that concern a learner's inappropriate or erroneous use of language form ( $n = 193$ ). This category includes repair sequences initiated exclusively by instructors, which focus on various types of learners' linguistic and pragmatic errors and/or troubles in achieving intersubjectivity attributed to learners' specific language use. When these repair practices are conducted, instructors orient

toward either interactionally facilitating the correction of the learner's utterance or restoring the mutual understanding of the ongoing talk. These repair practices are also very common in language classrooms and have thus been extensively studied in previous CA-SLA studies (e.g., Gardner, 2013; Seedhouse, 2004; Sert & Amri, 2021; Stone, 2019).

The second most frequent were instructor-initiated elicitations ( $n = 121$ ). This elicitation practice differs from the typical instructor-initiated repair initiation in that it is not necessarily produced after a learner's inappropriate or erroneous language use. Rather, it is designed to specifically elicit a specific linguistic form that is introduced in the textbook or listed in the conversational practice sheet as a useful expression. As such, all elicitation practices identified in the current data display the instructor's emerging explicit or implicit orientation toward a language form – lexical items, grammar structures, or phrasal expressions – which is not necessarily lacking but could potentially have been used in the learner's preceding utterance. Although various elicitation practices are employed in language classrooms (e.g., Walsh, 2011), this identified elicitation practice that aims to solicit a specific language form from a learner has not been previously examined through the lens of CA (further details will be provided in Chapter 4). As this type of elicitation also seems to serve an integral pedagogical purpose under the current focal setting, the analysis of this identified practice should also be supported by and further interpreted via institutionally implemented pedagogical goals of the one-on-one sessions. More importantly, despite the fact that such elicitations share a seemingly singular purpose, how they are occasioned and accomplished appears to vary in the current data. I thus decided in my dissertation to investigate how the design and placement affect the way in which elicitations are interpreted and responded to by participants during the one-on-one sessions of this study.

Another recurring instructor-initiated practice that displays form-focused orientation was the knowledge check question. There were 50 cases of knowledge check questions identified in this study's database. As these practices are concerned with learners' knowledge status of a specific language item, they are often, although not always, placed right before and embedded in repair sequences. Furthermore, this practice is constituted by instructor-initiated questions that take a specific linguistic design. All identified questions of this kind in the current data are formed as "XX [ga] *wakarimasu ka?*" ("Do you understand/know XX?"). This type of question has been investigated in previous CA-SLA studies (e.g., Kim, 2017; Koole, 2010) and are also referred to as *epistemic status checks* (Sert, 2011, 2013) (further details in regard to the difference between knowledge check questions and epistemic status checks will be provided in Chapter 5). However, unlike similar practices studied in the previous research, knowledge check questions identified in this study's one-on-one sessions are always concerned with linguistic knowledge, including lexical meaning, grammatical terms, or metalinguistic knowledge. One of my analytical chapters thus aims to contribute to this line of research on the interactional treatment of L2 knowledge in language class by examining this type of question in the one-on-one sessions as an *epistemic status check* (Sert, 2011, 2013) and explicating the way in which participants negotiate, display, and make language-related knowledge relevant to the session.

In addition to instructor-initiated form-focused practices, I also found some instances in my data in which learners initiate a form-focused sequence (n = 46). Of those cases, most were either learner-inserted, explicit metalinguistic questions (e.g., Ahn, 2016; Kivik, 2012) or learner-initiated word search sequences on language item(s) with rising intonation which serve as an explicit confirmation check (e.g., Brouwer, 2003; Hosoda, 2006; Sert & Amri, 2021). However, there were other seemingly unique cases (n=14) in which learners self-repair part of

their previous utterance in such a way that attempts to produce or incorporate something linguistically different but does not overtly seek confirmation or assistance from the instructor. I refer to such cases as an *embedded linguistic try* and, in a following chapter, examine how differently such implicit attempts are dealt with interactionally by instructors depending on sequential placement and design.

I then created detailed line-by-line transcripts of all excerpts that fall into one of the three focal practices, using CA transcription conventions developed by Jefferson (2004). Whenever relevant and important to the analysis, I further include and describe in these transcripts the participants' visual images that illustrate embodied actions (gesturing, gazing, postures, facial expressions, etc.). For the current data, most conversations are originally in Japanese. My transcripts, therefore, consist of three lines: the first captures the original Japanese utterances produced by participants, the second provides a word-by-word gloss, and the third represents an approximate English translation.

After creating these transcripts, I re-analyzed them line-by-line to solidify the three focal practices identified above and further organized distinct cases based on patterns that emerge with a line-by-line analysis. The target practices were analyzed in respect to the components with which the participants' actions were designed and the sequential environment in which they were conducted. The excerpts presented in each following analytical chapter are those that are either representative cases and most clearly exhibit each identified pattern or deviant cases that illustrate an alternate pattern from the exemplary cases and require special analytical attention.

### 3.6. Summary

In this chapter, I have explained the focal pedagogical setting, the relevant background information of the collected data, and the procedure through which the data was analyzed. Section 3.2 presented the pedagogical context, the one-on-one instructional session, and described its institutional characteristics and objectives. Section 3.3 then introduced the participants of the study, and Section 3.4 described the collected data. Finally, Section 3.5 laid out the analytical procedure through which I identified, categorized, transcribed, and examined focal practices and cases. In the following three analytical chapters, I will present my analysis of the focal cases for each identified practice, which to reiterate include *elicitations*, *epistemic status checks*, and *embedded linguistic tries*.

## Chapter 4

### Explicit and Implicit Elicitations in the One-on-one Instructional Sessions

#### 4.1. Introduction

One of the distinctive features of one-on-one instructional sessions that differentiates them from the typical language classroom setting is the absence of presentational materials, such as PowerPoint slides or visually-aided instruction. Instead, one-on-one session instructors utilize only minimum resources, including the textbook and a conversation topic sheet. This suggests that, during one-on-one sessions, the participants need to demonstrate their individual understandings of the trajectory of the session, or “what to do,” through the progression of their interaction. In other words, the ways in which the instructor and learner negotiate their understood goals of the session largely depends on a type of communication and instruction that depends on active verbal and non-verbal cues. Consequently, every conduct that participants display becomes a significant component in the navigation and accomplishment of the session’s pedagogical goal(s). Therefore, the way in which participants structure the one-on-one interaction notably affects how a pedagogical objective is displayed, interpreted, and achieved. One type of action through which instructors may display their pedagogical objective and organize a pedagogical sequence is *elicitation*, or the attempt to prompt a particular response from a learner.

Among the several pedagogical objectives that instructors try to accomplish during the one-on-one instructional sessions, an observably pursued common pedagogical goal is to have learners engage in meaning-focused tasks (e.g., answering comprehension questions, sharing personal opinions/stories, practicing everyday-like conversation) while encouraging them to

incorporate recently learned specific language forms (from textbook vocabulary/grammar lists or the phrases list on the conversation practice sheet) into expressions of intended meaning. To accomplish this rather complex goal, instructors utilize elicitation practices. Although elicitation can be defined differently depending on the study, in the current chapter, it specifically refers to a practice through which an instructor observably orients to soliciting a particular linguistic form from a learner, regardless of the presence of linguistic and/or pragmatic necessity or inappropriateness. In other words, through this practice, an instructor attempts to structurally prompt a learner to incorporate a particular linguistic form into their utterance. This elicitation practice also reflects and is shaped by the principal institutional goal, which is to promote the “retention” of newly learned or need-to-be-learned language through “practice.” Since soliciting a particular linguistic form presumes existing relevant knowledge, elicitation practices embody “reviewing” sessions, indicated as a pedagogical agenda in the study abroad program’s instructional document. In the forthcoming analysis, the identification of this elicitation practice is grounded in the way in which an instructor either explicitly states the form that she expects the learner to incorporate in their response and/or sequentially pursues the solicitation of a particular linguistic form that is listed in the textbook or on the conversation practice sheet.

This chapter aims to explicate the use of this elicitation practice in one-on-one sessions with a focus specifically on certain sequences in which an instructor attempts to solicit a pre-determined linguistic form from a learner. Further, it examines how the instructor uses this elicitation to initiate/insert and organize pedagogical sequences during particular sessions. The goal of this chapter is thus twofold: 1) to explicate the ways in which instructors formulate and place an elicitation to prompt responses from learners that incorporate a particular linguistic form or response, and 2) to demonstrate how the design and implementation of an elicitation

influences the ways in which participants construct a subsequent pedagogical sequence. In doing so, this chapter aims to empirically show the sequentially emerging shift between form-focused and meaning-focused orientations and further argue that, although not impossible, there are structural difficulties in accomplishing both form-focused and meaning-focused sequences simultaneously.

A detailed illustration of how elicitation is implemented by an instructor and understood or interpreted by a learner bears significant pedagogical implications. Knowing precisely how the design and placement of an elicitation structurally influences the establishment of intersubjectivity between an instructor and a learner has the potential to raise language educators' and trainees' awareness of how their conduct facilitates or hinders language learning. This then further illuminates the importance of setting clear class or session objectives and informs the ways in which pedagogical objectives can be accomplished most effectively through a deliberate structuring of interactions.

## **4.2. Literature Review**

In language pedagogy, teachers utilize various methods to organize their interactions with students so as to achieve specific pedagogical goals. One-on-one instructional sessions that appear in the current data are also largely pedagogically-oriented. In other words, instructors' actions during these sessions are designed to organize interactional sequences fundamentally for the purpose of students learning the target language. As specified by the study abroad program's policy of objectives for the tutoring sessions appearing in this study, instructors are expected to design one-on-one interactions that "avoid slipping into daily conversation." This explicit instruction suggests that interactions in the one-on-one context are necessarily instructional or, in

the program's terms, "goal-oriented" to "help [learners] practice and retain what they are presented [in the lecture class]." This suggests that the study abroad program defines "learning," at least that which occurs during individual sessions, as "retention (*teichaku*)" of newly learned or need-to-be-learned language through "practice (*renshū*)." In order to achieve these institutional tasks, instructors in one-on-one sessions organize interactions in ways to guide learners to perform the task of producing and incorporating a previously learned linguistic form in a communicative manner in order to facilitate retention and, therefore, L2 learning. For that pedagogical goal, the elicitation practice functions as a choice of action for instructors to accomplish these tasks.

These acts of elicitation, which are one among various actions that instructors perform to achieve specific pedagogical goals, are the focus of this chapter. To clarify, in the current chapter, elicitation specifically refers to a practice through which an instructor observably orients to explicitly or implicitly soliciting a particular linguistic form from a learner. Essentially, the purpose of this elicitation practice is to have learners incorporate a previously learned linguistic form that they otherwise might not use during their meaning-making processes. This practice thereby accomplishes an integral aspect of the pedagogical objectives enforced by the study abroad program, which is to push learners to produce an elicited language item in the form of a vocalized utterance. This, the program's instructional policy suggests, exemplifies a form of "practice." Sequences initiated and organized via elicitation practices are, thus, largely goal-oriented in the sense that they clearly define the institutional roles of each instructor and learner and ultimately establish "classroom-ness" or "formality" (Atkinson, 1982) as a fundamental part of the institutionalized setting.

Institutional talk of any kind, including one-on-one instructional sessions, can be understood and described based on the notion of “formality,” or the extent to which an interaction is pre-structured in a given institutional setting (Atkinson, 1982). Interactions that occur during the one-on-one instructional sessions in this study fall somewhere in between a formal and non-formal spectrum of formality. While the format of one-on-one sessions is structurally more flexible than a lecture class, the fact that an instructor’s actions explicitly or implicitly display a pedagogical agenda makes it more formal than, for example, a conversation table. Therefore, the present chapter explores how the design and placement of elicitation shapes the malleability of this formality, or the degree to which a given interaction is focused on form.

Form-focused instruction involves different types of interactions, which vary in terms of how a language form is focused on within a given interaction. Although what constitutes as a form-focused interaction is defined differently by various scholars, broadly speaking it can be classified into the following two types: incidental and planned (Doughty & Williams 1998; Ellis, 2001). This chapter focuses on planned form-focused interactions, which do not always involve the corrective feedback of interactions. The goal of planned form-focused interaction is for a learner to use a pre-determined linguistic form in their utterance in a meaningful way (Ellis, 2001, 2003). Unlike those unfocused tasks, therefore, planned form-focused interactional tasks have both a communicative goal as well as focused linguistic objectives.

During such form-focused communicative tasks, even when a learner’s utterance does not contain an overt linguistic error, the L1 speaker/instructor may indicate a lack of a target linguistic item and/or pursue an elicitation of the particular linguistic item. This type of interaction is especially important for upper-immediate or advanced-level learners, who, due to their existent ability to communicate effectively with a fixed set of linguistic resources, are not

easily pushed out of their comfort zones. Engaging in planned form-focused interaction can thus purposefully and effectively push these learners to use new language forms while centering on a meaning-oriented task, which supposedly facilitates the progression of their L2 learning (e.g., Farley, 2004; Swain, 1985; Toth, 2006). More recent studies have also shown that prompted output production facilitates the processing of the intake and the consolidation of newly learned L2 knowledge (Leow, 2015; Zalbidea, 2021). In order for this type of learning to occur, elicitation practices are necessary and become integral. While reactive feedback in the form of repair has also been extensively investigated in previous CA studies (e.g., Eskildsen & Markee, 2018; Fasel Lauzon & Pekarek Doehler, 2013; Gardner, 2008; Lee, 2007; Seedhouse, 2004; Waring, 2008), however, elicitation practices used in planned, form-focused interactions has yet to be thoroughly examined previously. The type of elicitation that examined in the current chapter is, thus, not that which is used as reactive negative feedback targeting linguistic errors, but rather that which is used to elicit responses that contain a supposedly pre-determined (form-focused) linguistic item.

It is then important to ask, what does it mean to focus on form while participating in a meaning-focused communicative task? And how exactly do we, as language educators, want learners to use specific target language while engaging in a supposedly communicative task? This issue of simultaneous “dual focus” of form and meaning has also been qualitatively inquired in some previous studies (e.g., Fasel Lauzon & Pekarek Doehler, 2013; Pawlak, 2005; Seedhouse, 1997). However, these studies, as mentioned above, only focus on and explicate how corrective feedback is issued in a way that maintains the progression of the meaning-focused activity or communication. Furthermore, as shown in Cimenli & Sert’s study (2017) that examines an instructors’ use of “embedded correction” (e.g., Brouwer et al., 2004) in the

“meaning-and-fluency” context (Seedhouse, 2004), such implicit corrections do not always lead to a joint focus on form and sometimes remain unattended by learners. The implicitly inserted elicitation practices observed in the current data set, however, often become explicit as the sequence unfolds, even when not initially responded to as an elicitation by a learner. Hence, elicitation practices are further pursued and turned into a learning opportunity. In order to fill in the gap in qualitative research on these types of elicitation practices, the current study examines how they are employed during the one-on-one instructional sessions in the study abroad context. Furthermore, an analysis of this type of elicitation has certain potential to provide language educators with practical guidelines that empirically demonstrate the potential consequences of carrying out such elicitation practices implicitly during communicative tasks.

The following analysis closely examines the use of elicitation in examples of planned form-focused sequences found within my data and aims to address the following guiding questions:

- 1) How do instructors design and sequentially place elicitation practices in specific ways to prompt a learner to incorporate a particular language form into their utterances while accomplishing communicative tasks?
- 2) How do the design and placement of elicitation influence the ways in which a subsequent sequence unfolds and is co-constructed by participants?

### **4.3. Analysis**

In the following analysis, selected segments are examined in the order of the explicitness of the way in which elicitation is implemented, from very explicit to less explicit. In each segment, analysis focuses on a different type of elicitation employed, and the explicitness of the



- 3Tea1: ataeru, ukeru,  
give receive  
“...[but] ‘[eikyoo] ataeru’ and ‘[eikyoo] ukeru’...”
- 4 [mo, tsukatte,  
as.well use.and  
“...as well.”
- 5Lisa: [hai  
okay  
“Okay.”  
  
ha[i  
okay  
“Okay.”
- 7Tea1: [mitai (.) to omoi[masu.  
try.want QT think  
“That is the plan.”
- 8Lisa: hai.  
okay  
“okay.”
- 9Tea1: un, hai.  
mm-hm okay  
“Mm-hm, okay.”
- 10 sate:, jaa:, u::nto, nihon- chotto shitsumon desu ne.  
so then Japan little question Cop. FP  
“So, um, has Japanese-- I’m going to ask you a question, okay?”
- 11Lisa: hai  
okay  
“Okay.”
- 12Tea1: nihon no poppukaruchaa wa,  
Japan LK pop.culture Top  
“Has Japanese pop culture”
- 13Lisa: hai  
yes  
“Yes”
- 14Tea1: samazamana kuni no,  
many countries LK  
“[upon] many other countries”
- 15Lisa: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 16Tea1: eetto, keizai ya, bunka ni, eikyoo o ataemashita ka?  
um economy and culture to. influence O give:PST Q  
“[Has Japanese pop culture] bestowed influence um, upon economies or cultures?”

- 17Lisa: hai, nihon no popukaruchaa wa:  
yes Japan LK pop.culture Top  
“Yes, Japanese pop culture has,”
- 18 etto, samazamana kuni no (0.2) fasshon ya: ongaku ya:  
um many countries LK fashion and music and  
“um, bestowed influence upon many other countries’ fashion, music, and,”
- 19 etto: geemu, (0.7) ni, (0.3) eikyoo o, ataemashita.  
uhm game to influence O give:PST  
“um, games.”
- 20Tea1: hai, ((unintelligible))  
okay  
“Okay.”
- 21Lisa: atae(.)teimasu.  
give:ASP/NPST  
“Is bestowing influence.”
- 22Tea1: a, un un un, ima mo ataeteimasu.  
oh yes yes yes now also give:ASP/NPST  
“Oh, uh-huh, it is still bestowing influence today.”
- 23Lisa: hai.  
yes  
“Yes.”
- 24Tea1: hai, ii desu ne.  
okay good Cop FP  
“Okay, great.”

Before asking a text-based comprehension question (lines 12-16), the instructor verbally lays out what she intends to elicit in the following sequence by explaining that “Today, in addition to the word ‘influence,’ I am thinking we could also use ‘give’ and ‘receive’” (lines 1-7). After this pre-elicitation sequence, the instructor first produces a pre-question (line 10) and later formulates an actual question as elicitation based on the textbook reading (lines 12-16) to initiate the IRE sequence. This question contains the targeted phrase “*eikyoo*” (“influence”) combined with “*ataeru*” (“give”) (line 16). Lisa then responds to the question, using the combined verb “*eikyoo o ataemashita*” (line 19), to which the instructor first provides an acknowledgement (line 20). In line 21, Lisa then repairs the last verb form from the past tense to the progressive form. To this,

the instructor utters “yes, yes, yes, to date, [it] has been influencing” (line 22), thereby accepting Lisa’s repaired answer and displaying her understanding by adding “even now” to the ending part of Lisa’s response. In line 24, then, the instructor provides a positive assessment by uttering, “That’s good,” closing the sequence. The instructor’s pre-elicitation question sequence, therefore, appears to be the most explicit way, in the current data, to mark the targeted linguistic form to be solicited and further prompt the learner to incorporate the targeted form into their response to the asked question related to the content of the textbook.

The insertion of the pre-elicitation sequence clearly projects a trajectory of the following sequence. That is, it sets the primary purpose of the upcoming question and clarifies the goal of the subsequent sequence. In this case, the instructor is not asking a question just for the sake of obtaining or just checking text-based information from the learner. Rather, asking a question functions as a suitable means through which the instructor achieves a pedagogical objective, namely to solicit the target form from a learner to be practiced, reviewed, and assessed. This pedagogical objective is also explicitly stated and thus shared with the learner at the beginning of the sequence. This excerpt thus showcases a sequence that is called “form-and-accuracy” sequence (Seedhouse, 2004), in which both an instructor and a learner are oriented toward producing a form-focused utterance as a pedagogical objective. In fact, in terms of meaning, the learner responds to the instructor’s question by almost repeating most of it, with only slight modifications. The entire IRE sequence hence appears to be rather mechanical, involving almost no development or elaboration on the content of the question or reading. In addition, in the excerpt’s third turn (line 24), the instructor produces a simple positive confirmation that orients to the form and accuracy of Lisa’s response rather than its meaning. This allows the instructor to close the current sequence and quickly move on to the next one without further following up on



- 18 eego ni honyaku::sare: hajimemashita ka?  
English to translate:PASS start:PST Q  
“About how many years ago, uh, did Japanese stories, mo- manga  
begin to be translated into English?”
- 19 (0.7)
- 20Lisa: nan nen mae(h) kara:(h)  
How many ago from  
“How many years ago?”
- 21Tea1: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 22Lisa: ee:to:::: (0.3)  
uh  
“Uh...”
- 23 wa:karimase[n  
I.don't.know  
“I don't know.”
- 24Tea1: [un, kaitearimasen ne  
yes being.written FP  
“Yes, it's not written [here].”
- 25 to omo[imasu ka?  
QT think Q  
“[What do] you think?”
- 26Lisa: [oh  
oh  
“Oh.”
- 27 a, to omoimasu ka  
oh QT think. Q  
“Oh, [what do] I think.”
- 28Tea1: °hai°  
yes  
“Yes.”
- 29Lisa: u::n, watashi wa:, (0.8) u:::n,  
I Top  
“Hmm, I, hmm...”
- 30 (3.5)
- 31 uu::n sanjuugo nen mae, ni honyaku o  
Thirty.five years ago in translation O  
“Hmm, thirty-five years ago is when”
- 32 (1.2)
- 33 °sareteimasu° sareteiru to omoimasu.

- do:PASS/ASP/NPST do:PASS/ASP/NPST QT think  
 “they are translated, I think.”
- 34Tea1: aa::::  
 oh  
 “Oh:::”
- 35 (0.9)
- 36Lisa: °honyaku o° (0.5) sareteita to omoimasu.  
 translation O do:PASS/PST QT think  
 “They were translated, I think.”
- 37 (0.6)
- 38Tea1: hai. tabun ee- sanjuugo nen gurai mae.  
 yes probably thirty.five years about ago  
 “Yes, probably, uh, about thirty-five years ago.”
- 39 (0.8)
- 40Lisa: °sanjuugo nen gurai mae°  
 thirty.five years about ago  
 “About thirty years ago.”
- 41Tea1: °hai°  
 yes  
 “Yes.”
- 42Lisa: °hai°  
 yes  
 “Yes.”
- 43Tea1: un, ii desu ne:. watashi mo hakkiri wa wakarima:[sen  
 good Cop FP I also clearly TOP I.dont.know  
 “Mm-hm, good. I’m not sure exactly [when] myself.”
- 44Lisa: [hhh]
- 45Tea1: hai.  
 okay  
 “Okay.”
- 46 de, ima hajimeru tte iu no o  
 so now start QT say N O  
 “So now I wanted to review”
- 47 chotto fukushuu shitakatta n desu ne.  
 little review want.to.do:PST N Cop FP  
 “the word *hajimeru*(to begin).”
- 48Lisa: aa:  
 oh  
 “Oh.”
- 49Tea1: honyaku:? sare:?

- translate      PASS  
 “Begin to-”
- 50Lisa:      sarehajime- (0.6) sare (1.6) sarehajime<sup>o</sup>masu<sup>o</sup>  
 start:PASS                      PASS                      start:PASS/NPST  
 “Begin to be- to be- begin to be translated.”
- 51Tea1:      [subarashii]  
 excellent  
 “Excellent.”
- 52Lisa:      [sare-                      ]sarehajimemashita.  
 PASS                      start:PASS/PST  
 “Began to be translated.”
- 53Tea1:      hai.  
 yes  
 “Yes.”

In lines 15 to 18, the instructor asks a content-related question based on the textbook reading about when manga started being translated into English. To this question, Lisa replies, “I don’t know” (line 23). In the following turn, the instructor then utters, “It is not written [here],” while putting her hands over the textbook, suggesting that the answer is not in the textbook. The instructor then proceeds, “[What do] you think?” (“*to omoimasu ka?*”) (line 25), which uses the quotative marker *to* at the beginning of the utterance, thereby syntactically connecting the current utterance to the previous ones (lines 15-18) and reformulating them into a different format. This clarifies in this turn that the instructor is asking a referential question (Long & Sato, 1983) through which she is seeking Lisa’s personal opinions on the given topic. Having understood this as such, Lisa responds in lines 29 to 33 that she thinks that manga started being translated into English thirty-five years ago. In the third turn in line 34, the instructor utters, “*aa:::*”, providing an acknowledgement token but withholding any further assessment or comment on Lisa’s response, which results in a relatively long pause (line 35). Given this pause where a form of evaluation could have been provided by the instructor, Lisa subsequently reformulates the verb from her previous utterance into the past tense (line 36). This repair displays her orientation to the form of her response, which further shows that she understands the pause (line 35) and lack

of uptake by the instructor as an indication that her utterances contain some issues and needs reformation. After this repair attempt, the instructor utters, “Yes, probably, about thirty-five years ago” (line 38). It should be noted here that this instructor’s display of her understanding of Lisa’s response is syntactically incomplete. This incomplete utterance is then followed by another pause (line 39), to which Lisa responds by repeating what the instructor has said in line 38 at a lower volume. The instructor then utters, “Yes, that’s good. I also don’t know [when] exactly” (line 43), finally providing a positive evaluation and also displaying her alignment toward Lisa’s response. Lisa produces a laughter to this, responding to the fact that even the instructor does not know the answer (line 44). The instructor then further comments, “So I wanted to review the word *hajimeru* (to start)” (lines 46-47), which turns the once implicit objective of this pedagogical sequence into one that is explicit.

At this point, it has become clear that the first question, which appears solely to be a referential question, is simultaneously an implicit means through which the instructor aims to draw the word *hajimeru* from Lisa. By withholding the third-turn positive evaluation in line 35, the instructor leaves the interactional space through which the learner can expand or repair her utterance. The silence (line 35) then plays a significant role in promoting the learner to reformulate her utterance and incorporate the target form. In fact, Lisa’s reformulated utterance (line 36) displays that she interpretes the silence (line 35) as an implicit indicator that her previous response is somehow inadequate in the given sequence and needs to be repaired. This technique of withholding the third turn positive assessment is also observed in previous studies, in which the instructor withholds applause or repeats part of learner’s response until the learner produces an utterance that incorporates the word or phrase that the instructor has previously introduced in the class (e.g., Hosoda & Aline, 2010). The instructor’s partial repetition of Lisa’s

response (line 38), which syntactically leaves the final verb component incomplete, thus also appears to function as an attempt to further elicit the targeted lexical item. However, despite these attempts, Lisa does not utilize the lexical item in the respective following turn. Therefore, the instructor is pushed to temporarily close the IRE sequence and explicitly identify the target form she wishes to review.

After the target form has been made explicit, the instructor utters, “*Honyakusare...*” (“...to be translated”) (line 49), which can be understood as a “designedly incomplete utterance,” or DIU (Koshik, 2002), that prompts Lisa to complete the rest on her own. In response, Lisa utters, “*Sarehajimemasu*” (“begins to be translated”) (line 50), which correctly combines the targeted lexicon with the given utterance, thereby receiving the instructor’s applause accompanied by a positive evaluation.

Here, it is necessary to highlight two main points. First, the instructor uses a referential question as a means to solicit a particular linguistic item. This suggests that, although the question appears to be open-ended and seeking a personal opinion from the learner, the instructor simultaneously pursues a hidden pedagogical agenda, which is to prompt the learner to incorporate the targeted linguistic form into her response. However, this imposes a complex task on the learner’s end. That is, the learner needs to respond to the referential question while simultaneously “decoding” what to incorporate linguistically into her response.

Furthermore, whenever the instructor provides a third-turn response that is not straightforward, the learner is sequentially put into the position where she must figure out to what exactly the instructor is orienting. For instance, after Lisa first repairs the linguistic aspects of her initial response to the referential question, the instructor utters, “Yes, probably about thirty-five years ago” (line 38). This utterance is ambiguous in terms of its precise role and

purpose in the given sequential environment. On the one hand, the first part of the utterance seems to acknowledge and show the instructor's understanding of Lisa's response. On the other hand, its syntactic incompleteness obscures the reason as to why the instructor is partially repeating Lisa's response, which allows room for different possible interpretations. One possible interpretation is that the instructor's utterance is a repair initiation of Lisa's "thirty-five years ago" or some other linguistic aspect of her response. In this case, it would be understood as an orientation to either meaning or form of the utterance. Lisa's repetition of this utterance in the subsequent turn (line 40) seems to display her confusion as to what to do next in response. It only becomes apparent through the instructor's explicit explanation in later sequences that she has been attempting to elicit the form "*hajimeru*" (to start). Significantly, the way in which this elicitation is designed and placed obscures this pedagogical orientation until the very end, making it difficult for the learner to respond.

Second, this excerpt illustrates that the pursuit of the targeted word is sequentially accomplished as the design of elicitation becomes incrementally explicit. This also implies that the instructor's pedagogical expectation is to elicit the targeted word from the learner as implicitly and "naturally" as possible, without overt intervention. However, despite this attempt, it is precisely this orientation to implicitly pursue a pedagogical goal that halts the flow the interaction and turns the interaction into a formal one. Being implicit about the pedagogical goal of the interaction does not necessarily equate with constructing the interaction as less pedagogical. Withholding a third-turn assessment or uptake without any specific indications as to its reason, especially after a referential question, reflexively indicates an occurrence of some form of an issue. Furthermore, the potential problem in this interaction lies in this very implicitness. That is, when the flow of the interaction is withheld by the instructor without any

specification as to why, the learner is forced to interpret the reason from different possibilities. Possible reasons may include problems with the content of the given response, fundamental intersubjectivity, issues of language form(s), and/or deviancy from pedagogical objectives. Regardless of the intention of the instructor, it is necessary to recognize that pedagogically-driven conduct, such as implicit attempts to elicit a target form, can be interpreted in various ways, depending on how it is designed and placed. Especially in a situation where such sequence is initiated by a meaning-oriented question and where participants' conduct is the only resource that can indicate the trajectory of the ongoing interaction, implicit elicitation needs to be implemented cautiously in order to minimize potential confusion that can interfere with the interaction's progression.

### 4.3.3. Embedded Elicitation

The next excerpt demonstrates a case in which an instructor uses an embedded elicitation in the third turn that becomes relevant after the question-answer adjacency pair. Unlike the previous case of implicit elicitation, the embedded elicitation in the current case performs both a sequentially relevant action as well as a pedagogical one. This discrepancy is significant in that, unlike implicit pedagogical elicitations, the embedded elicitation seen in this example projects somewhat of a trajectory for the next relevant action, thereby propelling the flow of the interaction forward. Before the excerpt below, the learner, Sara, has answered a text-based question by the instructor in regard to the Japanese tradition in which people go to a shrine to pray for their children's health.

Excerpt3

1Teal: chuugoku de, kono yoona- konna: gyooji wa arimasu ka?  
 China in. this kind this.kind event Top exist Q  
 "In China, is there this kind of practice?"

2Sara: chuugoku::: de wa, ano: gyooji ga (0.3) nai to omoimasu.

- China in Top. FLR event S. exist:Neg QT think  
 “In China, um, there is no [such] practice, I think.”
- 3 (1.0)
- 4Teal1: aa: kodomo ga: genkini sodatsu yooni:,  
 oh children S healthy grow.up in.order.to  
 “Oh, there is no practice of praying so that”
- 5 inoru gyooji wa naidesu ka?  
 pray event Top exist:Neg Q  
 “one’s children grow up healthy?”
- 6Sara: hai, ano: kodo- kodomo- genkini sodatsu yooni,  
 yes well children. healthy grow.up in.order.to  
 “No, um, there is no practice of praying so that”
- 7 inoru: (.) gyooji ga (.) nai to omoimasu.  
 pray event S exist:Neg QT think  
 “one’s chil- children grow up healthy.”
- 8Teal1: soo na n desu ne:  
 so CopN Cop FP  
 “I see.”

Immediately after providing a positive assessment to the learner’s response to the previous question, the instructor asks another question, this time concerning whether such tradition exists in Sara’s birthplace of China (line 1). Sara then responds by saying, “In China, there is no [such] practice, I think” (line 2). In the subsequent turn, there is a relatively long pause where the instructor could insert a positive assessment but does not. She then utters, “So...there no such practice where people pray for their children’s health?” (lines 4-5). To this question, Sara provides a longer version of her previous answer by saying, “Yes, there is no such practice where [people] pray for children’s well-being, I think (lines 6-7). The instructor then provides an acknowledgement by saying, “I see (*soo na n desu ne*),” thereby closing the sequence. The *n desu* part of the instructor’s utterance (line 8) indicates that she receives the response from Sara as something newsworthy (Nakano, 2009; Wang, 2010), which is indicative of the instructor’s orientation toward the content of Sara’s response rather than to the form.

Here, it should be noted that the instructor's utterance (lines 4-5) serves several functions. First, it displays the instructor's understanding of Sara's response to the question. Second, since it is designed as a question, the utterance serves the purpose of seeking confirmation of Sara's understanding, thereby making the next turn relevant for her to respond. Third, and the most importantly, the instructor's utterance evidently functions as an elicitation of a modified response from Sara. Although it is not clear whether or not this elicitation is targeting a specific linguistic item, the way that Sara responds to it in lines 6-7 indicates that she understands it as an elicitation of a modified response. After the instructor's confirmation question in lines 4-5, Sara could have provided a simple "yes." However, she instead modifies her previous response into a longer utterance that mirrors the instructor's question. This seemingly superfluous modification is indicative of Sara's interpretation of the instructor's utterance in lines 4-5 as an elicitation. In other words, Sara orients herself to the sequentially emerging pedagogical orientation, which is to use newly learned linguistic items as much as possible in her response. In fact, the word "yooni" ("so that") has been the pedagogical concern that the two participants focused on in the previous sequences during the same session. This excerpt thus illustrates that the instructor's third-turn confirmation question displays the shift in orientation from meaning-focused to form-focused, while superficially maintaining meaning-oriented sequences. This shift in focus is then co-attended and accomplished by the way the learner responds to the question.

The elicitation in this excerpt differs from the previous two cases in that it is embedded in the question that serves different functions. As a result, the utterance does not explicitly indicate which linguistic item is being called for or that it is eliciting a target form. In other words, the learner's answer does not only respond in a way that corresponds to the confirmation question but also orients to the pedagogical purpose of the confirmation question. This further implies that

the learner performs the act of “doing being a foreign language learner” by constructing the sequence as a pedagogical one when responding to the instructor’s second question in lines 4-5 (Mori & Hasegawa, 2009). Notably, the entire sequence appears to be a meaning-oriented interaction on the structural level, for it is initiated by a referential question and closed by the instructor’s recipient token that takes Sara’s response as newsworthy information. This is enabled by the embedded way in which the instructor implements and the learner responds to the elicitation. In this excerpt, therefore, the learner appears to be doing “being a foreign language learner” while engaging in a form-focused interaction disguised as a meaning-focused one.

#### 4.3.4. Sequentially Organized Elicitation

The following analysis examines a case in which the instructor sequentially structures the interaction in order to elicit a specific answer from the learner. Similarly to the previous excerpt, the instructor embeds an elicitation into a confirmation question. However, in the current excerpt, the way in which the instructor organizes the form-focused sequence appears to structurally influence the learner’s meaning-making process.

The following excerpt is taken from another interaction between instructor Teal and learner Lisa. At the beginning, the instructor prefaces the initiation of a new sequence with an indication of her desire to return to the IRE cycle of interaction (line 1) and asking whether she may ask Lisa a question (line 3). As will be shown in the space below, the instructor’s pedagogical goal of this given sequence appears to be to elicit the lexical item “*kikkake*.” This lexical item can sometimes be roughly translated as “a primary *reason*,” but to be more precise, it should be translated more as “a key *event* that has inspired someone to do something.” The following analysis aims to demonstrate how the instructor’s orientation to this pedagogical goal is displayed, understood, and co-oriented by

the learner Lisa, who is placed in a situation where she must figure out this sequentially emerging pedagogical task as the interaction unfolds.

Excerpt4

- 1Teal: soredewa: modoritai n desu keredomo:  
so want.return N Cop but  
“So, I would like to go back.”
- 2 (10.0) (turning pages of the textbook)
- 3 hai, hitotsu kikitai n desu kedo:  
yes one want.ask N Cop but  
“Yes, and I would like to ask you something.”
- 4Lisa: hai  
okay  
“Okay.”
- 5Teal: jaa, u::nto Lisa san wa:  
so FLR Lisa Ms. Top  
“So, um, Lisa,”
- 6 ee::to, (0.2) itsu kara benkyoo shihajime==  
uhm when from study do.start  
“Um, (0.2) since when did you start studyi-”
- 7 =nihongo o ha- ha- naraihajimeta n desu ka?  
Japanese O learn.start N Cop Q  
“stu- stu- studying Japanese?”
- 8 (3.0)
- 9Lisa: watashi wa: chiisai toki ni: (0.6)  
I Top small when at  
“When I was small,”
- 10 chotto okaasan to hanashiteimashita ga:  
a.little mother with speak:ASP/PST but  
“I spoke a little with my mom, but”
- ... ((7 lines omitted))
- 18 daigakusei (.) de- (1.5) hajimete narai- (0.2)  
college.student when first.time learn  
“as a college student, I first lear-”
- 19 shinkenni naraihajimeta to- toki wa, ichinen mae desu.  
seriously learn.start:PST when Top one.year ago Cop  
“I began to learn in earnest and th- that was a year ago.”
- 20Teal: a, ichinen mae na n desu [ne:

- oh one.year ago Cop N Cop FP  
 “Oh, a year ago?”
- 21Lisa: [hai  
 yes  
 “Yes.”
- 22Tea1: hai, sore wa: (0.4) naraihajimemashita.  
 okay that Top learn.start:PST  
 “Okay, that is when you began to learn.”
- 23Lisa: un  
 mm-hm  
 “Mm-hm.”
- 24Tea1: nihongo o hajimeta kikkake; wa: okaasan no eikyoo desu ka?  
 Japanese O start:PST reason Top mother LK influence Cop Q  
 “Was your mother’s influence the reason you began Japanese?”
- 25 soretomo: (0.4) hoka no:  
 or else LK  
 “Or was it something?”
- 26Lisa: aa=  
 oh  
 “Oh.”
- 27Tea1: =koto desu ka?  
 thing Cop Q  
 “else?”
- 28Lisa: nihon- a etto: okaasan no (0.2) eikyoo- (0.8)  
 Japan um mother LK influence  
 “Japan- Oh, um, my mom’s influe-”
- 29 o- okaasan ni eikyoo o uke(0.3)sare- (0.3) ukemashita.  
 mother from influence O receive:PST  
 “I- I was influenced by my mom.”
- 30Tea1: aa: soo na n desu ka.  
 oh so Cop. N Cop Q  
 “Oh, I see.”
- 31 tomodachi no eikyoo (.) toka: etto aa:  
 friend LK influence etc. uhm FLR  
 “[So] it wasn’t your friends’ influence or, um, oh,”
- 32 jugyoo de e- gaikokugo o benkyooshinakyaikenai kara: ja[nakute  
 class in foreign.language O have.to.study because Cop:NEG  
 “that you were required to study a foreign language in class?”
- 33Lisa: [u::n  
 um  
 “Um...”
- 34 (0.4)

- 35 hotondo wa: etto: nihon ga sukide: hh  
most.of.it Top um Japan S like.and  
“Mostly, I like Japan, and,”
- 36Tea1: [oo:  
oh  
“Oh.”
- 37Lisa: [etto: kyonen nihon ni kita toki: bunka mo (0.2)  
um last.year Japan to come:PST when culture also  
“um, I also liked the culture and the language”
- 38 etto nihongo (0.4) gengo ga sukide:  
um Japanese language S. like.and  
“when I visited last year,”
- 39Tea1: °aa[:°  
ah  
“Ah.”
- 40Lisa: [sorede: nihongo o shinkenni benkyooshitai to omoimashita.  
So Japanese O seriously want.to.study QT think:PST  
“so I wanted to study Japanese in earnest.”
- 41Tea1: kyonen ryuugaku shita n desu ne:?  
last.year study.abroad do:PST N Cop FP  
“You studied abroad last year?”
- 42Lisa: iie- iie. kazoku ni- kazuku ni au (0.8) mokuteki de kimashita.  
no no family with family with meet purpose because come:PST  
“No- No, I came [to Japan] to see my family.”
- 43Tea1: un un  
uh-huh  
“Uh-huh.”
- 44 ja kyonen nihon ni ryokoo shini==  
so last.year Japan to trip to.do  
“So, last year, you came to Japan-”
- 45 =nihon de ryokoo shi[ta n desu ne?  
Japan in trip do:PST N Cop FP  
“you came to Japan on a leisure trip, right?”
- 46Lisa: [hai  
yes  
“Yes.”
- 48Tea1: ja, sore wa: a! nihongo hajimeyou tte iu  
so that Top Ah Japanese start:Vol QT say
- 49 nihongo o hajimeru kikkake: desu ka:?  
Japanese O start reason Cop Q  
“Then, was that the reason for making you think,  
‘Oh, I want to start Japanese’?”

- 47 ryokoo shimashita  
trip do:PST  
“I did.”
- 50 nihon ni: kyonen no ryokoo?  
Japan to last.year LK trip  
“Last year’s trip to Japan?”
- 51Lisa: ano:  
um  
“Um,”
- 52 (2.0)
- 53Tea1: kikkake: [wakarimasu ka?  
reason understand Q  
“Do you understand *kikkake* (reason)?”
- 54Lisa: [su:  
“Mm...”
- 55 uun, kikkake wa:  
no reason Top  
“No, *kikkake* is...”
- 56Tea1: a, |kikkake wa ne: kono ka no kotoba desu:  
|((Tea1 shifts her gaze to the textbook and grabs it))  
oh reason Top FP this chapter LK word Cop  
“Oh, *kikkake* is a vocabulary term from this chapter.”
- ... ((35 lines omitted))
- 92 (0.3)
- 93 un sono Lisa san no: benkyoo no nihongo no kikkake wa:  
yes that Lisa Ms. LK study LK Japanese LK reason Top  
“Right, so, your reason for studying Japanese is?”
- 94Lisa: aa[::  
oh  
“Ohh:”
- 95Tea1: [kyonen no ryokoo desu ka?  
last.year LK trip Cop Q  
“Last year’s trip?”
- 96Lisa: hai, kyonen no ryokoo wa (0.3)  
yes last.year LK trip Top  
“Yes, last year’s trip.”
- 97 a, nihongo no benkyoosuru koto no kikkake wa  
oh Japanese LK study.do thing LK reason Top  
“Oh, my reason for Japanese study is”
- 98 nihon ni (0.2) ryokoo shita koto desu.

Japan to trip do:PST thing Cop  
 “my trip to Japan.”

99Teal: a, hai: arigato:  
 ah yes thank.you  
 “Yes, thank you.”

After the instructor’s pre-question (line 3), she initiates a new sequence by asking when Lisa began learning Japanese (lines 5-7). This question initially appears to be a referential question that is concerned with obtaining Lisa’s personal account of her learning process. In response, Lisa prefaces by implying that she originally began “learning” Japanese by speaking with her Japanese mother when she was young (lines 9-10). She then admits that she only started studying seriously (*shinkenni*) a year ago, thereby suggesting that her formal Japanese studies began after entering college (lines 18-19). The instructor, in the third turn, provides a form of receipt and treats Lisa’s response as news information, indexed by the change-of-state token (Heritage, 1984b) and the *-n desu* form (Nakano, 2009; Wang, 2010) (line 20).

Subsequently, the instructor utters, “That is [when] you began learning” (line 22), and further asks, “Was your mother’s influence the *reason (kikkake)* for you beginning to learn Japanese? Or was it something else?” (lines 24-27). To reiterate, the term “*kikkake*,” although defined as “a trigger” in the learners’ textbook, more precisely refers to a specific moment or event that leads someone to begin an ongoing pursuit (which is roughly translated as “reason” in the transcript) and is one of the new vocabulary in the textbook chapter that Lisa and the instructor have been reviewing during this session. The instructor’s question here, then, displays her candidate interpretation of Lisa’s response that her Japanese mother was relevant to a significant event (“*kikkake*”) that led Lisa to begin learning Japanese. However, the question also remains open to other possible answers, as the instructor adds, “Or was it something else?” (line 27). It is important to mention, here, that the word “*kikkake*” (line 24) is marked in the

instructor's utterance with a slightly rising intonation. She thus prosodically marks this lexical term, presumably attempting to create interactive turn space (Iwasaki, 2009) to check Lisa's understanding of the word through its use in the question. This rising intonation also appears to clarify that her question is now inquiring about the significant event/moment ("*kikkake*") that led Lisa to begin learning Japanese formally.

In response to the instructor's question (lines 24-27), Lisa answers, "I was influenced by my mother (*Okaasan ni eikyoo o ukemashita*)" (lines 28-29), reusing the word "*eikyoo*" (influence) from the instructor's question but not using "*kikkake*." The instructor then responds with another form of news receipt token (line 30) and asks, "[So] it is not [because of] your friends or that you are required to study a foreign language in class?" (lines 31-32). This question seeks confirmation that it is indeed Lisa's mother that was the primary reason for Lisa to begin learning Japanese. However, this question prompts Lisa to extend her response in the following sequences by uttering, "Mostly, I like Japan, and I also liked the culture and the language when I visited last year, so that's why I wanted to learn Japanese seriously" (lines 35-40). This extended response appears to indicate that Lisa understands the instructor's confirmation questions as a prompt to further elaborate her "*kikkake*" (a significant event) for studying Japanese. It therefore implies that, although her mother is part of the reason, she decided to learn Japanese largely ("*hotondo wa*") (line 35) because she enjoys the language and culture. This demonstrates an attempt on Lisa's end to align with the instructor's implicit request, insinuated by the instructor's repeated inquiries after Lisa's initial answer, for a different primary reason for studying Japanese that potentially makes more sense.

In the following turn, the instructor shows her candidate understanding that the visit to Japan last year that Lisa refers to in her answer was for study abroad (line 41). However, Lisa

repairs this by uttering, “No, [I] came [to Japan] to see my family” (line 42). The instructor, then, re-attempts to show her understanding in the next turn by saying, “So you came to Japan last year for a [leisure] trip, right?” (lines 44-45). When Lisa confirms, the instructor continues with the clarifying question, “So, was that the significant event/moment (*kikkake*) for making you think, ‘Oh, I want to start [studying] Japanese’? Last year’s trip to Japan?” (lines 48-50). It should be emphasized here that this question again contains the word “*kikkake*” and attempts to obtain confirmation from Lisa regarding whether her Japan trip is indeed her primary reason for studying Japanese. Moreover, this time, the question involves enactment which the instructor voices out Lisa’s inner thought. This enactment is added, seemingly because it helps to clarify what sort of moment the word “*kikkake*” could refer to. After this confirmation question, however, Lisa only utters, “Um” (line 51), which results in a long pause (line 52). The instructor then asks her whether she understands the word “*kikkake*” (line 53). Since Lisa does not articulate her understanding in the subsequent turn, the instructor grabs the textbook and provides an explanation by uttering, “*Kikkake* is a vocabulary term from this chapter” (line 56).

At this point, the instructor displays that she has been pursuing an answer in regard to the specific point of time or event (“*kikkake*”) that led Lisa to begin studying Japanese. This is reflected in the fact that the instructor repeatedly asks about Lisa’s “*kikkake*” for learning Japanese, despite the fact that Lisa has already suggested various reasons. The instructor’s multiple attempts to display her understanding of Lisa’s answers (lines 24, 41 and 44) also exemplify the instructor’s method of implicitly attempting to extract a specific answer and serve as prefatory work to the question that aims to re-elicite a response from Lisa. This, thus, demonstrates that the instructor is repeatedly orienting to the pursuit of a specific answer

regarding the term “*kikkake*” and that the initial referential question and confirmation questions are all means through which the instructor endeavors to accomplish this pedagogical goal.

After the sequence in which the instructor and the learner figure out the meaning of the word, “*kikkake*” (in the omitted lines), the instructor reinitiates the sequence by re-asking the previous question. Lisa then responds that the significant event (*kikkake*) that led her to begin to learn Japanese was her trip to Japan last year. In the third turn, the instructor utters, “Yes, thank you” (line 99). This final appreciation token acknowledges and accepts Lisa’s answer, while simultaneously closing the sequence. In doing so, it also seems to indicate that the instructor understands Lisa’s response as an acceptable contribution to the ongoing now-pedagogical sequence and thus worthy of appreciation. Furthermore, “thank you” in the third turn functions as “insinuating case closed” (Waring, 2008: p.584), thereby indicating the unnecessary of further continuation of the talk on the given question. This thus reflects that the instructor’s utterance here (line 99) is not orienting to the meaning of Lisa’s response but rather toward the pedagogical adequacy of the response, which reflexively indexes the deliberateness of the whole sequence.

The interactional work presented in the current excerpt resembles the case from Lee’s (2007) study, referred to as “steering the sequences” (191), in which an instructor exploits the third turn to direct student’s understanding into a particular manner and direction. The difference, however, lies in that while, in Lee’s case, the instructor’s interactional work is conducted to help the student identify and recognize a grammatically inaccurate aspect of their utterance or check a specific component of a homework assignment, in the excerpt above, the instructor’s follow-up questions direct the learner to use the supposedly targeted lexical item in her response.

An analysis of this excerpt therefore reveals the co-constructedness of Lisa's response to the instructor's initial referential question. This is reflected in the way in which the instructor designs her last question (lines 48-50) contingently upon Lisa's previous responses. In other words, the question is specifically designed to elicit a response in regard to the term "*kikkake*" in a way that is contingent upon Lisa's previous responses. This further implies that Lisa's meaning-making process is highly constrained by how the instructor structures the pedagogical sequence as well as the sequentially emerging pedagogical agenda. Put differently, the two participants' orientations to the pedagogical goal procedurally inhibit the type and form of Lisa's response as "allowable contributions" to the unfolding sequence (Levinson, 1979).

Whether the last response is a genuine reflection of Lisa's feelings and experiences or not is, thus, debatable. Throughout the excerpt, her answer to the instructor's question is sequentially remodified, both by the instructor and herself, in a way that displays co-orientation to the pedagogical goal. In the process, there is a chance that Lisa's personal views and truth are sacrificed, or at least altered, at the expense of this co-orientation enforced by the instructor to incorporate a particular linguistic item. Given Lisa's background as a mixed-race learner who has grown up in a household with a Japanese mother, it is not difficult to imagine that her reason(s) for formally studying Japanese would be multi-layered and not limited to a single moment or event. Especially for heritage learners like Lisa, who have been immersed from birth to Japanese language and culture in some way or form through their household environments, the term "*kikkake*," which implies a specific moment or event in one's life, cannot even begin to sufficiently depict their complex learning processes. Yet, since the learner's use of "*kikkake*" is the central goal of the current pedagogical interaction, the instructor consequently must marginalize both Lisa's actual experiences and the appropriateness of the term in relation to

those experiences. In fact, until the line 53 where the instructor initiates a repair sequence, Lisa appears to have been responding to the instructor's questions without knowing the meaning of "*kikkake*." In other words, although the last response that Lisa provides, "last year's trip was my '*kikkake*' for studying Japanese," is co-constructed, it is done so without Lisa's solid understanding of the word "*kikkake*."

This excerpt thus suggests that instructors in language pedagogy are to some extent given "institutional power" (Hutchby, 1996), through which they are allowed to reinterpret and modify a learner's utterances in order to further elicit a specific language form or item from that learner. In the example above, the instructor displays her institutional power to structurally compel Lisa to modify her expressions, regardless of her personal perspectives, in order to produce a response that aligns with the institutional goal of the interaction. Notably, in naturally occurring everyday conversation, any other interlocutor would not have such power to alter Lisa's perspectives through the imposition of a particular linguistic item. Even if they did, Lisa would also have opportunities to remodify and repair their turns in order to reimpose her own stances. Yet, in the pedagogical sequence during this tutoring session, Lisa's responses to the presented questions are limited by institutional goals and pedagogical contexts that are talked into being, even when those questions appear to be referential. Therefore, both parties during this tutoring session co-construct a sequential environment in which learners are structurally placed in a position where sequentially emerging institutional objectives rather coercively shape their turns, turn-orders, and the content of their turns. In the case of the excerpt above, it is not the targeted word "*kikakke*" itself that causes the recodification of Lisa's response, but rather the way in which the pedagogical sequence is organized around the word is procedurally consequential in that it leads to Lisa's ultimate response and the instructor's closure.

In sum, even though the sequence in this excerpt is initiated by a referential question that asks Lisa's personal reason for learning Japanese, Lisa ends up doing "being a foreign language learner" by tailoring her response contingently upon how the instructor reacts to her answer. Lisa's response to the instructor's question, therefore, is co-produced through her modifications of the answer as well as the instructor's attempt to elicit the target lexical item. In other words, Lisa's meaning making process is interactionally mediated by the way the instructor maneuvers her to implement the target language form into her response.

#### **4.3.5. "Unsuccessful" Elicitation**

The last excerpt demonstrates a case between a different instructor (Tea2) and Emma, in which, despite explicit indications of the target linguistic items and an implicit elicitation attempt, the learner ends up not using the target lexical words. The following interaction is prompted by a conversation practice sheet that students are required to complete by the end of the program. This conversational practice sheet provides various topics or themes through which students can practice speaking Japanese with their Japanese roommates, program staff, and lecture instructors. Students must talk about the same topic or theme three times and obtain three different signatures from a local college student, a program staff, and a lecture teacher. In addition, the conversation sheet also provides a short list of vocabulary and grammar structures that students may use for each topic or theme. As seen in the description below, instructors are encouraged to "suggest the use of the listed usable vocabulary and grammar expressions during the practice and help learners converse naturally." During the one-on-one session, as in the one below, the instructor uses this sheet to initiate conversation practices with a learner.

＜大学生／ スタッフへ＞ 大学生は、留学生と練習する時に使える単語や文法表現の使用を勧め(表の中の幾つか選ぶ際、留学生が何を言いたいかで勧める使用表現を選んで下さい)、話し相手に適した自然な会話となる様に練習を手伝って下さい。 スタッフは、先生方との確認ができる様に、会話の流れと表現を練習します。

Figure 4.1: Instructions to local students and the program staff members

Translation: “To university students/[program] staff: University students are urged to use [the given] grammar expressions and vocabulary when practicing [conversation] with exchange students. (When choosing several [vocabulary/grammar expressions] from the given chart, please urge exchange students to use those that help them express what they want to say.) Please try to help tailor your conversations to the exchange student in a natural way. [Program] staff will practice conversation flow and expressions [with exchange students] in order for them to receive signatures from teachers.” (Translated by the researcher)

Prior to the excerpt, Emma has been talking about her dream of becoming a teacher, prompted by the topic depicted below. In line 1, the one-on-one instructor asks, “But was there any *primary reason/event* (“*kikkake*”) that made you want to become a teacher?,” utilizing the recommended vocabulary word “*kikkake*” that is listed on the conversation sheet. This shows the instructor’s orientation to the prompt of the conversation sheet, which aims to encourage learners to use newly learned vocabulary and grammar in conversation. This question then becomes the impetus for Emma to temporarily shift her focus and initiates a side sequence (Jefferson, 1972) in which she talks with the instructor about the meaning and usage of the listed vocabulary.

<p>④ 子供時代の習い事や学校生活などについて、子供の時の夢や今の自分と関連付けながら、友達に話すことができる。</p>	<p>～たかったんだ 得意 きっかけ</p>
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Figure 4.2: 4) Can talk with friends about their childhood school life/afterschool activities while connecting dreams/goals they had in the past with their current selves.

Grammar structures: ~*takattan da* (“wanted to...”), *tokui* (“good at”), *kikkake* (“specific reason”)

Excerpt5

- 1Emma: kodomo no toki, (0.4) nanka watashi wa otonani nat(.)tara:  
child LK when like I Top adult become.when  
“When I was a kid, like, I didn’t really have any aspirations.”
- 2Tea2: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 3Emma: nanka, (0.5) yume anmari nakatta hhh  
like dream not.really exist:Neg/PST  
“like, for when I would be an adult.”
- 4Tea2: aa soo na n da  
oh so Cop N Cop  
“Oh, I see.”
- 5Emma: u::n  
uh-huh  
“Uh-huh.”
- ... ((25lines omitted))
- 30Tea2: aa: naruhodo ne  
Oh. I.see FP  
“Oh, I see.”
- 31Emma: hai  
yes  
“Yes.”
- 32Tea2: un un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 33 (2.5) ((both look at the conversation practice sheet))
- 34Tea2: demo: sono sensee ni naritai to omotta: kikkake wa aru no?  
but that teacher to want.become QT think:PST reason Top exist FP  
“But was there any specific reason that made you want to become a teacher?”
- 35 (1.0)
- 36Emma: e kikkake(h)tte(h) [iu(h) [kotoba(h) (0.2) ga hhh  
reason QT say word S  
“Uh, the word ‘kikkake’ ...”
- 37Tea2: [un [hhhhhh  
uh-huh  
“Uh-huh.”
- 38 okkei okkei  
okay okay  
“Okay, okay.”
- 39 kikkake to iu kotoba wa: ano: nan daroo ne:

- reason QT say word Top FLR what maybe FP  
 “*Kikakke* means, um, let’s see...”
- 40 (1.2)
- ... ((22 lines omitted))
- 52 nanika o okoshita kikkake to iu ka kikai [toka, torigaa toka  
 something O start reason QT say Q opportunity etc. trigger etc.  
 “Something that started [it all], like a trigger or something.”
- 53Emma: [aa  
 oh  
 “Ohh.”
- 54 [un un  
 uh-huh  
 “Uh-huh.”
- 55Tea2: [soo yuu  
 so like  
 “Something like that.”
- 56 (1.5)
- 57Emma: [ato-  
 then  
 “Then-”
- 58Tea2: [kore mo yomemasu ka?  
 this also can.read Q  
 “Can you read this, too?”
- 59 (1.0)
- 60Emma: u::n yomenai(h)  
 uh can.read:NEG  
 “Uh, no.”
- 61Tea2: hhhh
- 62Emma: i ga wakaru (.) kedo  
 S know but  
 “I know the ‘i’ part of it, though.”
- 63Tea2: aa:: tokui  
 oh good.at  
 “Okay, it’s *tokui* (good at).”
- ... ((19 lines omitted))
- 82 (0.3)
- 83Tea2: hanasu no ga tokui da kedo, kaku no wa amari tokuijyanai toka  
 speak N S good.at Cop but write N Top not.really good.at:NEG etc.  
 “Like, I’m good at speaking, but not very good at writing.”

- 84Emma: aa  
oh  
“Ohh.”
- 85Tea2: un [un  
uh-huh  
“Uh-huh.”
- 86Emma: [un  
okay  
“Okay.”
- 87Tea2: hai [u::n  
okay umm  
“Okay, umm”
- 88Emma: [u:::  
umm  
“Umm”
- 89 hai  
okay  
“Okay.”
- 90 (0.8)
- 91Emma: kikkake wa:  
reason Top  
“I think”
- 92Tea2: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 93Emma: amari: nakatta to omou kedo  
not.really exist:NEG QT think but  
“there was not really a specific reason [for wanting to be a teacher], but”
- 94Tea2: un  
uh-huh  
“Uh-huh.”
- 95Emma: ee: ittsumo: hoka no hito o  
FLR always other LK people O  
“um, I was always able to help”
- 96Tea2: [un  
uh-huh  
“Uh-huh.”
- 97Emma: [shizenni (0.2) tasukerareta  
naturally can.help:PST  
“others naturally”

- 98Tea2: aa: [:  
ah  
“Ah.”
- 99Emma: [kodomo no koro kara: [ima made  
child LK time from now until  
“ever since I was a kid until now.”
- ... ((22 lines omitted))
- 121Tea2: aa: soo na n da ne:  
oh so Cop N Cop FP  
“Oh, I see.”
- 122Emma: un  
uh-huh  
“Uh-huh.”
- 123 (0.4)
- 124Tea2: jaa hoka no hito o tasuketeageru no ga tokui: (.) na n da ne:  
then other LK people O help.favor N S good.at Cop N Cop FP  
“Then, wouldn’t you say helping others is something you are good at?”
- 125Emma: tashikani:(h) [hhhh  
certainly  
“I guess you’re right.”
- 126Tea2: [hhhh
- 127 demo mada: hontoni sensee ni naritai ka wa: waka[ranai n da ne  
but still truly teacher to want.become Q. Top know:NEG N Cop FP  
“But it seems you still don’t know if you will actually become a teacher.”
- 128Emma: [un  
yes  
“Yes,”
- 129 hai  
yes  
“that’s right.”
- 130Tea2: soo na n da:  
so Cop N Cop  
“I see.”
- 131Emma: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 132Tea2: naruhodo naruhodo  
I.see I.see  
“Okay, okay.”
- 133 un watashi mo: zutto sensee ni naritai kadooka mayotteta kara:  
yes I also always teacher to. want.become whether unsure:PST because

“Well, I was also unsure for a while about whether I would become a teacher.”

134Emma:

un  
uh-huh  
“Oh.”

135Tea2:

nanika ii kekka ga: (0.2) ii kotae ga deru to ii ne  
something good result S good answer S come.out QT good FP  
“I hope a good result- a good answer comes your way.”

136Emma:

un=  
yes  
“Yeah.”

137Tea2:

=un  
yes  
“Yeah.”

<p>30Tea2: 31Emma:</p>	<p>aa: naruhodo ne hai</p>	
<p>32Tea2:</p>	<p>un un</p>	
<p>33:</p>	<p>(2.5)</p>	

Figure 4.3: Participants' gaze and posture shifting

After reading aloud the given topic in the sheet, Emma initiates a storytelling sequence that speaks to the fact that she had been telling people of her desire to be a teacher although she has

insecurities about this dream and her goals in college to date (lines 1-29). After this sequence, in line 33, there is a pause where Emma and the instructor shift their gaze and posture toward the conversation practice sheet (Figure 4.3). This demonstrates that they are withholding the progression of the talk and oriented to the task prompt. Then, the instructor asks, “But was there any *specific reason* (“*kikkake*”) that made you want to become a teacher?” (line 34). It should be noted that the word “*kikkake*” is, as shown in the translated figure above, from the recommended vocabulary list for this conversation topic on childhood dreams. Since this question is uttered after the two participants visibly shift their focus to the conversation sheet, the question seems to display the instructor’s orientation toward this prompt in a form of an embedded elicitation. After a relatively long pause, instead of answering the question, Emma says, laughing, “The word ‘*kikkake*’...” (line 36), which invites the instructor’s laughter in the following turn. Emma’s utterance here can be understood as a repair initiation that indicates her perplexity toward the linguistic item “*kikkake*.” The instructor then initiates a side sequence to explain the meaning of “*kikkake*,” using some example sentences (lines 41-52). Afterwards, the instructor asks, “Can you read this [word]?” (line 58), pointing to one of the words on the vocabulary list. This then extends the side sequence where the instructor explains the another recommended word “*tokui*” (“good at”) (lines 63-81). These side sequences focusing on the vocabulary items embody the participants’ temporal shift in the orientation toward the list of recommended vocabulary on the conversation sheet and the pedagogical objective that these lexicons be used in storytelling sequences.

After this second side sequence closes followed by a short pause (line 90), Emma utters, “I think there was no such ‘*kikkake*,’ but I was always able to help others naturally” (lines 91-97). Emma thereby displays that she is going back to the instructor’s initial question in line 34.

This shift in orientation is co-attended by the instructor who produces a continuer (Schegloff, 1982) as Emma tells a short story. She mentions that teaching others has always been a part of her life and implies that that could be a reason why she wants to become a teacher (lines 99-120). In line 121, the instructor then utters, “*Soo na n da ne:*” (“Oh, okay/I see”), acknowledging Emma’s story as newsworthy. After a short pause, she continues to display her understanding of Emma’s story by saying, “Then, wouldn’t you say helping others is something you are good at (*tokui*)?” (line 124), which is then followed by Emma uttering, “I guess so” (line 125). It should be pointed out here that the instructor implements another recommended vocabulary word, “*tokui*,” in her utterance. It is further significant that she designs this turn into a confirmation question, thereby pursuing a response from Emma. The fact that this lexical word (*tokui*) has been explained by the instructor in the previous side sequence and that she prosodically marks the word in her utterance (line 124) strongly suggests that she is orientated toward the given prompt (specifically the recommended vocabulary) and making this lexical item more noticeable to Emma. Despite the instructor’s attempt to elicit the word, Emma only utters, “I guess so” (line 125), which simply aligns herself to the instructor’s interpretation of her story. This contrasts to the case in Excerpt 3 where Sara interprets such embedded elicitation and responds to it by incorporating the elicited lexical item into the utterance. Elicitation here, therefore, appears to be not understood as a request for the learner to use the targeted form. The instructor then continues to display her understanding of (line 127) as well as align toward Emma’s story by stating that she was also unsure for a while whether to become a teacher or not and wishes Emma the best of luck with whatever she decides to do (line 133). This displays the instructor’s continuous meaning-focused orientations as a recipient of Emma’s story.

In this excerpt, we have seen multiple shifts in orientation between meaning and form. Despite temporal co-orientations toward recommended lexical items in side sequences, Emma abandons her orientation toward the given vocabulary list by rejecting the recommended word “*kikkake*” (lines 91-93) in her story and not incorporating the other recommended item “*tokui*” in her utterances. She instead focuses on expressing herself freely in her own way. This indicates that the learner is rather actively interpreting the prompt and exercising her own agency through the way she constructs the unfolding sequence. Furthermore, Emma’s orientation is co-attended by how the instructor displays her listenership throughout the extended storytelling sequences and responds to these sequences in the third turn and beyond. Emma and the instructor, therefore, re-construct the sequence from a temporal form-oriented sequence into a meaning-oriented one in which the focus of how the sequence unfolds shifts away from the use of recommended words and phrases.

It may be argued that this type of implicit elicitation practice is not always observable to analysts due to its design and features. It is certainly true that not all implicit elicitation practices can be identifiable. However, this does not necessarily undermine the significance of the analysis on the identified cases in the current data set. It is important to empirically illustrate that while some of the implicit elicitation practices are employed and responded to by participants rather smoothly, other cases examined in this chapter reveal that different orientations among participants that need to be negotiated.

In fact, the excerpt above contrasts with Excerpt 4 in which the incorporation of the same targeted lexical item, “*kikkake*,” was pursued sequentially despite the learner responding to the instructor’s questions adequately and achieving intersubjectivity. In the current excerpt between Emma and Tea2, although both participants initially orient to incorporating the lexicon on the

practice sheet, the learner decides not to use the lexicons to describe her own experiences. Unlike Tea1 in Excerpt 4, Tea2 aligns here with the learner's orientation by simply showing listenership and displaying her understanding of the given story subsequently, without intervening and structurally forcing the learner to incorporate the language forms listed as usable expressions/phrases on the conversation practice sheet.

Based on these two excerpts and the divergent instructor priorities, structurally prompting a learner to incorporate a specific language form into their meaning-making process through elicitation practices while maintaining the interaction's conventional conversation-like flow appears to face distinctive consequences. On the one hand, if the instructor prioritizes the pedagogical goal of soliciting a linguistic form from a learner, implicit elicitation practices potentially mediate that learner's meaning-making process. On the other hand, if the instructor prioritizes a learner's personal meaning making over a form-focused pedagogical goal, that learner may not actually use the predetermined target language forms in their responses. Overall, the analysis on the selected segments has shown that instructors with similar pedagogical goals must face this type of trade-off.

#### **4.4. Summary**

The analysis in the current chapter has shown that the implementation of elicitation practices, regardless of its level of explicitness, displays a pedagogical orientation toward a form-focused sequence. This then occurs by making the next turn a slot in which a learner is encouraged to provide a being-elicited linguistic form. However, how that learner understands and responds to an elicitation differs depending on the elicitation's design and sequential placement, the degree of the instructor's imposition of the pedagogical agenda, and the learner's

interpretation of the agenda and prompt. The above analysis has thus shown that, even with the same pedagogical function and motivation, the use of elicitation practices can lead to different learning outcomes.

Based on the results of this analysis, I argue that implicit elicitation reflects the instructor's specific pedagogical stance. This is usually either the desire for the learner to use a target linguistic form in their utterance as naturally as possible or the desire for the learner to realize themselves that they can utilize the target form in their response without explicitly being compelled to do so. Instructors in the one-on-one sessions in this study tend to organize interactions in a way that provides structural opportunities for learners to produce newly-learned linguistic forms in their responses without explicit instructions, while attempting to engage in a meaning-oriented sequence. However, this implicitness inevitably makes it difficult to achieve intersubjectivity, since it obscures whether the instructor is orientated toward form or meaning.

This chapter's analysis has also demonstrated that pre-planning the target language form not only shapes the structure of the interaction but also influences the meaning-making process, especially when a learner is asked to express their personal experiences or opinions. The degree to which the instructor structurally imposes the use of a pre-determined target linguistic form varies depending on the instructor, their goal of the session, and other institutional constraints. Orienting to the use of a specific linguistic form, in some sequential circumstances, structurally inhibits the meaning-making process, and vice versa. The important take away from the analysis above is thus that it is structurally complex to both elicit a specific response from learners and simultaneously have learners freely express themselves within the same sequence of actions. Achieving a simultaneous "dual focus" of form and meaning (Seedhouse, 1997) within the same sequence therefore appears to pose a structural difficulty.

Given this structural complexity, further investigation on the effectiveness of elicitation depending on its explicitness is necessary. Such research will require experimental designs with controlled variables, which is certainly beyond the scope of the current research. However, from the findings of the analysis above, it can be argued that depending on the explicitness of the way elicitation is designed and conducted, learners might be inclined to understand the unfolding of an activity more as a form-focused activity than a meaning-focused one, or vice versa. In other words, the more explicitly an instructor carries out an elicitation, the more structurally constrained the ongoing conversation will inevitably become. It might thus be important to conduct research that examines the differing effects of elicitation on the learning process and its outcomes in relation to the degree of instructor explicitness.

Furthermore, this structural complexity when employing elicitation as a pedagogical practice encourages us to think about how exactly we, as instructors, want learners to use target language forms. As seen in the current data, instructors as well as learners need to navigate between form-focused and meaning-focused orientations during a specific interaction, which may sometimes result in a mismatch between what an instructor tries to accomplish and what a learner attempts to do interactionally. What appears to be important, therefore, is that instructors and learners share an understanding of the goal of the interaction or the purpose of the session while allowing some degree of flexibility as to how the interaction is co-constructed. In order to accomplish this, instructors need to lay out the interaction's goal as clearly as possible and design activities accordingly. As for flexibility, instructors must be aware of the structural impact of their conduct on how an interaction unfolds. Depending on the specific orientation that a learner displays moment-by-moment, instructors should be attentive to local contingencies in order to explore the projected orientation while structuring/restructuring the interaction in accordance with pedagogical objectives, as necessary. This, again, highlights the significance of the current research, which presents

comparative cases, empirically depicts possible ways in which an interaction unfolds, and further informs to some degree about the predictive effects of instructors' conduct in one-on-one instructional sessions.

## Chapter 5

### Epistemic Status Checks in One-on-one Instructional Sessions

#### 5.1. Introduction

In Chapter 4, the analysis has shown that the two instructors are similarly oriented toward accomplishing the institutionally set goals, namely reviewing newly learned language forms, by employing different types of elicitations as interactional practices. In addition to learning enabled by elicitations, it is observed in the data that instructors also display an orientation toward constructing different type of learning opportunities during the one-on-one instructional session. More specifically, there are cases in which instructors utilize specific practices to identify a potential linguistic knowledge gap in the learners' state of knowledge and further fill in the relevant knowledge when deemed necessary. If "learning" is conceived as the action of becoming linguistically more knowledgeable about target language forms, it is integral for instructors to assess what learners know and do not know in regard to particular linguistic forms through interactions. This chapter thus focuses on specific practices through which learners' linguistic knowledge is monitored, displayed, and managed during the one-on-one session, namely epistemic status checks (ESCs) (Sert, 2011, 2013).

Below is an excerpt from Sert's (2013) study that exemplifies a case of an ESC. In the excerpt, a teacher is asking a question regarding the lyrics of a song in an English language class at school in Luxembourg with students whose ages range from 15 to 18.

1	Tea:	he says where the ↑ADS take aim and lay their
2		claim to the heart and the soul of the
3		s↑pen↓der(.) what are ads? For ad↑vertisements:.
4		(1.3)
5	Tea:	do you know what he's speaking <u>about</u> ?
6		(3.2)

7 Tea: -> you don't know what an ↑ad is?  
 8 oh: come on.  
 +Noa holds up his finger  
 9 Tea: yes (noah).  
 10 Noa: ↑wer↓bung.  
 11 Tea: werbung, yes (.) publicity.

(Sert, 2013;p.18)

In lines 1 to 2, the teacher recites part of the lyrics while putting an emphasis on the word “ADS” with a rising intonation. In line 3, he then asks the meaning of the word, “What are ads?,” and rephrases the word by providing the full version of the word (“advertisement”) immediately afterwards. This turn is followed by a pause (1.3 seconds), and he asks another, more general question to the class, “Do you know what he’s speaking about?,” to further solicit a response from the students (line 5). Since this still does not receive any responses after a relatively long pause (3.2 seconds) in the subsequent turn, the teacher inserts an ESC, “You don’t know what an ad is?” (line 7). This question suggests that the teacher interprets the students’ lack of response as potential evidence of their insufficient knowledge about the meaning of the word “ads.” The teacher thereby explicitly makes this possible lack of linguistic knowledge relevant to the ongoing interaction. His ESC accompanied by an encouragement token (“oh come on”) then invites a student to respond and provide the meaning of the word in German (“webung”) (line 10), which the teacher confirms while also providing an English translation (line 11). This ESC therefore displays “a speaker’s interpretation of another interactant’s state of knowledge [...], which is initiated in order to pursue certain interactional/pedagogical goals” (Sert, 2013; p.14) by making a claim or display of the knowledge, or lack thereof, relevant to the following interaction.

The insertion of this type of ESCs is also observed in the current data with some notable differences from the ones identified in previous studies. As shown above, ESCs in Sert’s (2013) study are inserted after an absence or delay of an anticipated response to a question that has

already specified a focus of the relevant knowledge (e.g., vocabulary, content, etc.). In such cases, the absence or delay of a response is interpreted as the fact that students do not *know*, or do not possess the knowledge to provide, an answer to a given question. However, ESCs in the current data are almost exclusively inserted only after a learner has produced an explicit response or utterance that indicates their incomprehension of a prior question or one that contains linguistic errors. In other words, instructors in the one-on-one session utilize ESCs to identify the precise location of the learner's linguistic knowledge gap causing incomprehension or inaccuracies by explicitly making it a focal concern of the interaction. As such, the insertion of an ESC can also (re)shape the trajectory of the ongoing pedagogical sequences, and the learner's state of knowledge must be monitored, displayed, and negotiated accordingly. The findings of the following analysis will demonstrate how exactly participants negotiate, display, or make relevant certain linguistic knowledge to the ongoing talk through ESCs. Instructors should be able to interactionally manage and adjust their pedagogical actions according to the type of knowledge that learners display to know or do not know in order to effectively assist the learning process. Therefore, a systematic understanding of how participants interactionally orient to epistemic issues and what knowledge is made relevant and displayed through their actions holds salient pedagogical significance. The aim of this chapter is hence to examine what types of linguistic knowledge are made relevant to one-on-one interactions through the use of ESCs and to explicate the way in which identified knowledge gaps shape following pedagogical sequences.

## **5.2. Literature Review**

From a CA perspective, knowledge is not conceived as a cognitive construct that essentially resides in one's brain. Rather, it is conceptualized as a relative entity that is socially

shared, expressed, managed, negotiated, and established in and through interaction. This socially managed state of knowledge is referred to as *epistemics* in CA literature (e.g., Heritage, 2012, 2013). When analyzing epistemics in interactions within a CA framework, two closely related constructs become especially important in order to understand how knowledge is interactionally managed: *epistemic status* and *epistemic stance*. Heritage (2012) refers to *epistemic status* as the “relative epistemic access to a domain or territory of information as stratified between interactants such that they occupy different positions on an epistemic gradient (more knowledgeable [K+] or less knowledgeable [K-])” (p.4). Epistemic status is thus “an inherently relative and relational concept concerning the relative access to some domain of two (or more) persons at some point in time” (p.4). Hence, it can be subjected to change and negotiated at any moment of a given interaction. In other words, epistemic status refers to the relative status of specific knowledge between participants of a talk. *Epistemic stance*, on the other hand, according to Heritage (2012) refers to “the moment-by-moment expression of [the degree to which the speaker has access to the knowledge], as managed through the design of turns at talk” (p.6). Put differently, even when a given utterance functions as an information request to the interlocutor with the same K+ epistemic status, the epistemic stance toward the propositional content expressed through the question can vary and index a different epistemic gradient between the questioner (K-) and the recipient (K+) depending on how this question is designed and formulated.

In the language classroom, teachers are often tasked to identify and manage K+/K- epistemic asymmetry between learners and themselves when working with linguistic knowledge in the target L2. For instance, Sert and Walsh’s (2013) study illustrates how students use an “I don’t know” utterance as well as available physical gestures to claim insufficient knowledge

during question-answer sequences and thereby explicitly express their K- epistemic stance toward the relevant knowledge in an English language classroom. Therefore, it is apparent that instructors and learners in classrooms utilize verbal and non-verbal resources to constantly negotiate their epistemic stance and make their epistemic state of relevant knowledge apparent to each other while collaboratively accomplishing certain pedagogical tasks and activities.

In addition to the notions of epistemic status and epistemic stance, it is important to distinguish between *claiming* and *displaying* knowledge or understanding, as the difference between these concepts is relevant to the following analysis of this study. Sacks (1992; p.141) explains the difference in his article with the following example:

- 1 A    Where are you staying?
- 2 B    In Pacific Palisades.
- 3a A   Oh at the west side of town.
- 3b A   Oh. Pacific Palisades.

In the given interaction, Speaker A asks Speaker B a question in line 1. In response, Speaker B provides an answer that specifies the place in which they are staying. In the third turn (line 3a), Speaker A then *displays* their understanding of Speaker B's answer by providing information as to where the referred place is located. In the alternative response (line 3b), however, Speaker A only *claims* their understanding by merely repeating the given response rather than displaying whether or not they understood it. Therefore, this interaction exemplifies that the degree to which participants can monitor others' epistemic state of given issues varies depending on how one participant's understanding is made observable to other participants.

This distinction between *claiming* and *displaying* is an important analytical construct to understand how interacting participants achieve intersubjectivity in ordinary conversation. Moreover, it also holds practical implications for educational settings. Koole's (2010) study, for instance, examines one-on-one teacher-student interactions in a mathematics class and explicates

how students display their epistemic access to given questions differently depending on how the instructor asks the question. Koole distinguishes two types of epistemic access—*understanding* and *knowing*—and argues that, while these two types do not necessarily refer to different cognitive states, they refer to “different interactional objects” that “systematically occur in different sequential environments” (p. 184). This study demonstrates that students’ claim of *understanding* is structurally preferred when a teacher asks a “Do you understand?” question, whereas a demonstration and claim of *knowing* becomes a preferred response when a “Do you know?” question is asked. More importantly, Koole also identifies different sequential environments in which each type of question occurs. His analysis shows that “Do you understand” questions are inserted after the teacher’s explanation sequence while “Do you know?” questions that solicit a demonstration of knowledge, or *knowing*, are typically inserted in specific sequential environments (pre-sequences) in which teachers are oriented to checking students’ prior knowledge relevant to following explanations on mathematical problems. What this finding suggests is integral to distinguish these two interactional objects, *understanding* and *knowing*, in the current study as well. That is, *understanding* refers to whether a participant comprehends the preceding utterance(s), or what is being said, and hence intersubjectivity itself. *Knowing* on the other hand refers to the state of being knowledgeable about a specific object or information, and it is made relevant typically through explicit claims or inquiries.

The following is an instance that further articulates the distinction between *understanding* and *knowing*. The excerpt comes from Nanbu’s (2020) study that analyzes L2-L2 interactions of Japanese learners of English. In the data, the two learners are asked to have a free talk on the given topic of their hometown.

1        A:                =Where do you from?  
 2                        (0.5)  
 3        B:                I’m in kawanishi

4     A:            kawanishi yeah. [uh            ]  
 5     B:                                    [ ('d) you] know?  
 6     A:            yeah.  
 7     B:            oh!=  
 8     A:            =hyo= hyogo prefecture?  
 9     B:            yes yes yes.

(Nanbu, 2020;p.36)

Student A in line 1 asks B where he is from, to which B says that his hometown is Kawanishi in line 3. Subsequently, student A repeats the name of the city with the recipient token “yeah” (line 4), thereby claiming his *understanding* of the preceding response given by B. Student B then follows up and asks a “do you know?” question (line 5). In response, student A claims his knowledge (line 6) and further demonstrates his *knowing* by accurately specifying the location of the city (line 8). By asking a “do you know” question, therefore student B is making a display of *knowing* about his hometown city relevant to the talk. More importantly, this excerpt shows that *understanding* and *knowing* do not necessarily refer to different cognitive states. Rather, they are “different interactional objects” (Koole, 2010) that are oriented to by the participants at different sequential environments. In line 4, student A is claiming his *understanding* of the given response, in the same way that is shown in the example above by Sacks (1992). Understanding here refers to that student B has understood the previous utterance and hence achieved intersubjectivity at a given talk. In line 8, on the contrary, student A is demonstrating his *knowing* about student B’s hometown, since display of the knowledge is made relevant to by student B’s “do you know” question. In line 8, therefore, student A is demonstrating *knowing* rather than *understanding*. Throughout this chapter, I use this distinction between the two interactional objects in the analysis.

Applying these aforementioned CA-based notions of epistemics, an increasing amount of research has begun investigating how epistemic issues are interactionally managed in different types of classroom interactions, such as math classes (e.g., Koole, 2012) and STEM classes (e.g.,

Rusk et al., 2020). This line of study has also recently been making appearances in research that investigates L2 classroom interactions (e.g., Back, 2016; Batlle & Deal, 2021; Jakonen & Morton, 2015; Rusk et al., 2016; Sert, 2011, 2013; Sert & Jacknick, 2015; Sert & Walsh, 2013). The primary objective of these studies that investigate epistemic issues in language classroom contexts is to explicate “how participants display, manage, and orient to their own and others’ state of knowledge” in L2 pedagogical interactions (Jakonen & Morton, 2015; p.73). In terms of a more specific analytical focus, these studies examine participants’ various practices, including the ways in which learners collectively manage and resolve their knowledge gaps in L2 during a peer interaction or peer-tutoring (Jakonen & Morton, 2015; Back, 2016) and how instructors address learners’ claim or display of insufficient knowledge in the L2 classroom (Sert, 2011, 2013; Sert & Walsh, 2013).

In particular, Sert’s (2011, 2013) studies are most relevant to the current research. Sert (2013) examines teacher-student whole classroom interactions and explicates how observable epistemic imbalance is handled interactionally through an epistemic status check (ESC). He argues that an ESC displays “a speaker’s [e.g. a teacher’s] interpretation of another interactant’s [e.g. a student’s] state of knowledge (e.g. ‘you don’t know?’, ‘no idea?’), which is initiated when a second-pair part is delayed” (p. 17). In other words, teachers utilize ESCs to make students’ insufficient knowledge, or their not knowing the answer to a given question, relevant to the interaction. Sert’s study further reveals that both students’ long pauses and different non-verbal cues after being asked a question can be interpreted as an indication of insufficient knowledge, resulting in an insertion of an ESC. In another of his studies, Sert (2011) also found that a teacher utilizes ESCs to first confirm a student’s insufficient knowledge and further sequentially proceed with pedagogical actions, such as allocating a next turn to another student. However, especially

when the focus is on language form(s), other follow-up practices are also employed after the insertion of an ESC, including explaining relevant lexical items, code-switching to clarify questions, and utilizing incomplete utterances (Koshik, 2002) to further solicit a response from a student. These findings indicate that when insufficient knowledge of specific language forms is identified, the teacher in the study is more likely to utilize other resources and practices besides an ESC to facilitate students' further participation.

Following and expanding this line of research, the analysis in this chapter focuses on collections of segments in which an instructor inserts an ESC to overtly make a learner's epistemic state of linguistic knowledge relevant to an ongoing interaction. The identified ESCs in the current data, however, appear to differ from the ones in previous studies in three significant ways. First, the ESCs that occur during the one-on-one sessions of the current study are inserted after a learner has shown potential linguistic incomprehension or inaccuracies through the way in which they answer a given question or form their utterances. This means that, unlike the teacher in Sert's (2011, 2013) studies, the instructors in the current data interpret the learners' insufficient knowledge by completely relying on linguistic components uttered in their preceding sequences. The second point, which is very closely related to the first, is that the identified ESCs are utilized to identify linguistic knowledge gaps that may be causing the incomprehension or inaccuracies. They are thus all focused on a particular language form, making different types of linguistic knowledge relevant to the ongoing interaction. Lastly, focal ESCs in the analysis are often formulated as “[a referent to a specific language form] *ga wakarimasu ka?* (“Do you understand/know X?”). This specific linguistic design also seems to indicate the instructors' assumptions about the linguistic knowledge made relevant by the use of an ESC.

Before beginning analysis, the lexical verb, “*wakaru*,” used in the focal ESC phrase requires special attention. In Japanese, there are two verbs that can describe the state of possessing knowledge: *shiru* and *wakaru*. Whereas “*shiru*” is typically directly translated as “to know” in English, “*wakaru*” can be translated as either “to know” or “to understand” (Farese, 2018; Miura, 1983). The meaning of the verb “*wakaru*” thus precisely refers to neither “to know” nor “to understand,” but rather seems to lie somewhere in-between the two meanings (Mizumoto, 2018). In addition, despite some semantic/pragmatic differences between the two Japanese verbs, the verbs “*shiru*” and “*wakaru*” can even be used interchangeably in relation to proportional knowledge (Sadler, 2010). In the current data, however, only the verb “*wakaru*” (as in “*wakarimasu ka?*”) appears in the ESC formulations. One possible explanation for this is that when “*wakaru*” is used in an interrogative utterance, it implies that a speaker assumes that a piece of knowledge or information being solicited *should* be within the listener’s “territory of information” (Kamio, 1979). That is, the speaker assumes that the listener *supposedly*, if not actually, possesses the relevant knowledge or information (Lee, 2006). While displaying an interpretation of the learner’s potentially insufficient knowledge, therefore, the use of the verb “*wakaru*” in an ESC similarly indicates the instructor’s embedded assumption that the learner should be knowledgeable about the identified relevant linguistic matter. More importantly, regardless of the given semantic ambiguity of the verb, the ESCs observed in the current data always make a claim or demonstration of *knowing*, rather than *understanding*, of the identified linguistic knowledge relevant in the next turn.

This chapter focuses on examining such unique sequential features of ESCs in one-on-one instructional sessions. Furthermore, it aims to explicate the way in which instructors attempt to identify a potential lack of linguistic knowledge through the employment of an ESC to resolve

the identified knowledge gap that emerges contingently upon the preceding or ongoing pedagogical activity. More specifically, the analysis on a collection of such interactional sequences will be guided by the following questions:

- 1) What types of linguistic knowledge is made relevant to the interaction?
- 2) What sort of instructor's interpretation of a learner's prior turn does an ESC display?
- 3) How does the identified knowledge gap shape the subsequent pedagogical sequences?

### **5.3. Analysis**

In this section, the analysis will focus on the collection of ESCs through which instructors manage to make the learners' epistemic state of specific knowledge relevant to the interaction. It covers the three types of linguistic knowledge that is most frequently made relevant to the interaction by the instructor using an ESC. The excerpts that will be presented and examined in the analysis exhibit exemplary cases of each identified pattern.

#### **5.3.1. Lexical Meanings as Linguistic Knowledge**

In the one-on-one sessions, ESCs are inserted when potential knowledge gaps are interpreted by the instructor during an ongoing IRE sequence with a specific pedagogical goal. Such ESCs are typically focused on lexical items, lexical meanings to be precise, and are followed by the learner claiming a lack of knowledge and the instructor providing an explanation about the focal knowledge of the lexicon to fill the gap. Furthermore, as the instructor presents new knowledge through explanation sequences, the learner then typically claims and/or displays their understanding of the given explanation. However, whether the learner demonstrates their understanding of the given lexical explanation depends on how the ongoing IRE sequence is structured to be accomplished. In this section, two excerpts will be examined and compared—

one in which the learner's demonstration of understanding of the given explanation coincides with the completion of the ongoing IRE sequence and another in which the pedagogical sequence closes while the learner's demonstration of understanding remains unaccomplished.

In the following excerpt, the instructor Tea2 is asking the learner, Chen, a comprehension question based on a textbook passage. The pedagogical objective in this sequence, thus, appears to assess the learner's comprehension of the previously read passage through a series of questions. The following analysis shows how the instructor's ESC is employed to make the learner's insufficient knowledge visible, initiate an explanation on the focal vocabulary, and facilitate the progression of the ongoing question-answer sequence. Prior to the excerpt, Chen has finished reading a textbook passage that describes how Japanese people often believe in multiple gods simultaneously and how monotheists from other countries may find such religious views peculiar.

Excerpt 1 Chen 7.3

1Tea2: isshinkyoo no hito nitotte  
monotheist LK people for  
"To monotheist people"

2Chen: un  
mm-hm  
"Mm-hm."

3Tea2: nihonjin no seekatsu no:,  
Japanese LK life LK

4 donna tokoro ga fushigi ni omoeru no deshoo ka?  
what.kind aspect Sub strange to can.think N Cop Q  
"what aspects of Japanese people's lives do they find curious?"

5 (2.0)

6Chen: ee:: nanka  
like  
"Uh:: like"

7Tea2: un  
Mm-hm  
"Mm-hm."

- 8 (0.4)
- 9Chen: kurushii koto ya kanashii koto?  
painful think and sad thing  
“Something painful or sad?”
- 10 (0.5)
- 11Tea2:→ u::n, fushigini omou tte dooiu imi ka wakarimasu ka?  
mysterious think QT what meaning Q understand Q  
“H::mm, do you understand/know what ‘to find curious’ means?”
- 12Chen: uun:  
no  
“No.”
- 13Tea2: a, hontooni?  
really  
“Oh, really?”
- ((lines 14-35 omitted))
- 36Tea2: soo tatoeba ano: harii pottaa toka[:  
right example Harry Potter etc.  
“and so for example, um: something like Harry Potter’s”
- 37Chen: [un un  
Mh-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 38Tea2: no sekai wa totemo fushigina sekai desu ne  
LK world Top very mysterious world Cop FP  
“world is a very *fushigi* [mysterious/curious] world.”
- 39Chen: a!, [fushigi, [a:  
mysterious  
“Oh! *Fushigi*, oh.”
- 40Tea2: [un [soo soo soo  
Mm-hm. yes yes yes  
“Mm-hm. Yes, yes, yes.”
- 41 a, wakarimashita ka? [fushigi  
understood Q mysterious  
“Oh, do you understand now? [The word] *fushigi*?”
- 42Chen: [aa: soo ne  
right FP  
“Yes, I think so.”
- ((lines 43-62 omitted))
- 63Tea2: [isshinkyoo no hito nitotte:  
monotheist LK people for  
“To monotheist people:”

- 64Chen: hai  
yes  
“Yes.”
- 65Tea2: nihonjin no seekatsu no:  
Japanese LK lives LK  
66 donna tokoro ga fushigini omou no deshoo ka?  
What.kind aspect S mysterious think N Cop.maybe Q  
“what aspects of Japanese people’s lives do they find curious?”
- 67Chen: aa:: tokidoki: [etto kamisama to:  
sometimes umm god and  
“Oh:: sometimes: um, with gods and:”
- 68Tea2: [un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 69 un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 70Chen: hoka no sama to:  
other LK gods with  
“other gods:”
- 71Tea2: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 72Chen: doojini matsuru koto  
simultaneously pray thing  
“simultaneously pray to [them all]”
- 73Tea2: UN  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 74Chen: ga de- dekiru kara  
S can.do because  
“because [they] can do [that].”
- 75Tea2: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 76 (0.5)
- 77Chen: desu kara  
Cop because  
“[that] is why.”
- 78Tea2: un, kara fushigi na n desu ne  
mm-hm because mysterious Cop N Cop FP  
“Mm-hm. [That is] why [they] find it curious, yes.”

79Chen:        hai  
               yes  
               “Yes.”

80Tea2:        [hai  
               yes  
               “Yes.”

81Chen:        [dakara fushigi na n desu  
                   because mysterious Cop C Cop  
                   “That is why [they] find it curious.”

82Tea2:        soo desu ne  
                   right Cop FP  
                   “That’s right.”

83                arigatoogozaimasu  
                   thank.you  
                   “Thank you.”

From line 1 to line 4, the instructor takes several turns to formulate and ask a comprehension question, “For monotheists, what aspects of Japanese people’s lives do they find curious?” In response, Chen first utters, “Something painful or sad?” (line 9). This utterance seems to refer to part of the textbook passage in which it is said that many Japanese people pray only when they are going through something painful or obstacles. The response by Chen thus appears to be an attempt to answer the given question by using the content of the text. Since this response does not adequately answer the given question, however, it results in a pause in the following turn (line 10). After the short pause, the instructor inserts an ESC, “Do you understand what *‘fushigini omou’* (‘to find curious’) means?” (line 11). This question displays that the instructor has interpreted Chen’s response in line 9 as an attempted but inadequate answer that indicates that she may lack the lexical knowledge of the word “*fushigi*” (“curious/peculiar/mysterious”) and thus makes a claim or display of *knowing* of the lexical knowledge relevant in the next turn. In line 12, Chen then claims her insufficient knowledge, or not *knowing*, of the focal lexical meaning. Subsequently, in lines 14-35 (omitted in the transcript), given the claim of insufficient knowledge, the instructor explains the meaning of the lexical item “*fushigi*” by

providing some situations in which one would use the word. This attempt, however, does not solicit a claim of understanding of the given explanation from Chen. Therefore, in lines 36 and 38, the instructor further explains how Harry Potter’s world can be described as “*fushigi*.” This finally solicits a change-of-state token (e.g., Heritage, 1984b; Endo, 2018) from Chen (line 39). Subsequently, the instructor asks an understanding check question, “*wakarimashita ka?*” (“Did [Do] you understand [it now]?” (line 41), which solicits a claim of *understanding* from Chen in the next turn (line 42).

Having solicited this claim of understanding, the instructor re-reads the textbook passage relevant to the comprehension question (omitted in the transcript) and poses the previous question again, “For monotheists, what aspects of Japanese people’s lives do they find curious?” (lines 63-66). Chen then provides an answer that describes how Japanese people praying for different gods simultaneously may seem curious to others (lines 76-77). Since this answer displays her accurate comprehension of the question as well as relevant passage, the instructor closes the current question-answer sequence and moves on to the next sequence.

This segment illustrates some noteworthy points. First, the instructor’s ESC displays her interpretation and speculation, based on the given inadequate answer to a comprehension question, of the specific linguistic knowledge that the learner may lack. What needs to be highlighted here is that the learner does not show an overt display of her insufficient knowledge of the lexicon. Rather, the instructor speculates and interprets the learner’s response relying on a given response that does not sufficiently and/or accurately answer the preceding comprehension question.

Furthermore, the learner’s claim of insufficient knowledge about the lexical item prompts the instructor to provide a vocabulary explanation. This form-focused sequence that contingently

emerges from the learner's claim of insufficient knowledge is also found in Sert's (2011) study. Like this previous study, therefore, the current study also shows that an instructor attempts to fill in the knowledge gap by giving an explanation on the focal object in order to accomplish an ongoing pedagogical activity.

The third point, which is related to the second point, is that the learner's answer in the current data to the re-postulated question not only displays her comprehension of the question and the passage but also *demonstrates* her understanding of the preceding lexical explanation. In the cases from Sert's (2011) study, lexical explanations are typically followed by the students' claim of understanding of the lexical explanation. The current excerpt thus differs in the way that it exhibits a case in which the learner's demonstration of understanding is accomplished sequentially through the re-attempt to answer the comprehension question. Even though Chen only makes claims of understanding of the focal lexicon immediately after the instructor's explanation (line 42), answering the comprehension question that contains the focal lexical item requires the semantic knowledge of the word. Chen's appropriate answer hence displays her having gained understanding of the focal lexical meaning. However, this type of demonstration of understanding after an explanation is not accomplished in all cases identified in the current data. The next segment will show such a case where the way in which the ongoing IRE is completed does not structurally prompt the learner to display their understanding of the preceding lexical explanation.

In this excerpt, we have also seen the two types of "interactional objects" (Koole, 2010) that are made relevant to the talk. While the "Did [Do] you understand?" question (line 41) invites a claim of *understanding* of the preceding vocabulary explanation, the ESC (the "Do you understand/know?" question) (line 11) makes a claim/display of *knowing* of the lexical

knowledge relevant in the next turn. It is important to note here again that these two interactional objects do not necessarily refer to different cognitive states of the same focal lexicon. Rather, interactionally speaking, they are distinguished in a way that while *understanding* refers to whether or not the preceding explanation sequences are comprehended by the recipient, *knowing* refers to whether or not the focal knowledge specified in the “Do you understand/know?” question is currently possessed by the hearer. This distinction is important, since, as shown in Koole’s (2010) study, “do/did you understand” questions after a lexical explanation are typically followed by only a claim of understanding. In other words, unlike “do you know” questions that structurally prefer demonstration of *knowing*, “do you understand” questions do not always solicit the learner’s display of understanding. In the next excerpt, the analysis will show such a case in which demonstration of understanding after a lexical explanation remains unaccomplished.

The following excerpt depicts an interaction between instructor Teal and learner Lisa. In the segment, the instructor issues an ESC contingently upon interpreting Lisa’s insufficient knowledge of a specific lexical item that the instructor has been attempting to elicit throughout the interaction. Like in Excerpt 1, the ESC is followed by the learner’s display of no knowledge and further by the instructor’s lexical explanation of the focal item. However, it differs in that the ongoing pedagogical sequence closes without soliciting the learner’s demonstration of understanding of the explanation at the end.

Prior to this segment, the instructor has asked when Lisa began learning Japanese. As the interaction progresses, the instructor’s pedagogical goal—to elicit the lexical item “*kikkake*” (“a key event that has inspired someone to do something”)—emerges and becomes observable (see Chapter 4 for a complete transcription of the interaction). Although Lisa has been answering the

given questions that explicitly ask for her “*kikkake*” for studying Japanese, she has not produced responses that use the target form. The following excerpt begins with the instructor asking another question that re-attempts to elicit the focal form “*kikkake*” from Lisa.

Excerpt 2 Lisa 7.25 (4) Scaffolding a elicitation question

- 48Tea1: ja, sore wa: a! nihongo hajimeyou tte iu  
then that Top Japanese start:vol QT say
- 49 nihongo o hajimeru kikkake: desu ka:?  
Japanese O start reason Cop Q
- 50 nihon ni: kyonen no ryokoo?  
Japan to last.year LK trip  
“So, was that your primary reason that made you think, like, ‘oh! I want to begin studying Japanese’? The last year’s trip to Japan?”
- 51Lisa: ano:  
umm  
“Um:”
- 52 (0.5)
- 53Tea1: → kikkake: wakarimasu ka?  
reason understand Q  
“Do you understand/know [the word] “*kikkake*”?”
- 54Lisa: u:n kikkake wa:  
reason Top  
“Um, *kikkake* i:s”
- 55Tea1: a kikkake wa ne: kono ka no kotoba desu  
reason Top FP this chapter LK word Cop  
“Oh, *kikkake* is a term from this chapter.”
- ((lines 56-69 omitted))
- 70Tea1: kikkake wa ne:  
reason Top FP  
“*Kikkake* i:s”
- 71 (3.0) ((Tea1 looking through the textbook))
- 72 ichiban shita desu, nihyaku gojyuu go peeji no ichiban shita  
most below Cop two.hundred fifty five page LK most below  
“At the very bottom. The very bottom of page 255.”
- 73Lisa: aa oh (.)  
oh  
“Ah, oh.”
- 74 aa, a, soo desu  
right Cop

- “Ah, oh, right.”
- 75 (0.5)
- 76 .hh kuizu kinoo to omoimasu, demo moo wasure(h)mashita(h)  
quiz yesterday QT think but already forgot  
“[I] think it [was on] yesterday’s quiz. But I forgot already.”
- ((line 77-92 omitted))
- 93Tea1: jaa sono Lisa san no: benkyoo no nihongo no kikkake wa:  
then that Lisa Ms. LK study LK Japanese LK reason Top  
“Then, well, your *kikkake* (primary reason) to study Japanese wa:s”
- 94Lisa: aa[::  
“Ohh::.”
- 95Tea1: [kyonen no ryokoo desu ka?  
last.year LK trip Cop Q  
“last year’s trip?”
- 96Lisa: hai, kyonen no ryokoo wa (0.3)  
yes last.year LK trip Top  
“Yes, last year’s trip was(0.3)”
- 97 a, nihongo no benkyoosuru koto no kikkake wa  
Japanese LK do.study. think LK reason Top  
“Oh, [my] primary reason to study Japanese was”
- 98 nihon ni (0.2) ryokoo shita koto desu.  
Japan to trip did thing Cop  
“last year’s trip to Japan.”
- 99Tea1: a, hai: arigato:  
yes thank.you  
“Ah, yes. Thank you.”

In lines 48 to 50, the instructor asks a question based on the topic that they have been discussing thus far: “So, that wa:s your primary reason to start Japanese? Last year’s trip to Japan?” However, Lisa only responds with, “Um::” (line 51), followed by a relatively long pause (line 52). The instructor then inserts an ESC, “Do you understand/know [the word] ‘*kikkake*’ (“a key event that has inspired someone to do something?”) (line 53). This ESC displays that the instructor has understood Lisa’s pause as an indication that she potentially does not possess the full knowledge of the lexical item “*kikkake*” used in the previous questions. Since Lisa does not display her knowing of the focal lexical item in the subsequent turn (line 54), the

instructor initiates a sequence that focuses on a vocabulary explanation (lines 55-69 omitted in the transcript). In this explanation, she uses some example sentences in which the term can be used (lines 55-69 omitted in the transcript). However, Lisa still does not provide any claims or displays of understanding. Given the lack of indication that Lisa has understood the focal word, the instructor then turns to the textbook and locates the page in which the meaning of the word is written in English (line 72), attempting to establish the mutual knowledge regarding the focal lexicon. It should be noted, however, that the meaning of the word “*kikkake*” listed on the textbook is translated as “a trigger,” which does not sufficiently capture the connotation of the focal lexicon. Given this, it remains questionable as to whether this textbook definition of the word helps Lisa understand its meaning better at this point.

Subsequently, despite this inadequate definition provided by the textbook, in lines 73 and 74, Lisa finally provides several change-of-state tokens (Endo, 2018; Heritage, 1984b), thereby claiming her understanding of the focal lexicon. She also provides an account that she had a vocabulary quiz that included this word the day before but forgot its meaning already (line 76). Treating this claim as a sufficient indication that Lisa now understands the focal lexical item, the instructor re-asks the question, “So your ‘*kikkake*’ (‘a key event that has inspired someone to do something’) to study Japanese was your trip to Japan last year?” (lines 93 and 95). Lisa responds to this question by almost completely repeating the instructor’s wording with simple ending modifications to turn it into an answer. The instructor then closes the sequence.

This excerpt illustrates that the instructor inserts an ESC to identify the learner’s lexical knowledge gap, initiate the vocabulary explanation, and further facilitate the elicitation practice that prompts the learner to use a targeted linguistic form. In the current segment, the absence of the targeted form, “*kikkake*,” in the learner’s previous responses as well as the delay in her

response after the re-attempt to elicit the form (line 52) trigger the insertion of the vocabulary-focused ECS. Similarly to Excerpt 1, the learner's subsequent display of lack of knowledge is followed by the instructor's vocabulary explanation, which is employed to fill the identified knowledge gap. As the primary objective of the elicitation sequence is to have the learner incorporate the focal lexicon in her response, however, the ongoing pedagogical sequence closes without the learner actually *demonstrating* her understanding of what the target lexical item means in a precise manner. Notably, Lisa's response to the last question (lines 93 and 95) is a mere repetition of the instructor's question in terms of linguistic components and structure. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, although Lisa looks at the textbook vocabulary list that provides a definition of the focal lexicon, the only listed definition of the word "*kikkake*" is "trigger." A better translation of "*kikkake*," however, again would be "a primary event that gets someone start doing a particular thing." Thus, the given definition does not adequately describe the term's meaning and use. In other words, it is possible that Lisa's response (line 96-98) could have been produced without a complete understanding of the target language form and does not adequately demonstrate whether or not she has actually understood the meaning of the focal lexical item provided through the preceding explanation or the textbook explanation. Moreover, it should be remarked that Lisa is a heritage learner of Japanese, and there might not thus be a specific event that inspired her to study Japanese in the first place. In this excerpt, Lisa is in a way possibly forced to use this lexicon "*kikkake*" that does not align with her experiences. In any case, the demonstration of understanding of the explanation regarding the focal lexical item remains unaccomplished in this excerpt.

### 5.3.2. Grammatical Terms as Linguistic Knowledge

In this section, I will examine cases in which ESCs are inserted and embedded within a repair sequence. During the one-on-one instructional sessions, repair sequences concerning language forms can be initiated by either an instructor or a learner. However, regardless of the initiator, participants often show a structural preference toward accomplishing self-repair. In such repair sequences, an ESC is inserted when an instructor orients to or makes relevant a piece of related grammatical knowledge – a grammatical term – that is deemed necessary for the self-repair. This knowledge is, however, negotiable, and thus interactionally managed. The following analysis focuses on cases in which a similar grammatical issue becomes a foci in a repair sequence. Despite the similar grammatical focus, however, the analysis illustrates how differently an instructor and a learner negotiate and frame their epistemic issues in order to resolve an ongoing repair sequence.

In Excerpt 3, the instructor (Tea1) inserts an ESC after initiating a repair sequence of a conjugation error contained in the learner's (Sara's) immediately preceding utterance. The analysis here will show how the instructor modifies the design of her ESC in response to the learner's claim of insufficient knowledge in order to solicit the learner's display of relevant grammatical knowledge and further facilitate the repair sequence. Prior to the excerpt, the instructor and the learner have been talking about national sports in the learner's home country. Immediately preceding line 1 below, the learner made a comment that synchronized diving is a representative sport in China.

Excerpt 3 Sara 7.4. (3)

1Tea1: chuugoku no daihyootekina supootsu desu ka? tobikomi ga?  
 China LK representative sport Cop Q synchronized.diving S  
 “Is it [really] a representative sport in China? Synchronized diving?”

2 (0.8)

- 3Sara: hai (0.3) etto: nan to iu  
yes umm what QT say  
“Yes. (0.3) Um, what should I say?”
- ((4~14 lines omitted))
- 15 =ano: tatoeba watashi wa (0.3) kono (0.2) kono futari no (0.8)  
umm for.example I Top this this two.people LK  
“Um, for example, I (0.3) If [the way] these- (0.2) These two people”
- 16 mawaru koto wa- (0.2) no wa, chigaunareba (0.3) dame desu.  
spin thing Top N LK if.differ no.good Cop  
“flip is- [does not synch but] different, that is not good.”
- 17Tea1: a: chiga- chigau no ba foomu  
differ LK form  
“Oh, the *ba* form of “*chigau*” [to differ]”
- 18Sara: no ba foomu?  
LK form  
“The *ba* form?”
- 19Tea1: → ba foomu wakarimasu?  
form understand  
“Do you understand/know *ba* form?”
- 20Sara: chotto wakarimasen  
little don't.understand  
“[I don't] really understand.”
- 21Tea1: tatoeba tara foomu?  
for.example form  
“For instance, *tara* form?”
- 22Sara: tara foomu? to iu no [wa  
form QT say N Top  
“*Tara* form? What's that?”
- 23Tea1: [kondishonaru desu  
conditional Cop  
“Conditional [form].”
- 24 (0.5)
- 25Tea1: tatoeba iku no ba foomu wa ikeba  
for.example go LK form Top if.go  
“For instance, the *ba* [conditional] form of [the verb] ‘*iku* [to go]’ is ‘*ike-ba*.’”
- 26Sara: a, soo desu ka  
right Cop Q  
“Oh, I see.”
- 27Tea1: chigau no ba foomu nan desu ka  
differ LK form what Cop Q  
“What is the *ba* form of ‘*chigau*?’”

- 28 (0.4)
- 29Sara: chigaeba?  
If.differ  
“*Chigaeba?*”
- 30Tea1: soo desu soo desu  
right Cop right Cop  
“Yes, that’s right.”
- 31Sara: a, soo desu [ka  
right Cop Q  
“Oh, I see.”
- 32Tea1: [un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 33 (0.2)
- 34 futari no:  
two.people LK  
“If [the way] two people:”
- 35Sara: ano: mawaru koto o chigaeba, dame desu.  
umm spin thing O differ no.good Cop  
“Um, flip different, that is not good.”
- 36Tea1: aa: anmari yokunai n desu n[e:  
not.really no.good N Cop FP  
“Ah, so that is not very good.”
- 37Sara: [hai  
yes  
“Yes.”
- 38Tea1: un:  
yes  
“Okay.”

In response to Sara’s comment preceding the excerpt, the instructor asks a question, “Is it [really] a representative sport in China? Synchronized diving?” (line 1), which requests further information from the learner. Therefore, Sara explains how Chinese people like watching two athletes flipping in a beautifully synchronized manner (omitted in the transcript). She then further elaborates on this by uttering, “For instance, if the way these two people flip [does not synch but] differs, that is not good” (lines 15-16). Notably, this utterance from lines 15 to 16 contains a grammatical error. More specifically, “*chigau-nareba*” needs to be “*chigae-ba*” (“if

differs”) for its form to be more accurate. Given this grammatical issue of form, the instructor utters in the next turn, “Oh, the *ba* [conditional] form of ‘*chigau*’...” (line 17), which initiates a repair sequence by specifying the categorical form that needs to be repaired. The instructor’s repair initiation, however, in turn receives a repair initiation from the Sara, who displays her perplexity and insufficient knowledge of the grammatical term, “*ba* form” (line 18). Given this repair initiation, the instructor inserts an ESC, “Do you understand/know ‘*ba* form?’” (line 19). This question displays that the instructor is interpreting Sara’s potential insufficient knowledge in regard to the term, and possibly by extension its conjugations, indicated by the learner’s repair initiation in the preceding turn. In response to this ESC, the learner utters, “[I don’t] really understand” (line 20), claiming her insufficient knowledge of the term. The instructor then follows up with, “For instance, *tara* form?” (line 21), which provides another term that refers to a grammatically similar conditional form and thereby re-attempts to solicit the Sara’s knowledge. Sara, however, still shows no sign of knowledge of the term in the next turn. The instructor then partially code-switches to an English word that describes the grammatical category with the statement, “Conditional [form]” (line 23).

It is noteworthy that the instructor uses Japanese-English hybrid word “*ba*-form” to refer to the focal conditional form until line 23 in which she uses the full English word “conditional form.” This term seems to come from the textbook term that refers to this conditional form (Banno, et al., 2020). Although the word “conditional” is pronounced as a loanword with a Japanese accent, this code-switching to an English word resembles the way in which the teacher in Sert’s (2011) study code-switches to the students’ L1 in order to pursue the establishment of mutual knowledge. The instructor in the one-on-one instructional session above, therefore, similarly seems to be showing contingent sensitivity toward Sara’s claim and display of not

knowing the grammatical term by sequentially modifying her follow-up questions to establish mutually shared knowledge.

Despite the instructor's many attempts to solicit the Sara's knowledge of the conditional form, however, Sara still does not exhibit a claim or display of linguistic knowledge up to this point of the ongoing sequence. This results in another pause (line 24). To try to secure and establish mutual knowledge, the instructor attempts to provide an example of a conjugated verb in the conditional form to illustrate her point: "For instance, the *ba* [conditional] form of [the verb] 'to go' is '*ike-ba*'" (line 25). Sara then finally provides a claim of her understanding in the next turn (line 26), which is marked with a change of the state token "*a*" (Endo, 2018; Heritage, 1984b). Interpreting this claim of understanding as an achievement of mutual knowledge, the instructor further asks a display question that prompts Sara to conjugate the targeted verb "*chigau*" and self-repair the previous form herself: "What is a *ba* [conditional] form of [the verb] '*chigau*' ('to differ')?" (line 27). After a short pause, Sara produces the correctly conjugated verb form "*chigae-ba*" (line 28). The fact that this utterance ends with a rising intonation suggests that she is soliciting a confirmation from the instructor. The instructor then provides a confirmation (line 30) and further utters, "The two people: " (line 34), which purposefully leaves the utterance incomplete. This "designedly incomplete utterance" (Koshik, 2002) solicits Sara's co-completion and prompts her to incorporate the repaired item in her response. Once the instructor receives a response with the correctly repaired item, she displays her understanding in the next turn (line 36), reorienting herself toward the progression and to the closure of the current sequence in order to move on to the next question-answer sequence.

In sum, the instructor in the excerpt above inserts an ESC in order to facilitate a repair sequence on a learner's grammatical error involving the conditional form. Initially, the instructor

initiates a repair sequence by identifying the grammatical category (the *ba* conditional form) that is part of the learner's error (line 16) by using the specific grammatical term. Even though this repair initiation (line 17) serves to prompt Sara to self-correct her own utterance, however, Sara shows sign of no knowledge regarding the given grammatical term (line 18). Upon witnessing the learner display a lack of knowledge of the grammatical term, the instructor inserts an ESC to inquire into the learner's epistemic state of this term. More importantly, like sequences identified in Sert's (2011, 2013) studies, the instructor in the current data similarly utilizes code-switching (line 23), explanation by demonstration (line 25), and a designed incomplete utterance (line 34) in order to fill in the identified knowledge gap, solicit a display of understanding from the learner, and further facilitate the self-repair process. An ESC is thus inserted as a practice to not only identify but also establish relevant grammatical knowledge that is required for the learner to self-repair the preceding error.

It should also be noted that the way in which the instructor attempts to solicit and construct mutually shared knowledge changes as the sequence progresses. At first, the instructor uses Japanese-English grammatical terms, "*ba* form" and "*tara* form," in order to check the learner's epistemic state of the knowledge in regard to these grammatical terms. When this attempt fails, she demonstrates how the *ba* form conjugates by proving a concrete example (line 25) and further prompts the learner to conjugate the focal verb form into a conditional form independently (line 27). The instructor thereby solicits the learner's display of understanding of the grammatical term and its conjugation step-by-step, which leads to self-repair. These sequences could also be interpreted as the instructor's attempt to bypass the grammatical term unknown to the learner by prompting her to try conjugating the form herself. These contingently modified attempts to pursuit the establishment of shared knowledge therefore illustrate the

various ways through which grammatical knowledge can be managed, displayed, and co-constructed during pedagogical interactions.

Another point that should be highlighted is that the ESC in this segment displays not only the instructor's interpretation of the learner's potential insufficient linguistic knowledge but also how she has understood the linguistic issues that caused the learner to use an inappropriate form. As described above, the instructor inserts an ESC in a way that specifies a grammatical category, the "*ba* form," which displays her understanding that the mis-conjugation of the *ba* conditional form is the source of the learner's linguistic trouble. This understanding, then, becomes an anchoring point with which the instructor attempts to manage the relevant knowledge in order to prompt the learner to complete a self-repair. In other words, the instructor's ESC in this excerpt projects a specific pedagogical trajectory and shapes the subsequent sequence in a way that imposes a procedural constraint on how the repair sequence will be completed.

This then poses an important question—Was the cause of linguistic trouble only the learner's insufficient knowledge regarding how the conditional form should be conjugated? If we look at the learner's original utterance with the error, "*chigau-nareba*" (line 16), other possible causes of this error can be surmised. One possibility is that the learner was trying to combine the verb "*chigau*" (to differ) with the verb "*naru*" (to become). Although such a compounded verb is ungrammatical, the conjugation of the verb "*naru*" (to become) in its *ba* conditional form is technically accurate. Another possible scenario is that the learner used two conditional forms, the *nara* conditional form and the *ba* conditional form, and erroneously combined the two in the utterance. If this was indeed the case, the learner needed to learn how to distinguish the different conditional forms in order to select the appropriate one depending on the given context. That said, it is difficult to truly identify what exactly led the learner to use an inappropriate form

simply by observing the sequence, as the error can be attributed to a variety of different knowledge gaps. Under such circumstances in which there are several possible causes of an error, the ESC embedded in a repair sequence displays not only the instructor's interpretation of the learner's insufficient knowledge but also the instructor's interpretation of the cause of the grammatical error. As a result, an ESC can shape the way in which the unfolding repair sequence is structured and co-completed. Despite this potential consequence, there are some instances in which such pedagogical projection can be negotiated and altered. The next segment will show such a case in which a learner attempts to negotiate and reshape the trajectory of the ongoing repair sequence.

Excerpt 4 comes from an interaction in which a learner, Chen, is practicing a conversation based on a given can-do statement with instructor Tea2. In the segment, Chen first initiates a repair sequence regarding one of the listed usable expressions on the conversation practice sheet. This repair initiation prompts the instructor to insert an ESC in order to make the Chen's potential insufficient knowledge relevant to the interaction. This displayed interpretation of what the learner needs to know in order to self-repair the utterance is, however, negotiated and altered by the learner herself in the subsequent sequence.

The given prompt on the practice sheet specifies an interactional situation in which participants are asked to engage in a telephone conversation between a store clerk (instructor) and caller (learner). The learner's task is to ask for directions to the store and display their understanding through paraphrasing the given instructions. Line 1 begins with the instructor taking the call from the learner.

<p>① 店に電話をして、道順や目印などについて質問し、その      答えを理解し、言い換えて、確認することができる。</p>	<p>～ばいいんですね      ～あるんですね      まず、そして、それから</p>
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Figure 5.1: Conversational Practice Sheet

Translation: ① Can make a call to a store during which they ask directions, understand the information they are told, and respond to and verify this information accordingly.

Excerpt 4 Chen 7.23.(0)

1Tea2: hai dewa ima kara otsutaeshimasu ne.  
 all.right then now from tell:respectful FP  
 “All right. Then, starting now, I will tell you, okay?”

2Chen: hai  
 yes  
 “Okay.”

3Tea2: shoojaku eki kara:, [massugu iku to sebunirebun ga gozaimasu.  
 Shojaku station from straight go when seven.eleven S exist:respectful  
 “From Shojaku Station, if you go straight, there will be a 7/11.”

4Chen: [hai  
 yes  
 “Okay.”

5Tea2: sochira de migi ni magattekudasai.  
 there at right to turn.please  
 “At that point, please turn right.”

6Chen: a hai, a, sebunirebun ga aru n desu ne  
 yes Seven.eleven S exist N Cop FP  
 “Oh, okay, uh, there will be a 7/11, right?”

7Tea2: hai  
 yes  
 “Yes.”

((lines8-23 omitted))

24Chen: =jaa eeto nanka mazu (0.4) eki ni dete  
 then umm like first station from leave  
 “So, um, like, first, I exit the station”

25Tea2: ha[i  
 yes  
 “Yes.”

26Chen: [sebunirebun o mi(.)ta (0.2) koro wa eetto: (0.2) migi desu

- Seven.eleven O see about.when Top umm right Cop  
 “And at the time [I] see the 7/11, um, [I go] right.”
- 27Tea2: mita toki ni  
 see when at  
 “When [you] see.”
- 28Chen: mita toki ni:  
 see when at  
 “When [I] see.”
- 29Tea2: un  
 mm-hm  
 “Mm-hm.”
- 30Chen: eetto migi ni (0.4) maga- magatte-  
 umm right to turn.and  
 “Umm, [I] tur- tur-“
- 31Tea2: un  
 mm-hm  
 “Mm-hm.”
- 32Chen: maga- maga- (0.3) dooyatte Imagatteiru no yatsu o iimasu ka  
 I ((pointing to the sheet)) (Figure 5.1)  
 how turning LK thing O say Q  
 “Tur- Tur- How do I say the ‘turn’ thing?”
- 33 maga::  
 “Tur::“
- 34 (0.3)
- 35Tea2: → ba kei wakarimasu ka?=  
 form understand. Q  
 “Do you understand *ba-kei* [conditional form]?”
- 36 =ba foomu  
 form  
 “*Ba* form.”
- 37Chen: (0.5) ((looking upward))
- 38 magette no nanka  
 turn.and LK like  
 “The verb ‘turn’'s like.”
- 39Tea2: un  
 mm-hm  
 “Mm-hm.”
- 40Chen: ori- orijinaru foomu wa nan desu ka?  
 original form Top what Cop Q  
 “Wh-What’s the original form?”
- 41Tea2: a <magaru> desu.

turn Cop  
 “Oh, it’s *magaru* [to turn].”  
 42Chen: [maga-  
 “*Maga-* (tur-)”  
 43Tea2: [magatte wa magaru.  
 turn.and Top turn  
 “*Magatte* [comes from] *magaru*.”  
 44 (1.0) ((writing down something on a board))  
 45Chen: maga (0.4) reba;  
 if.turn  
 “*Maga*(0.4)*reba?*”  
 46Tea2: un soo desu  
 yes right Cop  
 “Yes, that’s it.”  
 47Chen: magareba ii n desu ne  
 if.turn good N Cop FP  
 “I should turn [there], right?”  
 48Tea2: hai soo degozaimasu  
 yes right Cop:respectful  
 “Yes, that is correct.”  
 49Chen: hai  
 yes  
 “Okay.”

After the instructor gives directions to the store (lines 1-20 omitted on the transcript), Chen starts working on the task of paraphrasing what the instructor said (“From Shojaku station, if you go straight, you will see a Seven Eleven. At that point, please turn right” (lines 3 and 5)) in order to receive confirmation on her understanding. In line 30, when Chen reaches the point in which she says, “At the time [I] see the Seven Eleven (line 28), um, [I go] right (line 30),” she displays trouble in producing the word “to turn” in its appropriate conjugation and form.

After producing a few more cut-offs, Chen invites assistance in line 32 by explicitly asking the instructor how to use the verb “to turn” in the form listed as a usable expression on the practice sheet. In this instance, Chen both displays her insufficient knowledge related to the verb conjugation and also concurrently orients herself to the practice sheet by pointing to one of the

listed forms on the practice sheet (see the red box in Figure 5.1). This action displays that Chen is orienting to using this listed expression to which she points, which requires her to conjugate the verb “to turn” into the *ba* conditional form. After a short pause, the instructor subsequently inserts an ESC, “Do you understand/know *ba kei* [conditional form]?” (line 34), which she quickly restates into the English word “form” in the next turn (“*ba* [conditional] form”) (line 35). This ESC displays that the instructor interprets Chen’s question to mean that she does not know the *ba* conditional form and hence cannot conjugate the form herself.

In the next turn, instead of responding to this ESC, however, Chen asks for the original, or dictionary, form of the verb “to turn” (lines 38 and 40). This question thus rejects the instructor’s interpretation regarding Chen’s insufficient knowledge of the grammatical form and further reshapes the interpretation by displaying that she needs to know the dictionary form of the verb in order to self-repair her utterance. In response to Chen’s question, the instructor provides the dictionary form slowly, “Oh, it’s *magaru* [to turn]” (line 41). Subsequently, Chen writes something down on a board (line 44), which is supposedly the given original verb form, and utters, “*maga* (0.4) *reba;*” (line 45). This utterance produces a correctly conjugated conditional form with the type of rising intonation that solicits confirmation from the instructor. Once she receives the confirmation she seeks, Chen then produces a full sentence that appropriately conjugates the verb “to turn” in accordance with the listed expression on the practice sheet: “[So] making a right turn [there], isn’t that right?” (line 47). This sentence shows Chen’s re-orientation toward the progression of practice conversation. In response, the instructor co-orient towards the same progression by using highly polite language that indicates a return to her role as the store clerk (line 48).

The two excerpts in this section have shown that the way in which epistemic issues regarding grammatical forms are made relevant to pedagogical interactions has procedural consequences on the outcomes of such sequences. The analysis here has illustrated that the ESC embedded in a repair sequence displays how exactly an instructor interprets where the linguistic problem is located in a learner's error. This then carries significant consequence as to how the sequence will be managed in the subsequent sequence. In Excerpt 3, the instructor structurally makes it clear that the focal problem of the interaction is the conjugation of the conditional form. This then shapes the trajectory of the unfolding repair sequence. In Excerpt 4, although the instructor initially displays her interpretation of what specific grammatical knowledge the learner may lack, Chen manages to negotiate this interpretation in order to accomplish self-repairing. As the grammatical trouble that a learner displays can be attributed to different factors, an instructor needs to correctly identify a relevant knowledge gap which needs to be filled.

Furthermore, the analysis thus far suggests that instructors tend to assume linguistic problems from the learners' preceding utterances and construct the following sequence in a way that structurally forces the learner to align with the interpretation. This tendency is also found in Koole's (2012) study, in which math teachers presume learners' problems and structure the sequence according to such assumption. Koole finds that this sometimes results in a mismatch between the sequential outcome and the learner's actual problem. With the given findings of the current analysis, I would also argue that, even though there are some learners, like in Excerpt 4, who can actively reformulate the relevant grammatical problem and establish shared knowledge necessary to accomplish self-repairing, instructors should be aware of how their practices, such as ESCs, can project and shape the trajectory of the unfolding pedagogical sequence. This is because it is not always the case that there is one single knowledge gap that causes a linguistic

error. The awareness of the potential impact of ESC therefore becomes important, especially if their pedagogical goal is to identify a precise cause of a given linguistic trouble, fill in the relevant knowledge gap, and assist a learner to be equipped with the linguistic knowledge to self-repair or produce a more linguistic appropriate form next time.

### 5.3.3. Metalinguistic Knowledge as Linguistic Knowledge

Another commonly identified ESC in the current data appears at the end of a pedagogical sequence in a way that retrospectively orients to a learner's erroneous language use in previous sequences. This type of ESC displays the instructor's interpretation that the learner's language use in the preceding turns can be an indication of potentially insufficient knowledge. The instructor thus inserts this ESC in order to examine the learner's epistemic state of the identified linguistic knowledge in question.

In Excerpt 5 below, the learner, Emma, and the instructor Tea2 are talking about a popular Japanese street food, *takoyaki* ("octopus balls"). This discussion is prompted by a can-do statement in the conversational practice sheet that suggests a practice conversation should emulate one between friends at lunch time, during which both parties comment on food that they are eating. Prior to the excerpt, per the given prompt, Emma has been describing the appearance, taste, and texture of the Japanese street food, *takoyaki*.

<p>② 友達と一緒に食事をしているとき、食べ物の味や見た目について「辛くて美味しいですね」など、感想を言い合ったり、ほめたりすることができる。また、その際に作った人への感謝の気持ちを表すことができる。</p>	<p>～の中で一番～ こんなに どうやったら</p>
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Figure 5.2: Conversational Practice Sheet

Translation: ② When dining with friends, can comment on the food's flavor and appearance (e.g. "It's spicy and delicious"), say and respond to reactions [to food], compliment [the food], etc. Can also express thanks to someone who has made the food.

Excerpt 5 Emma 7.3.(2)

1Emma: → etto (0.4) dooyatte (0.4) nanka (0.3) soto ga katakute  
 umm how like outside S hard  
 "Uh (0.4) how (*dooyatte*) (0.4) do [you]like (0.3) [make] the outside hard"

2Tea2: un  
 mm-hm  
 "Mm-hm."

3Emma: naka ga (0.7) nanka (0.4) .hh nan te iu [.hh  
 inside S like what QT say  
 "and the inside (0.7) like (0.4) how to say?"

((lines 4-7 omitted))

8Emma: fuwafuwa (0.5) tsukureru no kana  
 fluffy can.make N FP  
 "fluffy (0.5) I wonder?"

((lines 9-16 omitted))

17Tea2: chinamini: sakki dooyatte to ittemashita kedo  
 by.the.way earlier how QT said but  
 "By the way, earlier, [you] said '*dooyatte*' ('how')."

18Emma: dooyatta[ra  
 how.can  
 "Dooyattara (How can I)"

19Tea2:→ [dooyatte to dooyattara no chigai wa wakarimasu ka?  
 how and how.can LK difference Top understand Q  
 "Do you understand the difference between *dooyatte* (how) and *dooyattara* (how can)?"

20 (1.0)

21Emma: u::n (0.4) nanka  
 umm like  
 "U::mm (0.4) like"

22Tea2: u[n  
 mm-hm  
 "Mm-hm."

23Emma: [>dooyattara wa:< moshi[: [toka:  
 how.can Top if like  
 "Dooyattara is like 'if' and"

24Tea2: [un [un un un

yes yes yes yes  
 “Mm-hm. Yeah, yeah, yeah.”

- 25Emma: nanka (0.3) kangaeru [koto  
 like thinking thing  
 “Like (0.3) something to do with thinking.”
- 26Tea2: [un un un  
 yes yes yes  
 “Yeah, yeah, yeah.”
- 27Emma: etto dooyatte wa: motto: (0.3) honto no: [koto  
 umm how Top more real LK thing  
 “Um, *dooyatte* i:s more like (0.3) an actual thing.”
- 28Tea2: [soo desu ne  
 right Cop FP  
 “Yes, that’s right.”
- 29 yarikata: [tte kanji desu ne  
 a.way.of.doing QT like Cop FP  
 “Like a way of doing.”
- 30Emma: [hai  
 yes  
 “Yes.”
- 31Tea2: un, chotto imi ga chigau kara:,  
 yes little meaning S different because  
 “Right. The meanings are a bit different, so:”
- 32 tabun dooyattara tte itta hoo ga ii desu ne, un.  
 maybe how.can QR say way S good Cop FP yes  
 “[in this case you] should say *dooyattara* [instead], mm-hm.”
- 33Emma: hai  
 yes  
 “Okay.”
- 34Tea2: demo ii to omoimasu  
 but good QT think  
 “But I think that was good.”
- 35 (0.2)
- 36Emma: [°hai° ((nodding))  
 yes  
 “Okay.”
- 37Tea2: [hai  
 yes  
 “Yes.”

From lines 1 to 8 (partially omitted in the transcript), Emma asks the instructor, “How do [you] make the outside [of this kind of *takoyaki*] hard and the inside fluffy, I wonder?” In response, the instructor utters, “Perhaps only professionals can make it like this” (line 10) (omitted in the transcript). Emma acknowledges this response (line 11), and they close the practice sequence based on the given prompt (lines 12-16) (omitted in the transcript).

After closing the conversation practice sequence, the instructor initiates a turn by saying, “*chinamini*” (line 17), roughly translated as “by the way,” thereby projecting the initiation of a side sequence (Jefferson, 1972). She then continues to say, “Earlier, [you] said ‘*dooyat-te*’” (line 17), retrospectively orienting toward Emma’s previous language use in line 1. In the next turn, Emma utters, “*dooyat-tara*” (“how can”) (line 18), producing a phrase that replaces the “*te*” form part of the previous utterance “*dooyat-te*” with the “*tara*” conditional form.<sup>1</sup> This turn displays that Emma understands the instructor’s utterance in line 17 as a delayed repair initiation and repairs her previous utterance by producing a candidate repair phrase. Despite this correctly repaired phrase, however, the instructor overlappingly proceeds to insert an ESC, “Do you understand/know the difference between ‘*dooyat-te*’ and ‘*dooyat-tara*’?” (line 19).

Having received this ESC that questions her metalinguistic knowledge that is necessary to distinguish between the two similar grammatical forms in explicit terms, Emma explains a situation in which using “*dooyat-tara*” would be more appropriate (line 21 and 23) and further provides a metalinguistic account on the use of “*dooyat-te*” (line 27). Meanwhile, the instructor shows her listenership by producing continuers (lines 22, 24, and 26). After Emma’s explanation, the instructor provides the positive assessment, “That’s right” (line 28), which accepts Emma’s displayed metalinguistic knowledge of the two language forms. While aligning with Emma’s

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<sup>1</sup> While the *te* form is attached to the verb ending and used to simply describe a sequence of actions, the conditional *tara* form is used to describe an “if” condition upon which an occurrence or possibility of next action is dependent.

account, the instructor further provides metalinguistic feedback on the use of “*dooyat-te*” (line 29) and states, “The meanings [between the two forms] are a bit different, so [in this case you] should say ‘*dooya-tara*’ [instead]” (lines 31 to 32). It should be remarked, however, that the instructor’s statement does not necessarily articulate or explain in any ways that clarify the difference between the two forms. Despite this, Emma acknowledges this additional comment in the subsequent turn, and the instructor reorients to the conversation practice sequence by providing an assessment, “But I think that [practice conversation] was good” (line 34), thereby closing both the side and practice sequence.

The instructor’s ESC in the sequence above illustrates several important points. First, this ESC is produced immediately after the learner self-corrects her previous utterance into a more grammatically appropriate version (line 18) that displays her understanding of the preceding delayed repair initiation and what linguistic form should have been used. The fact that the instructor inserts the ESC even after this learner’s self-repair suggests that the instructor is not interpreting the repairing as evidence of the learner’s knowledge that sufficiently differentiates between *dooyat-te* and *dooyat-tara*. In other words, changing one from to the other does not necessarily demonstrate her relevant metalinguistic knowledge that provides a reason as to why the preceding utterance was inappropriate. In fact, replacing the linguistic element in the previous utterance with a more appropriate alternative form does not necessarily require an accurate metalinguistic knowledge of the forms, as the alternative *dooyat-tara* form is listed on the conversation practice sheet in use during this session (Figure 5.2). Instead, the instructor appears to interpret the learner’s previous erroneous use of the form as attributed to the learner’s lack of relevant metalinguistic knowledge and thus inserts an ESC. This sequence therefore suggests that the epistemic state of knowledge can be accessed in different ways. In some

contexts, self-correction of inappropriate language uses, even after pointed out by others, can be interpreted as having the necessary linguistic knowledge for accurate self-correction. However, like in the current case, other-initiated self-correction is not always interpreted as a display of sufficient knowledge. In a way, therefore, by inserting an ESC, the instructor redirects and specifies the manner through which the learner's linguistic knowledge should be displayed in the following sequence.

The second related point is that this ESC identified in the excerpt shows the instructor's orientation toward constructing a specific language learning opportunity. That is, it implies her conceptualization of learning as becoming metalinguistically more knowledgeable about Japanese language. Metalinguistic knowledge is typically defined as explicit knowledge about the target language (Ellis, 2004) that can be utilized "to correct, describe, and explain L2 errors" (Roehr, 2008; p. 173). It can then be argued that what the instructor is oriented toward with an ESC is to assess and further provide such knowledge so as to develop a learner's competence to modify and produce linguistically more accurate utterances in the future. Furthermore, the instructor tends to insert this ESC that makes a display of metalinguistic knowledge relevant to the interaction especially when the learner's error is concerned with two similar linguistic structures or items (6 out of 50 cases). This suggests that, even though errors related to such resembling structures are often either self-repaired or repaired by participants, the instructor is concerned with the precise knowledge that differentiates those structures. The ESC therefore becomes a suitable practice to examine a learner's metalinguistic knowledge and construct a learning opportunity through which the instructor can fill in a learner's potential knowledge gap to help them become more linguistically capable of monitoring their own language use.

In summary, this excerpt demonstrates how an instructor utilizes an ESC to retrospectively orient to a learner's prior erroneous language use and make this learner's epistemic state of linguistic knowledge relevant to the interaction. In that sense, the ESC here displays the instructor's interpretation of the learner's inappropriate language use as an indication that they may lack the relevant metalinguistic knowledge. The analysis also illuminates the instructor's orientation toward a different type of learning opportunities. That is, in addition to self-correcting their own erroneous language uses, the way in which an ESC is inserted displays that the instructor makes sure that the learner is equipped with necessary metalinguistic knowledge that facilitates and, more importantly, explains their self-correction. This ESC thus displays the instructor's orientation to facilitating a particular kind of L2 learning: developing the learner's explicit linguistic knowledge.

#### **5.4. Summary**

In the current chapter, I have examined interactional sequences in which learners' epistemic state of specific linguistic knowledge is made relevant, managed, and established interactionally via instructors' use of ESCs. In my analysis, I identified three types of linguistic knowledge made relevant to the interaction by an instructor using an ESC: lexical meanings, grammatical terms, and metalinguistic knowledge. In each case, the ESC displays the instructor's interpretation of the learner's preceding turns as potentially lacking specific linguistic knowledge. The instructor thus inserts the ESC in order to make the learner's epistemic state of the linguistic knowledge relevant to the interaction and further examine, negotiate, and establish it in the following sequence.

When insufficient knowledge is claimed or displayed by the learner, my analysis has found that instructors in the one-on-one sessions often produce explanation sequences to fill the identified knowledge gap. However, my findings also indicate that, even when particular linguistic knowledge is made relevant and explained explicitly in following sequences, the learner's demonstration of (gained) understanding is not always achieved. In fact, the excerpts analyzed above show that whether or not such display of understanding of a given explanation is accomplished, to some extent, depends on how the ongoing pedagogical sequence is structured and unfolds.

My analysis has also illustrated that the insertion of an ESC during one-on-one sessions can be sequentially consequential in that it displays the instructor's presumption as to what linguistic knowledge the learner may be lacking and further (re)shapes the trajectory of the ongoing sequence. As such, learners may be structurally forced to align with the projected trajectory of the sequence. In some cases (as shown in Excerpt 4), however, a learner is able to negotiate and self-identify their own knowledge gap that must be filled for them to produce a linguistically more appropriate utterance.

In addition, the pedagogical goals that the instructors attempt to accomplish with ESCs differ. When lexical knowledge is made relevant, it is often the case that an instructor and a learner are engaged in meaning-focused activities, such as reviewing the content of a textbook reading or soliciting a particular language form through a topic-based conversation. The knowledge about lexical meanings becomes integral for accomplishing such pedagogical activities and is thus made relevant to an interaction. When an instructor prompts a learner to self-repair their own error, that learner's knowledge regarding grammatical terms is solicited so as to make sure that they are sufficiently equipped with relevant knowledge, such as correct

conjugation patterns and the dictionary form of a verb, to conduct a self-repair. The last excerpt of this chapter exemplifies a case of an ESC through which a completely different kind of learning opportunity is constructed. In the following segment, an instructor makes a learner's potentially insufficient metalinguistic knowledge relevant and further articulated, though not adequately. This kind of ESC thus displays that the instructor is orienting themselves toward constructing a learning opportunity for the learner to gain explicit knowledge about the focal linguistic structures.

In L2 classroom interactions, in which one of the primary tasks of the instructor is to facilitate L2 learning through interactions, it is often assumed that a knowledge asymmetry or gap exists between the instructor and the learner and hence can emerge at any point of the interaction. Under such circumstances, interactional management of knowledge becomes an important part of the instructor's work and requires their skills, sometimes referred to as Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh, 2006). The current chapter has demonstrated that instructors' practices involving ESCs play a significant role in the way in which learners' knowledge is made relevant, managed, and displayed during the one-on-one sessions. Such understanding of pedagogical interactions, I believe, can help instructors to critically reflect and modify their key practices so as to be more responsive to learners' emerging needs and conducive to the facilitation of their L2 learning processes.

## Chapter 6

### Embedded Linguistic Tries in One-on-one Instructional Sessions

#### 6.1. Introduction

Learners of language are not just passive participants of pedagogical interactions. From the constructivist perspective that views language learning as a socially accountable interactional endeavor (e.g., Eskildsen & Majlesi, 2018; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee, 2008), learners in language classrooms do not passively process input, nor are they inactive participants who simply follow pedagogically-designed interactions. Even during interactions that are largely constrained by institutional goals and instructors' pedagogical agendas, learners sometimes activate their learner agency in constructing their own learning opportunities (e.g., Sert, 2017; Waring, 2009, 2011; Waring et al., 2016). Other than during teacher-led interactions, it has also been documented that learners co-construct learning moments by initiating word or syntactic search sequences in which learners frequently attempt to elicit confirmation and correction during a candidate searched item/form (e.g., Eskildsen & Theodórsdóttir, 2017; Kivik, 2012; Seo, 2008) or during learner-initiated explicit metalinguistic talks (e.g., Ahn, 2016; Seo, 2008). In this regard, learners in one-on-one instructional sessions are no different. In such cases, learners tend to utilize verbal and non-verbal resources to insert what I refer to as *embedded linguistic try* during a meaning-focused activity. I define embedded linguistic try as a practice through which learners embed a language form, which involves some degree of observable difficulty and/or uncertainty in producing, in an utterance in a way that displays the sense of *trying* but maintains the flow of the ongoing meaning-oriented sequence. As such, how the linguistic try is interpreted and responded to becomes dependent upon the recipient as well as the

learner of the utterance. This chapter examines selected cases of embedded linguistic tries and demonstrates how this practice is interactionally occasioned.

The following excerpt illustrates an exemplary case in which a learner inserts an embedded linguistic try into the interaction. This excerpt is not from the current data set but comes from data of naturally occurring ordinary conversations used as the pilot study of the current research. It is presented for the purpose of demonstrating the way in which embedded linguistic try is inserted into and made relevant to an ongoing talk. In the data, Elly, a Korean learner of Japanese, is talking to her Japanese friend, Kazuo, about weekend plans. Prior to the excerpt, Elly has been telling Kazuo that their mutual friend is planning a ramen party.

Excerpt 1

- 1Kazuo: e iku no?  
go N  
“[You’re] going?”
- 2 (0.3)
- 3Elly: [aa: maa shu-  
FLR well  
“Uhh, well, I-“
- 4Kazuo: [mada kangae chuu?  
yet think during  
“[You’re] still thinking?”
- 5Elly: → un mada, (0.2) wanchanζ(.)iku=  
yes yet a.change go  
“Yeah, (0.2)[there’s] a chanceζ(.) I’ll go.”
- 6Kazuo: =wanchan [iku >kamo(h) shi(h) re(h) [nai  
a.chance go maybe  
“[There’s] a chance you might go?”
- 7Elly: [.hhh [°soo wanchan iku°=  
yes a.chance go  
“(laughter) Yeah, a chance I’ll go.”
- 8Kazuo: =aa umai umai .hh ((Kazuo claps his hands))  
good good  
“Hey, good one, good one. (laughter)”

9Elly:            mada henji shinai kedo  
                   yet    reply    do:NEG but  
                   "I don't answer yet, though."

In line 1, Kazuo asks Elly whether or not she is going to the party. When he does not receive an immediate response (line 2), Kazuo remodels his previous question into “[Are you] still thinking?” (line 4). Elly first responds, “Yeah, still [thinking]” (line 5) and continues to say, “*Wanchan*<sub>i</sub> (.) *iku*” (“[I] might<sub>i</sub> (.) go.”), with a slight rise of intonation and a short pause right after the word “*wanchan*.” This word “*wanchan*” is a Japanese slang word typically used among Japanese youth that is an abbreviation of the English phrase “one chance,” which can be roughly translated into “might” in Japanese. This word is then produced with a so-called “try-marker” (Schegloff, 2007), comprising of a slightly rising intonational contour with a short pause, through which the learner marks the word as a recognizable but possibly inadequate reference to the recipient. This makes Kazuo’s acknowledgement token relevant to the following talk. Right after Elly’s response in line 5, Kazuo displays his understanding by repeating the slang word in an extended sentence (line 6). This turn is further overlapped by Elly’s laughter and results in shared laughter produced simultaneously with the latter part of Kazuo’s utterance (line 6). This shared laughter seems to indicate that both participants recognize the use of the word “*wanchan*” as somehow playful (Cook, 2000) and hence laughable. Elly then confirms his understanding in the following turn (line 7). More significantly, Kazuo subsequently utters, “Oh good one, good one” (line 8), which re-orientates not to the meaning but to the form of Elly’s utterance in line 5 with a form-focused positive assessment on how Elly uses the word “*wanchan*.”

This excerpt demonstrates two important points. First, Elly embeds a *linguistic try* in her response to Kazuo’s initial question (line 5) by marking the target language form with a try-marker and later reorienting to it with her laughter. It should be noted that this linguistic try is *embedded* in a sense that her turn in line 5 is not designed to overtly solicit a form-focused

response from the L1 speaker. In fact, Kazuo simply displays his understanding of her utterance immediately in the next turn without being prompted. Second, even though the occurrence of other uses of “*wanchan*” is not observed in the collected data, Kazuo’s delayed form-oriented assessment (line 8) also displays his recognition of the word and understanding of Elly’s pragmatically appropriate use of the word as something worthy of positive feedback. In other words, the sense of the word *being tried* as a L2 learner is displayed subtly but efficiently by Elly’s tactful use of a try-marker as well as her laughter after the utterance (line 5), which subsequently invites Kazuo’s form-focused assessment. This segment thus illustrates how a learner embeds a self-induced language attempt, or *linguistic try*, during a meaning-focused interaction, and it is subsequently treated as such via an L1 speaker’s form-oriented response.

The analysis in this chapter focuses on similar cases in which learners appear to be doing this *embedded linguistic try*. There are some features to this practice that should be highlighted. The first feature is that, since this linguistic try is embedded in meaning-oriented utterances, the given utterance itself does not structurally anticipate a form-oriented action in the following turn. In other learning sequences, such as word search sequences, learners often place a temporal hold on the ongoing interaction and design their turn as a confirmation check or request for linguistic assistance so as to solicit a form-oriented response in the next turn. In contrast, when doing embedded linguistic try, learners do not seem to display a form-focused orientation to sequentially force the other participant to co-orient to the form. In fact, as mentioned above, Elly’s self-induced *linguistic try* is *embedded* into her response to Kazuo’s question, which turn is then immediately followed by Kazuo’s display of understanding. This indicates that the way in which an embedded linguistic try becomes sequentially consequential depends to some degree on what is being tried out and how the learner and other participant (re)orient to it. Furthermore,

unlike a try-marker that more overtly indicates the learner's uncertainty of their own language choice and use, this chapter's analysis will focus on other vocal and non-vocal features of the learner's focal practice, which, despite its subtlety, receives an instructor's form-oriented response in the following sequences. This means that the attempted nature of an embedded linguistic try is displayed and sufficiently interpreted as such by an instructor in some cases without the presence of more explicitly indicative try-markers. The current chapter specifically analyzes these types of embedded linguistic tries that occur in one-on-one instructional sessions. Furthermore, it aims to explicate and illustrate the way in which learners actively but subtly embed self-repairing in a way that remains linguistically challenging in nature while structurally maintaining the progression of the meaning-oriented interaction.

## **6.2. Literature Review**

Recently, the role of learner agency in pedagogically-driven interactions has been gaining more scholarly attention in CA-based studies (e.g., Sert, 2017; Waring et al., 2016). More specifically, conversation analytic research has examined and revealed ways in which learners take initiative in teacher-led classroom interactions, including volunteer responses (Fagan, 2012; Waring, 2011), student-initiated questions (Waring, 2009), departures from pedagogical sequences (Waring et al., 2016), post-expansions after student-initiated sequences (Jacknick, 2011), and post-expansions after an instructor's feedback in the third turn (Li, 2013). In these studies, such initiative actions from the learner's end are associated with and considered indicative of an exercise of agency, since their initiative is what promotes the "learner-induced relaxation of the structural organization of the [pedagogical] sequence" (Li, 2013: 85) and further leads to learning opportunities (e.g., Walsh, 2002; Waring, 2011). This aforementioned research,

however, only focuses on tightly controlled pedagogical sequences, such as IRE/F sequences, in which there is a clear pedagogical agenda that shapes the way that interactions typically unfold. In such interactions, the occurrences of learner initiative are viable but highly constrained by the way in which the pedagogically-driven sequences are organized (e.g., Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2006) and thus require interactional work that “breaches” such tightly controlled sequences.

In addition to classroom-based CA studies, interactions in which learners are oriented to doing learning during institutionally implemented and less pedagogically-organized interactions also reveal empirical evidence of learner agency (e.g., Van Lier, 2008). In recent past decades, these socially-accomplished learning moments have been empirically demonstrated through the lens of CA perspectives in a vast array of contexts, such as conversational tables (e.g., Mori & Hayashi, 2006), “coffee-hour” (e.g., Kivik, 2012), tutoring sessions (e.g., Kim, 2012; Seo, 2021), and digital language-learning environments (e.g., Kurhila & Kotilainen, 2020). Particularly relevant cases to the current study are those in which learners display their orientation to a specific linguistic element, and thus language learning, while temporarily putting the ongoing meaning-focused activities at hand on hold. During such meaning-focused interactions, learners display their orientation toward a linguistic form through the configurative use of available resources and, with an instructor, co-construct “learning space” (Eskildsen & Theodórsdóttir, 2017) in order to engage in a given learning activity. This socially accountable endeavor requires interactional work on the part of the learner, as differing and potentially conflicting orientations need to be managed and negotiated during these types of meaning/task-oriented interactions (e.g., Mori, 2004). As such, a successful accomplishment of learning beyond what has already been designed in a given activity is dependent on the learner’s active role in co-constructing

learning space with other participants. This type of learner's agency, indicated by learners taking initiative during particular institutionalized interactions, requires further inquiry.

Previous CA-based studies have identified and examined the active construction of learning moments during meaning-focused interactions in institutionalized contexts. Eskildsen and Theodórsdóttir (2017), for instance, examine ESL classroom interactions in which learners engage in free conversation with guest L1 speakers and investigate how L2 learners construct learning spaces during these situations. Their analysis reveals how both learners and L1 speakers utilize verbal resources and gestures to resolve lexical troubles, co-facilitate word search sequences, and even revisit previously unresolved linguistic matters during free talk interactions.

Similarly, Ahn (2016), who focuses on Korean-English language-exchange interactions coordinated by university language programs, conceptualizes learner agency as the display of particular orientations toward doing learning. She examines the way in which learners construct their learning opportunities contingently upon emerging contexts and actively evoke their relative learner identity in a dual-purpose exchange. Her data reveals that learners of both languages often insert metalinguistic side-sequences by asking explicit questions or by raising their intonation to mark focal lexical items, thereby facilitating the development of the sequence via common linguistic resources.

Together, these two studies demonstrate that during institutionally occasioned, meaning-focused interactions, L2 learners often actively orient themselves toward language forms by opening side sequences (Jefferson, 1972) through word searches, metalinguistic questions, and language-related talks. This type of learner-initiated, explicitly form-focused orientation during a meaning-focused interaction is also commonly observed in ordinary conversations that occur outside of the classroom (e.g., Brouwer, 2003, 2004; Theodórsdóttir, 2011, 2018; Hosoda, 2006)

and during conversation-for-learning interactions (e.g., Kim, 2012; Kivik, 2012; Seo, 2021). All of the studies above demonstrate that when learners encounter something linguistically challenging, they make language matters relevant in ways that *explicitly* invite the other participant's linguistic assistance as a form of co-orientation and put the ongoing conversation on hold. The examples in this chapter, however, differ significantly from these previous studies in terms of the way in which a form-focused sequence is achieved. More specifically, my data contains cases in which learners incorporate a linguistically challenging form into their utterances in the ongoing meaning-focused interaction. An instructor or the learner themselves then later orients to this attempt with a form-oriented response despite the absence of an overt solicitation of such type of form-focused utterance.

The act of embedding a form-focused action has been observed in embedded correction in previous CA research that examines L1-L2 interactions (e.g., Brouwer et al., 2004; Kurhila, 2001; Mori & Hayashi, 2006). In embedded correction, typically the L1 speaker corrects a L2 speaker's error in the preceding turn but designs the turn in a way to perform a possible action that corresponds to the given utterance. When embedded correction is issued, therefore, the inappropriate language use in the L2 utterance is repaired without overtly making it a main concern of the ongoing interaction. As such, whether the corrected item is oriented in later sequences varies depending on the learner as well as the given sequential environment. Given these traits, it is rather natural that embedded correction is conducted overwhelmingly by L1 speakers. In the current data set, however, it has been identified that L2 speakers appear to embed a linguistically challenging language use in their utterances while maintaining the progression of the ongoing interaction. More specifically, in the focal cases, learners attempt to incorporate a more linguistically challenging and/or appropriate form in an observable manner

that evokes their L2 learner identity in a way that still propels the ongoing main task of the interaction to the forefront, which an instructor nonetheless responds to with a form-oriented assessment or feedback. This practice is hence referred to as an *embedded linguistic try*.

The following analysis focuses on focal cases in which learners appear to insert an embedded linguistic try during meaning-focused interactions. In this analysis, meaning-focused interactions refer to sequences initially launched by personalized questions by an instructor that aim to solicit learners' expressions of personal meaning on a given topic. The analysis in this chapter is guided by the following two questions:

- 1) What verbal and non-verbal resources do learners utilize to display that a particular language form is *being tried*?
- 2) How do instructors and learners (re)orient themselves to such utterances in order to co-construct them as embedded linguistic tries in subsequent turns?

By addressing these guiding questions, the current chapter strives to analyze the ways in which learners actively and tactfully insert their language attempts into their meaning-making process and the sequential consequences these methods generate in the following sequences depending on how participants (re)orient to them. Ultimately, this type of analysis can provide instructors with some insight as to how to effectively respond to such learner-induced language attempts and maximize learning opportunities during meaning-focused interactions.

### **6.3. Analysis**

The following analysis consists of three sub-sections, each of which focuses on a type of language form being tried. The first section examines excerpts in which learners initiate a self-repair followed by trying a linguistically more appropriate or complex syntactic form. The

second section presents cases in which learners orient to trying a self-selected linguistic form from the textbook while responding to an instructor's question. The last excerpt then exemplifies a case in which a learner retrospectively orients to her embedded linguistic try in the subsequent turns as well as her past learning experience in respect to the focal language form being tried.

### 6.3.1. Embedded Linguistic Try Responded to as Form-focused Utterance

The following segment occurs during a conversational activity prompted by the program's conversational practice sheet, which provides can-do statements as the goals of each conversation (Figure 6.1). The instructor asks the learner, Lisa, to talk about her hometown in Austin, Texas. Immediately prior to the excerpt, Lisa has told the instructor that there are many people out-of-state who attend a music festival in her hometown.

<p>② 調べて準備をすれば、自分の町や日本の有名な観光地 にある名所や名物について、少し詳しく紹介すること ができる。</p>	<p>Translation: "With some preparation and research, I can talk relatively in depth about famous places and things in my town/city or a well-known Japanese tourist spot."</p>
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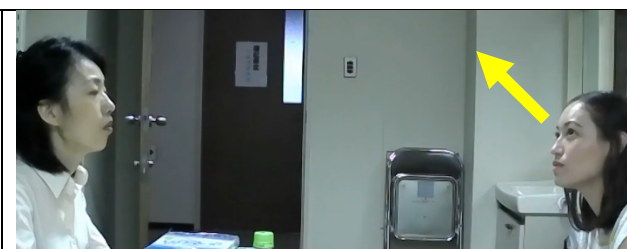
Figure 6.1: A can-do statement of the conversational practice sheet

Excerpt2

- 1Teal: hikooki de: ee: ongaku o: a,a, (0.2) kiki ni kimasu?  
plane by FLR. music O listen.to to come  
"By plane [people], um, music...Oh, oh! Come listen to music?"
- 2Lisa: soo desu.  
yes Cop  
"Yes."
- 3 ke [kkoo  
quite.a.few  
"A lot [of people]."
- 4Teal: [hee:  
huh  
"Huh."
- 5Lisa: un hai, ironna tokoro kara hito ga kimasu, oosutin ni  
yes yes various place from people S come Austin to

“Uh-huh. Yes. People come from a lot of places to Austin.”

- 6Tea1: hu::n  
hmm  
“Hmm.”
- 7Lisa: hai[kekkoo (0.2) kondekimasu. [kon- komima-  
yes quite become.crowded crowded  
“Yes. It gets pretty crowded. Crow- Crow-“
- 8Tea1: [a- [a  
Ah Ah  
“Ah.” “Ah.”
- 9 (1.2) ((Lisa mouthing to herself))
- 10Lisa:→ komimasu. [k-  
get.crowded  
“It is crowded.”
- 11Tea1: [komimasu ka  
get.crowded FP  
“It is crowded?”
- 12Lisa: komimasu.  
get.crowded  
“It is crowded.”
- 13Tea1: un [ii desu ii desu ((providing a thumbs up gesturing))  
yes good Cop good Cop  
“Mm-hm. Good, good.”
- 14Lisa: [hai  
yes  
“Yes.”
- 15Tea1: ko- komu n desu ne:  
crowded N Cop FP  
“So it is crowded.”
- 16Lisa: °komu:-° hai  
crowded yes  
“Crow- Yes.”

7Lisa 8Tea1	[kon- komima- [a-	
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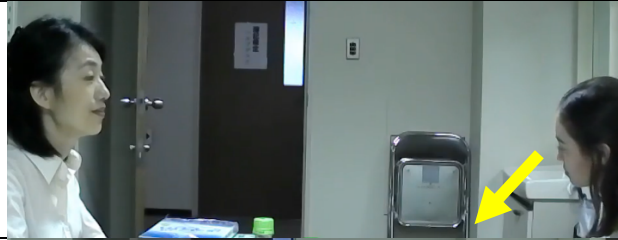

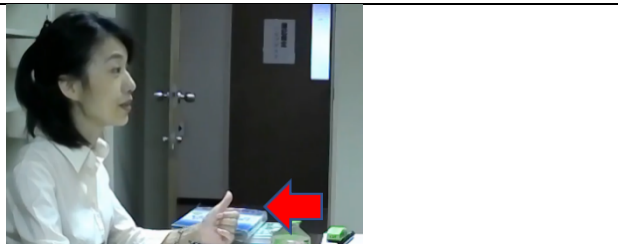
9	(1.2) ((Lisa mouthing to herself))	
10Lisa	komimasu.	
11Tea1	[ko- [komimasu ka	
12Lisa	komimasu.	
13Tea1	un ii desu ii desu	

Figure 6.2: Participants' gaze shifting and gesturing

In response to the instructor's follow-up question (line 1), Lisa elaborates on her previous utterance by saying, "[People] come from various places to Austin" (line 5), and "*kondekimasu*" ("[it] will get crowded") (line 7). After Lisa utters this second part in line 7, the instructor produces what seems to be a change of state token (line 8) (Heritage, 1984b; Endo, 2018), which appears to indicate that intersubjectivity has been achieved at this possible completion point (Sacks et al., 1974). This turn is, however, overlapped by Lisa initiating a self-repair of her previous phrase in the same turn, and the instructor allows Lisa to take her turn afterwards. Lisa's repair initiation is also accompanied with her looking upward while displaying trouble in producing the repaired form, indicated by cut-offs (line 7) (Figure 6.2), which embodies her orientation to a self-initiated repair and initiation of a syntactic search (e.g., Goodwin and Goodwin, 1986; Hasegawa, 2021). Subsequently, Lisa looks down and appears to mouth to

herself inaudibly (line 9) (Figure 6.2). She then shifts her gaze back to the instructor and repairs the previous utterance with, “*Komimasu*” (“[it] gets crowded”) (line 10).<sup>2</sup>

This self-initiated self-repair, therefore, illustrates two points. First, it exhibits the learner’s agency in trying to use a slightly more linguistically appropriate phrase without any external pedagogical agenda that necessitates it. Second, although displaying observable trouble in producing the repaired item, Lisa achieves a self-repair and completes her utterance without any markers that explicitly invite linguistic assistance from the instructor. In fact, Lisa’s repaired utterance in line 10 is produced with a falling intonation contour. These two points, I argue, constitute the embedded linguistic try through which Lisa attempts to self-repair part of her utterance into a linguistically more challenging but appropriate form to the best of her linguistic ability in a way that still maintains the flow of the ongoing meaning-focused interaction.

Immediately after the repair, the instructor displays her understanding in line 11 of Lisa’s previous utterance as a confirmation check. This further confirms that Lisa’s immediately preceding repaired utterance is interpreted as a meaning-oriented utterance. Lisa then confirms the instructor’s understanding by repeating the repaired form (line 12). A noteworthy part of this excerpt is the instructor’s subsequent utterance, “Yes, that is good, that is good,” in the next turn (line 13) paired with a thumbs up gesture, which provides a form-focused positive assessment on Lisa’s previous utterance (line 10) (Figure 6.2). With this assessment action, the instructor reorients herself to the repaired form by acknowledging and positively evaluating how Lisa has modified her utterance into a more appropriate linguistic form. This further indicates that, even

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<sup>2</sup> While “*kondekimasu*” means “[it] will get crowded,” “*komimasu*” means “[it] gets crowded” and connotes a more general description of the situation and is thus more appropriate for what Lisa has been describing.

though not displayed explicitly with linguistic markers, Lisa has also made trying a linguistically challenging form relevant to the ongoing talk by having shown her significant effort to sufficiently produce a repaired utterance.

This excerpt demonstrates how a learner self-repairs a syntactic form into a linguistically more appropriate one within the same turn without necessarily designing the turn to solicit a form-focused response or linguistic assistance. In response to this turn, the instructor first orients to the progression of the ongoing meaning-focused talk but later provides a form-focused positive assessment to reorient to the form of the repaired utterance. This suggests that the instructor has also shown orientations toward both meaning and form of the learner's self-repaired utterance. That is, the instructor's responses display her understanding that the learner embeds a *linguistic try* in the construction of the turn by interactionally initiating and achieving an unnecessary self-repair of a linguistically more appropriate syntactic form. Thus, the learner's orientation to the form of her utterance is embedded but still made relevant to the subsequent turns.

The next excerpt illustrates a similar instance in which a learner, Chen, inserts an embedded linguistic try into her statement. What distinguishes this excerpt from the previous one is that the instructor responds to Chen's utterance with a form of "embedded correction" (Jefferson, 1987), which repairs the learner's utterance while maintaining the progression of the ongoing talk. In the following exchange, both parties are introducing themselves, as this is their first session. Prior to the excerpt, Chen shared a story about trouble she had with her roommate in the United States and is now talking about how different it is to live by herself in Japan.

Excerpt3

1Chen:           u::n yappari  
                  hmm actually  
                  "Hmm, now that I think about it"


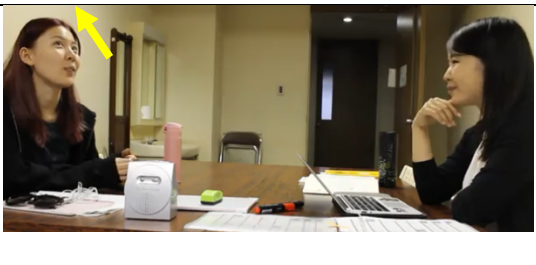
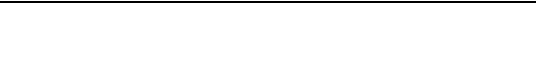
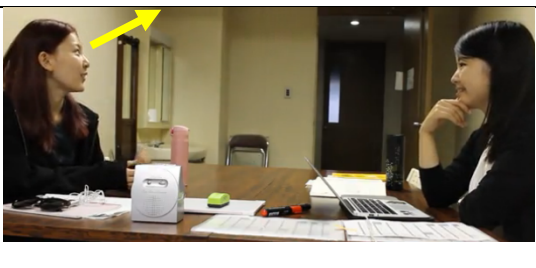
2Tea2:           un

- mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 3Chen: maa nanka koko ni toochakushite:  
FLR like here to arrive.and  
“Well, like, ever since I arrived here”
- 4Tea2: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 5Chen: nanka yappari watashi wa hitori (.) no hoo ga [ii da to omou-  
like actually I Top alone LK N S good Cop QT think  
“Like, I really think I’m better off on my own.”
- 6Tea2: [un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 7 (0.3)
- 8Chen: [hajime]  
start  
“Start”
- 9Tea2: [aa: ] ii to [omoiwashita ka  
good QT think:PST Q  
“Ohh, you thought [being on your own] was better”
- 10Chen: [omou-  
think  
“Think-“
- 11Tea2: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 12Chen: → omou koto o hajime- hajimarimashita  
think thing O start start:PST  
“[I think start- started.”
- 13Tea2: aa: <omoihajime[mashita> ka  
think.start:PST Q  
“Ohh, [you] started to think.”
- 14Chen: [un omoihajimemashita  
yes think.start.PST  
“Yeah, [I] started to think.”
- 15Tea2: un [un  
mm-hm mm-hm  
“Mm-hm, mm-hm.”
- 16Chen: [un hai

mm-hm yes  
 “Mm-hm, yes.”

17Tea2: soo na n desu ka:  
 right Cop N Cop Q  
 “I see.”

18Chen: hai  
 yes  
 “Yes.”

<p>5 Chen 6 Tea2 7 8 Chen 9 Tea2</p>	<p>no hoo ga [ii da to omou- [un (0.3) [hajime] [aa: ] ii to [omoimashita ka</p>	
<p>10 Chen</p>	<p>[omou-</p>	
<p>11 Tea2</p>	<p>un</p>	
<p>12 Chen</p>	<p>omou koto o hajime-</p>	

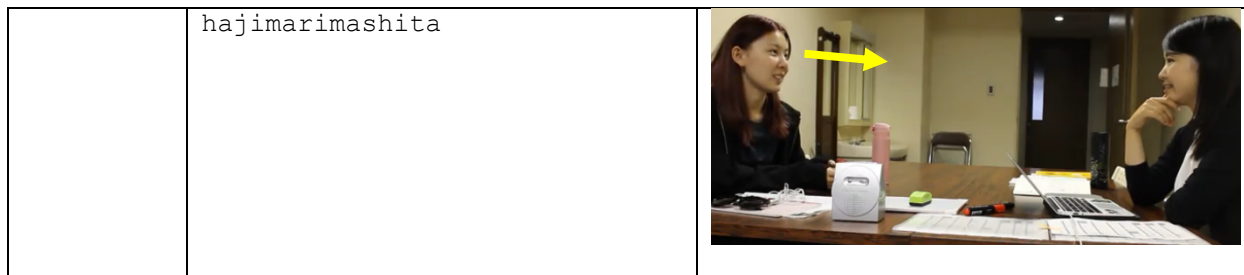


Figure 6.3: Participant's gaze shifting

Here, Chen attempts to express that since arriving in Japan, she feels that living alone is more comfortable than living with roommates (lines 1-5). As she reaches the end of her utterance in line 5, however, she cuts herself off while uttering the verb “*omou*” (“think”). This results in a short pause in the following turn. The instructor responds to this silence by providing a change of state token “*aa*” (Endo, 2018) and co-completes the utterance with “embedded correction” (e.g., Brouwer et al., 2004) (line 9), which overlaps with Chen's proceeding turn in line 8.

At this point, intersubjectivity has been achieved between the participants in terms of what Chen is trying to say, indicated by the instructor's co-completion (line 9). However, despite this established intersubjectivity, in line 10, Chen repeats the word “*omou*,” which overlaps with the instructor's utterance in line 9, while shifting her gaze upward (Figure 6.3). Similarly to the previous excerpt, therefore, Chen's embodied cognition (e.g., Goodwin 1994, 2000; Hasegawa, 2021; Heritage 1984b; Mori & Markee, 2009) indicates the initiation of a syntactic search. The instructor, who has once displayed her understanding of Chen's story, then utters, “*un*,” in the next turn (line 11) so as to provide Chen interactional space and thereby facilitate the self-repair sequence. In line 12, Chen continues self-repairing by uttering, “[I] start- started thinking [that way],” which modifies her previous utterance into a linguistically more complex one by combining the verbs “think” and “start.” As this occurs after the participants have achieved a mutual understanding of what Chen is trying to say, Chen's troubled attempt at self-repair

appears to be redundant as far as the essential meaning of the interaction is concerned, since the instructor's understanding has been already displayed and achieved. This reveals that Chen is oriented toward trying a linguistically more complex utterance and thus constitutes a linguistic try. In addition, while she continues to look upward at the beginning of her utterance (line 12), she shifts her gaze back to the instructor while producing the repaired phrase with the falling intonation contour, which suggests the closure of her repair sequence.

However, this self-repaired utterance contains linguistically inappropriate elements. In the next turn, therefore, the instructor provides a linguistically more sophisticated version of Chen's previous utterance, correcting the predicate formation from "*omou koto o hajimarimashita*" ("think" + nominalizer + objective particle + intransitive verb "start") into the more appropriate "*omoi hajimemashita*" ("think" + transitive verb "start") (line 13). More importantly, the instructor embeds her correction into a confirmation check response. In other words, this turn does not overtly orient to the form of the utterance but rather is uttered in a way that maintains the progression of the ongoing talk. At the same time, it should be remarked that the instructor auditorily marks the corrected element of the utterance by uttering it at a noticeably slower pace with an audible stress on the modified part. This thus appears to show the instructor's embedded orientation toward highlighting the form of Chen's previous utterance. Having understood this as an "embedded correction" (e.g., Çimenli & Sert, 2017; Jefferson, 1987; Kurhila, 2001), Chen modifies her previous utterance into the corrected version in a way to confirm the instructor's displayed understanding as well as show her own understanding of the corrected utterance in the next turn.

As the analysis reveals, this excerpt illustrates how a learner embeds a linguistic try by self-repairing her utterance with a syntactically more complex form, to which the instructor also

responds with somewhat verbally-enhanced embedded correction. How Chen attempts to self-repair her utterance after having achieved intersubjectivity exhibits her learner active agency in trying a more linguistically challenging utterance. As Chen's linguistic try is embedded but contains inappropriate components, her utterance is later responded to by the instructor's embedded correction with an audible emphasis on the linguistically revised element. Chen recognizes this embedded correction, which is displayed by how she incorporates the correction in her confirmation utterance in the subsequent turn. This segment exemplifies a case in which a learner's linguistic try is displayed, corrected, and retried with modifications without participants initiating overt side sequences that focus on linguistic matters. This process is enabled by the way in which the interaction is conducted.

More importantly, the two excerpts examined in this section have shown that “embodied cognition” (e.g., Goodwin 1994, 2000; Hasegawa, 2021; Heritage 1984b; Mori & Markee, 2009) plays an important role in accomplishing an embedded linguistic try. In both excerpts, the learners' upward gazes and verbalized troubles create the interactional space to self-repair and “retry” the utterance with a linguistically more appropriate or challenging form, even though the prior form is not necessarily inaccurate or intersubjectivity has already been achieved. This embodied cognition also marks the linguistically challenging elements of the learner's retried utterance by displaying the difficulty in producing the utterance. The instructor then interprets and orients to this redundancy and trouble of the self-repairing process as a “linguistic try.” This is followed by instructor-provided form-focused assessments or corrections in subsequent sequences with a verbal emphasis on the corrected element. It is also important to remark that the utterance with the linguistic try is also initially followed by a meaning-oriented response (Excerpt 2) or an embedded correction that maintains the flow of the talk at least on a structural

level. Thus far, the analysis of this section has demonstrated that learners' self-repairing process is conducted, interpreted as an embedded linguistic try, and co-constructed into a learning opportunity, despite the absence of explicit try-markers, by the participants of the interaction.

### 6.3.2. Embedded Linguistic Try Not Completely Treated as Form-focused Utterance

In the following excerpts, learners exhibit their orientation toward trying to incorporate a lexical item from the textbook in a way that does not explicitly solicit confirmation on the way that they are using it. These examples will thus be presented as cases of embedded linguistic try that learners insert when constructing a response turn.

Excerpt 4 demonstrates a case in which a learner, Lisa, orients to incorporating a word from the textbook in her utterance and further finding a more accurate pronunciation of the word along the way. As seen below, her orientation toward a linguistic element as she expresses her personal thoughts on a given topic seems to be co-oriented rather minimally by the instructor. This segment comes from a question-answer sequence in which Lisa has been responding to the instructor's personalized questions based on a textbook reading regarding how robots are replacing human labor in our society.

Excerpt4


- 81Teal: a, hito no kawari ni shigoto o shiteimasu ka:=  
 People LK alternative for work O do:ASP Q  
 "Oh, [robots] are working in place of humans?"
- 82Lisa: =soo, moo- (.) moo shiteimasu  
 yes already already do:ASP  
 "Yeah. [They're] already- already doing it."
- 83Teal: a[moo  
 already  
 "Oh, already."
- 84Lisa: [eeto, kuruma o tsukuru no toka:  
 um car O make N like  
 "Um, like [they] build cars."
- 85Teal: aa kuruma tsukutte [masu:]

- car make Cop  
“Oh, [they] are building cars?”
- 86Lisa: [soo  
yes  
“Yeah.”
- 87Tea1: un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 88Lisa: ju:- jujutsu.=shu-(.)shuju-  
surgery surgery  
“Shur- Shujury. Sur- Surger-“
- 89 (0.4) ((Lisa looks at the textbook))
- 90Lisa:→ shujutsu.  
surgery  
“Surgery.”
- 91Tea1: >°un°<  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 92Lisa: °o:° (.) [mo-  
O already  
“Already—“
- 93Tea1: [a, robotto ga shujutsu o suru  
robot S surgery O do  
“Ah, robots perform surgery.”
- 94Lisa: hai, chotto kowai desu hhh  
yes little scary Cop  
“Yes, it’s a little scary (laughter).”

技術 ぎじゆつ	発達 はつたつ	会場 かいじやう	注文 ちゆうもん	手術 しゆじゆつ	実際 じつさい	社会 しゃがい	運んだ はこ	工場 こうじやう	人間 にんげん
他 ほか	一緒 いっしょ	面白い おもしろ	年 とし	型 かた	毛 け	首 くび	動かして うご	声 こゑ	周り まわ
集まって あつ	動物 どうぶつ	大事 だいじ	子供 こども	欲しい ほ	泣いて な	両親 りやうしん	入学 にゅうがく	合格 ごうかく	

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Figure 6.4: “*Shujutsu*” (“Surgery”) Kanji + Reading

88Lisa:	shu-(.) shuju-	
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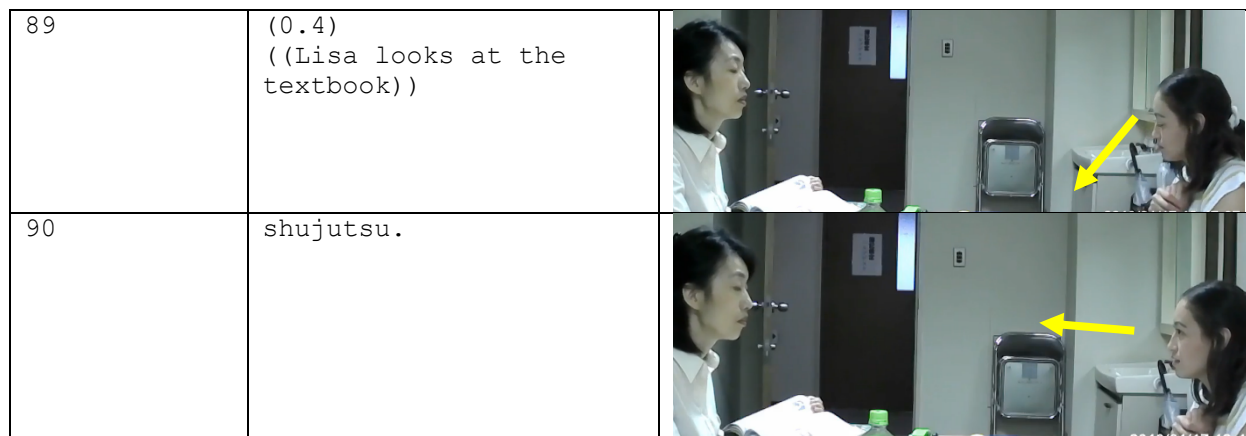


Figure 6.5: Participant's gaze shifting

Prior to the excerpt, the instructor has asked a question about robot technology, to which Lisa responds with the statement that robots are replacing human labor in places she knows. The instructor then produces her utterance in line 81 as a third turn response that displays her understanding toward Lisa's previous answer to the question. Lisa then confirms the instructor's understanding (line 82) and extends her response by providing a more concrete example to illustrate her point that technology has already been replacing human labor in car industries (line 84). The instructor shows her understanding of Lisa's extended response in the form of a confirmation check. Lisa replies to this in the affirmative (line 86), to which the instructor provides an acknowledgement (line 87). At this point, the unfolding sequence has been closed, and a new turn can be initiated by either participant.

In line 88, Lisa then re-takes the turn and attempts to produce an utterance. However, she displays observable difficulty in producing a lexical term, indicated by a cut-off, and utters a word that sounds like “*jujutsu*” (line 88). She then quickly initiates a self-repair of the word again and attempts to reproduce the word while gazing upward (Figure 6.5). This thus seems to display that Lisa is doing a word search (e.g., Brouwer, 2003; Schegloff, 1979; Siegel 2016). She then shifts her gaze again and glances at the textbook for a moment (line 89) (Figure 6.5). After

looking at the textbook, she quickly returns her gaze to the instructor while uttering the word “*shujutsu*” (“surgery”) (line 90). Here, it appears that Lisa is looking at the vocabulary list box on the page on which they have been basing their talk (Figure 6.4), since the list includes the word “*shujutsu*” and its reading. This thus suggests that Lisa utilizes the textbook vocabulary list as a resource to resolve her word search. It also reveals that her orientation is toward actively incorporating a lexical item that she has remembered from the textbook into her utterance. This, I argue, constitutes a linguistic try. Furthermore, it should be noted that this self-repaired lexical item is produced, again, with a falling intonation contour, which is therefore not structurally designed to seek a confirmation or linguistic assistance from the instructor.

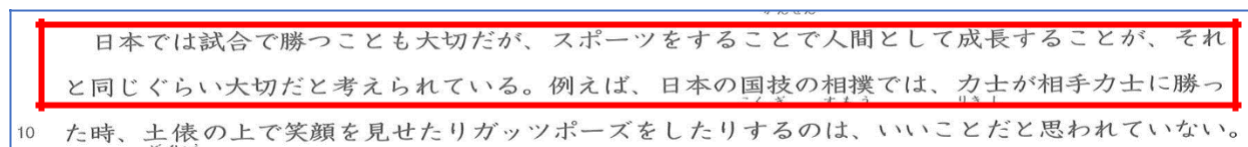
Upon this turn with the repaired lexical form in line 90, the instructor provides a minimal, lower-volumed acknowledgement token, “*un*” (line 91), paired with very subtle nodding. Here, it is unclear as to whether this acknowledgement token is offered as a confirmation to the given lexicon or simply shows the instructor’s continuous listenership to propel Lisa to further the talk. Subsequently, Lisa first utters, “*o:*,” but then repairs herself and says, “*mo*,” seemingly latching onto the lexicon “surgery” and indicating that “surgery as well” is something robots do (line 92). This utterance, “*mo*,” is overlapped by the instructor’s utterance, “Oh, robots do surgery” (line 93), which displays her understanding that Lisa has been trying to provide another example to her point that technology has been replacing human labor. The fact that the instructor comes to this understanding after hearing only Lisa’s word “*shujutsu*” (line 90) and utterance “*o:*” (line 92), the latter which appears to be an objective marker attached to the lexical word “*shujutsu*,” indicates that the instructor has been attuned toward figuring out what Lisa has been meaning to say after the possible closure of the previous sequence. Moreover, the instructor’s turn in line 93 is prefaced with a change of state token (Heritage, 1984b; Endo, 2018), which displays the

instructor's realization. Lisa then confirms the instructor's given understanding and further provides an assessment on her own statement by uttering, "Yes, it is a little scary" (line 94).

This excerpt has shown a case in which a learner tries to incorporate a lexical item into her extended response to an instructor's question. During this sequence through which Lisa describes how technology has been replacing human labor and provides concrete examples to illustrate her points, she actively attempts to incorporate the lexical item, "*shujutsu*" ("surgery"), which is from the chapter recently studied in the lecture class. In the process, she displays observable trouble in producing the word and later relies on the textbook vocabulary list in order to produce it accurately. The fact that Lisa reopens the sequence with this lexicon even after a possible closure of the sequence suggests that this example illustrates Lisa's active attempt to incorporate a linguistically still challenging item as a means to extend her response. Even more significantly, the way in which Lisa inserts and self-repairs the lexical item does not structurally invite the instructor's overt confirmation or assistance, which keeps the progression of the extended response sequence in motion after the repair. In fact, in the segment above, there is no turn produced by the instructor that overtly orients to the linguistic form of the utterance. Lisa's self-repaired turn (line 90), therefore, constitutes an example of embedded linguistic try, which can be observably foregrounded as a form-focused attempt but interactionally treated as an utterance that is oriented toward meaning-making in the given sequence.

Similarly to the previous exchange, Excerpt 5 illustrates a case in which the learner, Sara, embeds a linguistic try that is oriented to a self-identified linguistic form while answering a personalized question. This excerpt showcases how a learner observably embodies a form-focused orientation through the use of different non-verbal resources. Prior to the excerpt, as

requested by the instructor, Sara has read aloud a selected passage of the textbook reading on Japanese sports culture (Figure 6.6).



Translation: In Japan, while winning tournaments is important, people believe it is equally important for players to grow as people through playing sports. For example, during national sports, such as sumo wrestling, it is not considered good sportsmanship for wrestlers to smile or express excitement in the ring when they defeat their opponent.

Figure 6.6: The Passage from the Textbook

Excerpt5

- 1Teal: tatoeba: ee::tto:: chuugoku de doo desu ka?  
for.example umm China in how.about Cop Q  
“For example, umm, how about in China?”
- 2 eetto: (0.8) ningen: toshite seichoosuru koto ga  
umm human as grow thing S
- 3 taisetsu da to kangaerareteimasu ka:?  
important Cop QT think:PASS:ASP Q  
“Umm, do [people] believe it is important to grow as people?”
- 4Sara: eetto chuugoku de wa: supootsu ga- (0.3) o (0.3)  
umm China in Top sports S O  
“Umm, in China, sports are- (0.3)”
- 5 → tooshite (.) ((pointing to the textbook))  
through  
“Through”
- 6Teal: un ((Teal nodding))  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 7Sara: ano: ningen toshite seichoosuru koto wa (0.2)  
um human as grow thing Top
- 8 anmari taisetsu da to kangaerareteimasu.  
not.really important Cop QT think:PASS:ASP  
“Um, [people] not much believe it is important to grow as people.”
- 9 (0.3)
- 10Teal: imasu?  
Cop  
“Not much believe?”

- 11 (1.5)
- 12Tea1: amari:=  
not.really  
“Not really”
- 13Sara: =amari- a, anmari(h) (0.2) kangaerareteimasen.  
not.really not.really think:PASS:ASP:NEG  
“Do not really believe.”
- 14Tea1: aa: amari kangaerareteimasen.  
not.really think:PASS:ASP:NEG  
“Oh, do not really believe.”
- 15Sara: hai  
yes  
“Yes.”




4Sara:	eetto chuugoku de wa: supootsu	
	Iga- (0.3) o (0.2) I ((Sara looks down))	
5	tooshilte (.) I ((Sara lifting her gaze back at the instructor))	



Figure 6.7: Participants' gaze shifting and pointing to the textbook



1 現代の日本人は、野球、サッカー、ゴルフ、スキーなど、色々なスポーツを楽しんでいる。若  
い人達だけでなく子供からお年寄りまでスポーツを楽しみ、そして、種類も、海や山、夏や冬の

Figure 6.8: The Title of the Textbook Passage

After Sara finishes reading the passage from the textbook (Figure 6.6), the instructor initiates a question-answer sequence that poses a personalized question based on the reading: “For example, um, how about in China? Um, is it considered important to grow as a person?” (lines 1-3). Sara begins forming her response but cuts off after “*supootsu ga*” (“sports” + the subjective particle) and self-repairs it into “*supootsu o*” (“sports” + objective particle) (line 5). As she does this, she also shifts her gaze to the textbook and then utters “*tooshite*” (“through”), which, combined with the syntactically compatible particle “*o*,” means “through sports” (line 4), while pointing to the word “*tooshite*” in the title of the reading (line 5) (Figure 6.7). It should be remarked here that the phrase “*supootsu o tooshite*” (“through sports”) is not explicitly included in the previously read passage nor questions asked during this session. Rather, it is selected and incorporated into the response autonomously by the learner herself. This phrase that she uses, however, is written as a title of the read passage (Figure 6.8) and thus visible to the learner. When Sara looks down at the textbook, therefore, it appears that she is looking at this title and actively incorporates this phrase in order to paraphrase some part of the passage and thereby

linguistically clarifies what is implicated in the question by the instructor, which as a whole means, “Is it considered important to grow as a person [through sports]?” At the end of her utterance “*tooshite*” (line 5), Sara lifts her gaze and looks at the instructor, who utters, “*un*” with a nod (line 6). Sara’s shifting of her gaze to the instructor occurs seemingly because she is attempting to monitor the instructor’s response or reaction to her use of the word from the textbook in line 5. After receiving the instructor’s acknowledgement token, Sara then completes the rest of her response in the following turns (lines 7-8).

This segment demonstrates how Sara employs a more explicit embodied reference to the linguistic form in the textbook while answering a personalized question. During her response, she first shifts her gaze to the textbook and further utilizes a series of body signals to physically orient herself toward the linguistic item in the textbook. By pointing to the form on the textbook, Sara displays a more explicit form-focused orientation than the previous case in which there is no overt reference to the lexical item. As a result, the way in which the instructor responds to Sara’s embodied orientation appears to be clearer in the form of an acknowledgement token and nodding. Incorporating bodily signaling as a resource, therefore, seems to help the learner solicit an audibly and visibly obvious acknowledgement of her tried out language form.

This however does not necessarily empirically prove that the instructor’s acknowledgement token is provided as a form-focused confirmation on the learner’s appropriate incorporation of the language form “*-o tooshite*” into her response. The utterance, “*un*,” paired with nodding could simply be acknowledging the phrase to which the learner points in which case it would serve as a way to show her continuous listenership. After all, it is ambiguous as to what the learner’s embodied turn (line 5) is truly trying to accomplish, since it is produced with a falling contour and no explicit linguistic markers that display overt linguistic trouble. The way

that Sara produces the phrase “- o *tooshite*” with physical signals could only display to the instructor that she is consciously selecting this phrase from the textbook to clarify her response and further avoid repeating the sentence in the given question. Thus, it cannot be conclusively determined if the instructor’s acknowledgement token constitutes a form-focused response.

Regardless, what I attempt to claim here is that, in this case, the learner’s structural nature of her linguistic try seems to work towards displaying a purposeful incorporation of a particular language form to the instructor. Thereby, she makes her form-focused response relevant to the talk as a possible action in following turns but does not overtly seek such response. As seen in the previous two excerpts in this section, a linguistic try is not produced to structurally force the other participant to orient to the form. Rather, while it appears sequentially designed to allow a possible form-focused response in the next turn, it is *embedded* into the meaning-making construction of the sequence and appears to be produced to function as a device that simply monitors the participant’s understanding of the unfolding sequence.

As indicated earlier, however, unlike in Excerpt 2 and 3, the learners’ attempted self-repair does not receive overt form-focused responses or feedback from the instructor. One possible reason is that the degree to which their self-repairing can be perceived as redundant is relatively low, since the way in which they self-repair their language form constitutes the incorporation of an accurate pronunciation (Excerpt 4) or an additional expression (Excerpt 5) by relying on the textbook as a resource, rather than replacement of the already uttered linguistic form or production of a linguistically more complex form. Relatedly, the self-repair also occurs in the middle of a complete response, which sequential position only allows the instructor to produce a minimum acknowledgement token.

### 6.3.3. Embedded Linguistic Try Followed by Self-Assessment

Building on the previous sections, the following section continues the same line of analysis while further illustrating a case in which both a learner and an instructor retrospectively orient to an embedded linguistic try, thereby making it a focal concern of the ongoing interaction.

Excerpt 6 takes place during the first one-on-one instructional session between the instructor (Teal) and Lisa. As this is their first session, Lisa is introducing herself to the instructor. Immediately prior to the excerpt below, Lisa has described her family members, focusing specifically on her younger sister. This prompts the instructor to ask a follow-up question about her sister's age, which initiates the excerpt below.

Excerpt6

- 1Teal: imoo(.)to san wa mada chiisai n [desu ka?  
 sister Top yet small N Cop Q  
 “Is your younger sister still small?”
- 2Lisa: [imooto wa: hassai desu.  
 sister Top eight.years.old Cop  
 “She is 8 years old.”
- 3Teal: aa[:  
 ohh  
 “Oh.”
- 4Lisa: [e: juuni nen (0.3)no (0.3) juuni, juuni s- juuni sai no sa ga  
 twelve years LK twelve twelve twelve year.old LK gap S  
 “there is a twelve, twelve a- twelve-year-old gap”
- 5 → juuni [sai sa (.)  
 twelve year.old gap  
 “Twelve-year-old gap”
- 6Teal: [un  
 mm-hm  
 “Mm-hm.”
- 7Lisa: ga arimasu.  
 S exist  
 “Between us.”
- 8Teal: a, soo desu [ne: juuni sai-  
 right Cop FP twelve year.old  
 “Ah, I see. A twelve-year-old-“

- 9Lisa: [fufu muzukashikatta [hhhh  
difficult:PST  
“That was hard. (laughter)”
- 10Teal: [hhhhh
- 11Lisa: >to at-, a< honto wa, juuni nen (1.0) sa ga (0.6) yutta kedo:  
truth Top twelve year gap S say:PST but  
“S-So, oh. [Before,] I said a twelve year gap, but”
- 12 nihonjin ga, a, juuni sai sa, (0.4)  
Japanese.person S twelve year.old gap  
“A Japanese person told me, uh, [it’s] a twelve-year-old gap.”
- 13 to iimasu to (0.4) yutta kara, wakarimashita  
QT say QT say:PST because understand:PST  
“They said it was called, so [that’s when I] found out.”
- 14 °kon[d-°  
this  
“This-“
- 15Teal: [a, iwaremashita [ka  
tell:PASS:PST QT  
“Oh, [you] were told?”
- 16Lisa: [sou!, [iwaremashita. hai.  
right tell:PASS:PST yes  
“Right! [I] was told. Yes.”
- 17Teal: [hhhhh
- 18 °soo desu [ne° ((Teal looks down and stares at her notes))  
right Cop FP  
“Let’s see”
- 19Lisa: [kondo wa chanto, ammari ienakatta kedo  
this.time Top correctly not.really can.say:NEG:PST but  
“This time I couldn’t say it very well all the way.”
- 20Teal: o: dekimashita deki[mashita  
((Teal giving a thumbs up gesturing))  
can:do:PST can:do:PST  
“Oh, you did it, you did it.”
- 21Lisa: [nanode juuni-  
so twelve  
“so there’s a twelve-“
- 22Teal: [un  
mm-hm  
“Mm-hm.”
- 23Lisa: [juuni sai sa, (0.3) ga arimasu.

- twelve year.old gap                    S    exist  
 “There’s a twelve-year-old gap.”
- 24Teal:                    a, soo [na n desu [ne:  
                                   right Cop N Cop    FP  
 “Oh, I see.”
- 25Lisa:                    [hai [hai.  
                                   yes yes  
 “Yes. Yes.”
- 26Teal:                    a mada chiisai desu ne:  
                                   yet    small    Cop    FP  
 “So she’s still small, yes?”
- 27Lisa:                    chiisai desu.  
                                   small    Cop  
 “[Yes,] she’s small.”

In line 1, the instructor asks Lisa, “Is your younger sister still small?,” to which Lisa replies, “My younger sister is eight years old” (line 2). Subsequently, the instructor acknowledges this response (line 3). Lisa then extends her answer by specifying the information that there is a 12-year gap between her sister and herself (lines 4-7). It should be noted here that, as she extends her response, Lisa self-repairs part of her utterance from “12-year gap” to “12-year-old gap,” while showing some observable trouble doing so, indicated by hesitation and cut-offs (line 4). The instructor then responds to this self-repaired turn in the next turn with the form-focused remark, “That is right” (line 8), prefaced with a change of state token (Heritage, 1984b; Endo, 2018). This turn seems to be oriented toward the form rather than to the meaning of Lisa’s previous utterance, as Lisa has not mentioned her own age and the instructor cannot know exactly how large the age gap is between Lisa and her sister. This thus suggests that the instructor’s response (line 8) displays her form-focused orientation to Lisa’s previous utterance. The instructor then attempts to continue her turn by partially repeating Lisa’s response but is cut off by Lisa’s overlapping utterance, “[That] was difficult” (line 9), accompanied by laughter.

Lisa's turn in line 9, which makes an explicit remark on the difficulty involved in the production of the phrase "12-year-old gap," also serves as a form-oriented self-assessment on her previous utterance (lines 4-7). This self-assessment, like the instructor's utterance in line 8, displays Lisa's orientation toward linguistic form and the linguistic production itself, rather than toward the meaning. It also appears to reflect a self-degrading tone toward her own linguistic struggle in incorporating the phrase into her utterance, which seems to instigate the instructor's following laughter, as well (line 10). This self-assessment, therefore, demonstrates that she, as well as the instructor, treats her self-repaired utterance as a linguistic try that incorporates a linguistically challenging component and thus worthy of a form-focused assessment.

Lisa then continues to expand on her turn by stating, "[I] once said '12-year gap,' but a Japanese person said that they say '12-year-old gap,' so that's how I learned" (lines 11-13). Here, Lisa provides an account as to why she self-repaired her previous utterance by recalling a past learning experience during which a friend corrected her. In all the previous excerpts in this chapter, learners do not explicitly reorient to the language form being tried out by, for instance, providing a self-assessment like in the current case. Lisa's self-assessment on her own self-repaired utterance here (line 9), therefore, appears to make the act of providing an account relevant to the ongoing sequence.

After hearing Lisa's account, the instructor shows her understanding to Lisa's story in line 15 by saying, "Oh, [so you] were told," to which Lisa confirms, "Right! [I] was told. Yes" (line 16). At this time, the instructor seems to attempt to move on to a new question as she briefly disengages from the talk by looking down at her notes and utters, "Let's see" (line 18). However, Lisa overlaps this with a continued focus on her difficulty to produce her previous phrase by saying, "This time, [I] was able to [say it]. [I] didn't say it very well, though" (line 19).

This turn, as with her last self-assessment in line 9, appears to self-degrade her linguistic attempt to fluently produce a well-formed sentence with a newly learned phrase. This reorientation toward the form of her previous utterance subsequently elicits the instructor's positive assessment, "[You] did it, [you] did it" (line 20), accompanied by a thumbs-up gesture. This acknowledges Lisa's self-repaired utterance and further indicates that Lisa has embedded a linguistic try into her extended response and reorients herself to it with self-assessments.

Lisa's self-assessment in line 19 further insinuates her orientation toward the inadequate achievement of her previous linguistic attempt to use the newly learned phrase. This orientation then makes her reattempt in the following turn relevant, as she repeats, "*nanode juuni-juuni saisa* (0.3) *ga arimasu.*" ("So there is a 12-year-old gap") (lines 21 and 23). The "*nanode*" ("so") in this reiterated utterance appears to syntactically reconnect it to her previous utterance in line 2 and thereby display her re-orientation toward the progression of the temporarily-held talk on her younger sister. The instructor also co-oriens to this re-orientation by providing a meaning-focused response in line 24, indicated by the *-n desu* form (Nakano, 2009; Wang, 2010), and by commenting in the following turn (line 26) on the given information about Lisa sister's age.

In sum, this excerpt demonstrates how Lisa embeds a linguistic try into her extended personal meaning-making process and later reorients herself to it by providing self-assessments, thereby also soliciting form-focused feedback from the instructor. Unlike other cases presented in this chapter, the analysis on the current excerpt has shown that the learner's retrospective orientation toward her past learning experience surrounding the focal linguistic phrase makes her preceding self-repairing utterance relevant to the ongoing talk as a linguistic try. That is, during the activity in which she is engaged in telling her personal story about her sister, Lisa enacts her learner's agency by using the retrospective orientation to her past learning as a resource

(Jakonen, 2018) to mark her self-repairing as an attempt to incorporate a newly learned phrase. She thereby co-constructs the ongoing talk with the instructor into a learning opportunity during which she receives a form-focused evaluation and creates space for practicing a focal linguistic phrase.

#### **6.4. Summary**

This chapter has analyzed excerpts in which learners embed linguistic tries into their utterances in a way to maintain the progression of the ongoing meaning-oriented interaction. As shown in the analysis, learners make their linguistic tries potentially relevant to the ongoing talk by displaying observable difficulty in producing the language form, showing the interactional redundancy in repairing or incorporating the language form, and/or explicitly orienting to it through form-focused self-assessment. Additionally, they embed their linguistic tries into their utterances in a way not to hold the flow of the talk but rather to propel the main business of the ongoing meaning-focused interaction to move forward. As such, the way in which their embedded linguistic tries are responded to and made relevant to the unfolding sequence varies depending on the given case.

The analysis in this chapter also illustrates that learners in the one-on-one instructional sessions are not passive participants but rather are able to tactically configure actions in a way that enables them to insert a linguistically challenging attempt that potentially displays both meaning and form orientations. It may be true that linguistic tries, in the sense of trying something new or linguistically complex, occur much more frequently than what is observable in the data. Such linguistic tries, however, can be made relevant to the ongoing interaction, without being marked with rising intonations as try-markers, by its displayed redundancy, difficulty, and/or self-induced retrospective orientation.

Furthermore, the findings in this chapter pose potentially important contributions to the growing field of CA-for-SLA research. Viewing learning as a situated social activity, this strand of research aims to explicate how participants orient to linguistic form(s) and contingently co-construct learning moments during ongoing interactions (for recent overviews, see e.g., Eskildsen & Majlesi, 2018; Markee & Kunitz, 2015). However, the focus of previous analysis has been predominantly on repair sequences, most commonly word search sequences, that are initiated by instructors' explicit correction or learners' display of non-comprehension, confirmation checking, or overt requests for linguistic assistance (e.g., Browner, 2003; Hosoda, 2006 ; Mori & Hasegawa, 2009; Theodorsdottir, 2018). In other words, in these previous cases, learners, even when initiating form-focused repair sequences, are largely oriented toward understanding a linguistic item or finding an accurate linguistic form. The current study differs significantly from these previous studies in that learners here are not only oriented not to a lack of linguistic knowledge per se, but also to the temporal accomplishment of learning through an attempt to use a self-identified linguistic form. That is to say that the learning that learners orient themselves toward through embedded linguistic tries can be conceptualized as an active process of trying out what they have learned in learned previously in their utterances. The analysis in this chapter thus demonstrates the participants' orientation toward doing *learning by doing*.

There are also pedagogical implications that can be drawn from the findings of this chapter's analysis. First, as already discussed, even during a session that is largely designed and led by instructors with their pedagogical agenda, learners are not merely passive participants of the interaction. An awareness of how learners would display and embed linguistic tries during institutional interactions can potentially help instructors recognize and effectively respond to such utterances. Keenly and tactically responding to the embedded form-focused utterance could

then increase opportunities for learning and promote learners' further active participation in these types of learning activities.

Previous research has investigated and illustrated some interactional techniques through which instructors can strategically react to learner-directed initiations in class (Waring et al., 2016) or specific actions that enable instructors to manage learners' initiatives in a way that increases their participation in meaning-focused communicative events in language class (Sert, 2017). When it comes to the embedded linguistic try, instructors face options as to whether attending to the both meaning- and form-focused orientations that it displays. As shown in the analysis, they sometimes provide a form-focused assessment using a few turns (Excerpt 2) while learners sometimes make their form-focused orientation explicit so as to invite instructors' form-focused comments (Excerpt 6). In order to further examine how participants insert and, more importantly, respond to embedded linguistic tries, future research should investigate more data from an array of contexts.

## **Chapter 7**

### **Conclusion**

#### **7.1. Introduction**

In this final chapter, I will summarize the findings of the present study and address the two research questions outlined in Chapter 2. I will also discuss contributions to relevant fields and pedagogical implications based on the findings. I will then remark on the limitations of the study and further suggest some directions that this strand of research could take in the future.

#### **7.2. Summary of Findings**

This dissertation employed CA to examine three distinct practices of the study's participants through which they co-construct different learning opportunities during the one-on-one instructional session. More specifically, it analyzed three focal practices: elicitations, epistemic status checks, and embedded linguistic tries. Each analytical chapter in this dissertation examined one of the practices by addressing practice-specific guiding questions and discussed its findings and implications. In addition to answering guiding questions for analysis, the overall dissertation was framed by the following two research questions:

- 1) What kinds of learning opportunities are co-constructed by the participants during the one-on-one instructional session, and how so?
- 2) How do focal practices of instructors and learners during the one-on-one instructional sessions embody and are shaped by their interpretations of the institutional goals and purposes of the session?

The analysis on the focal practices has demonstrated that the types of learning opportunities constructed during the one-on-one instructional session are to some extent constrained by the given institutional tasks. More specifically, elicitation practices display an instructors' orientation toward accomplishing one of the objectives of the one-on-one instructional session, which is to review newly learned linguistic forms, such as lexicons and grammar structures, covered in the textbook and/or the main class. Similarly, the use of ESCs seems to display the instructors' orientation toward turning an interaction in such a way that "[avoids] slipping into daily conversation" during the session. This suggests that the institutionalized pedagogical objective is actualized and embodied through the use of elicitations and ESCs, and simultaneously, the way in which instructors insert such practices within interactions is shaped and constrained in a way to align with the given institutionalized agenda as well as the instructors' interpretation of that agenda. This reflexive relationship between meso-level institutional goals and micro-level pedagogical interactions (the Douglas Fir Group, 2016) can be clearly observed through the current CA analysis on the one-on-one instructional session.

The analysis has also shown that it is not just instructors who display constant orientations toward language forms, but learners similarly demonstrate their form-focused orientations during one-on-one sessions. The chapter on embedded linguistic tries especially elucidated the point that learners are not passive participants but activate their agency by tactfully constructing their own learning opportunities even during predominantly instructor-led pedagogical sessions. Specifically, learners actively incorporated newly learned language forms into their meaning-making processes in a way that was noticeable to the instructor and appeared to be an attempt to solidify information that was previously learned. In other words, learners in this study displayed their form-focused orientations and actively transformed moments of the

one-on-one session into personal learning opportunities in which they attempted to use recently learned language forms. The excerpts in this chapter thus demonstrate that instructors are not the only participants with an agenda. In fact, learners also seem to understand the purpose of the one-on-one session as a way to further expand and solidify their linguistic repertoires.

This study has also elucidated interactional characteristics of each focal elicitation. The first analytical chapter (Chapter 4) focused on instructor elicitation as a pedagogical practice and examined how its design and sequential placement may affect the way in which a learner solicits a targeted language form. The analysis revealed that there are two main types of elicitation designs in the current data: explicit elicitations and implicit elicitations. More importantly, these two elicitation designs seem to indicate the different ways in which instructors aim to solicit a particular language form from learners. The analysis in Chapter 4 indicated that learners face structural difficulties with simultaneously focusing on both form and meaning when responding to an instructor's elicitation, especially when that elicitation was designed to implicitly solicit a particular language form during meaning-focused tasks. There were also cases in which an instructor elicited a specific language form through multiple attempts of sequentially modified elicitations. By focusing on one of such cases, the analysis further illuminated how the way in which an instructor issues a series of elicitation questions about a particular lexical item mediates a learner's meaning making process. As argued in Chapter 4, these structural challenges stem from a mismatch in how instructors and learners prioritize orienting toward different interactional elements—meaning or form—at certain moments of the interaction. Soliciting a target linguistic form while maintaining the flow of the ongoing meaning-focused interaction, therefore, becomes a structurally complex task for both instructors and learners. One of the

potential solutions to this is to establish a mutual understanding as to how the ongoing sequence is related to the overall pedagogical goal of the session.

The second analytical chapter (Chapter 5) investigated how instructors employed epistemic status checks (ESCs) to make different types of linguistic knowledge relevant to the ongoing interaction during the session. The analysis revealed that knowledge about lexical meanings, knowledge about grammatical terms, and metalinguistic knowledge about similar grammatical or linguistic items is made relevant to the interaction when the instructor inserts an ESC. This chapter further illustrated that when a learner claims or displays a lack of relevant linguistic knowledge, instructors initiate explanation or scaffolding sequences to fill the identified knowledge gap. At the same time, my findings demonstrated that a learner will not always display their understanding of a given explanation. In fact, whether this understanding is accomplished or not depends on how the one-on-one session participants structure the ongoing pedagogical sequence and how it ultimately unfolds.

As exhibited in the analysis, ESCs also display an instructor's interpretation of a learner's preceding turns as potentially lacking particular linguistic knowledge. This suggests that, regardless of the mutual understanding achieved between the two participants in terms of an ongoing conversation, instructors sometimes orient themselves toward examining the degree to which learners are consciously producing linguistic forms with accurate knowledge. This orientation is observable especially during cases in which an instructor makes the presence of metalinguistic knowledge, such as a language form used or repaired by a learner, relevant. In such cases, the ESC solicits a display of metalinguistic knowledge regarding a particular linguistic form even when the learner's previous linguistically inappropriate forms have been self-repaired and/or they have interfered with the process of achieving intersubjectivity between

the participants. Instructors thus linguistically analyze learners' utterances and transform identified knowledge gaps into learning opportunities, thereby focusing more on constructing the one-on-one session into pedagogically-oriented, form-focused interactions than mere conversational sessions.

The third analytical chapter (Chapter 6) examined cases in which learners utilize their verbal and non-verbal resources to initiate a form-focused sequence during a meaning-focused activity, which practice is termed as an embedded linguistic try. A noteworthy feature of learners' embedded linguistic tries is that it is inserted and designed in a way to maintain the progression of the ongoing meaning-oriented interaction. Similar to the implicit elicitations examined in Chapter 4, the embedded linguistic try thus displays orientations toward both meaning and form simultaneously. As such, whether and how an instructor responds to a given embedded linguistic try varies depending on how a learner performs *doing a linguistic try* and makes it relevant to the interaction. The analysis in this chapter illustrated that learners not only utilize non-verbal resources, such as rising intonation and gazing, but also sometimes use self-assessment on their own linguistic try to make their form-focused orientation relevant to the ongoing interaction.

### **7.3. Contributions**

In this section, I discuss how the findings of the current research can contribute to its relevant fields, namely CA-SLA and CA classroom research. First, the current dissertation project contributes to the growing body of CA-SLA research that conceptualizes L2 learning as a locally accomplished social activity and examines it from emic perspectives. While mainstream, cognitive-oriented SLA research focuses on the *product* of learning, or change in cognitive

states, and investigates what factor contributes to such outcomes, CA-SLA research aims to explicate the *process* of constructing L2 learning opportunities that might lead to such outcomes. In other words, CA-SLA approach posits that the creation of conditions that may make learning happen is fundamentally a social accomplishment and must thus be constructed through interactions. The current study takes this socio-constructivist approach to investigate L2 learning and aims to illustrate how participants employ various practices to make their orientations to language forms relevant to an ongoing interaction and thereby construct opportunities for various types of language learning.

Previously, a bulk of CA-SLA research on L2 learning have focused on how practices, such as other-initiated repair (corrections) (e.g., Fasel Lauzon & Pekarek Doehlerk, 2013; Majlesi, 2018; Theodórsdóttir, 2018; Sert & Amri, 2021) and self-initiated word searches (e.g., Brouwer, 2003; Duran et al., 2019; Eskildsen, 2018; Koshik & Seo, 2012; Stone, 2019) are conducted by participants to generate learning opportunities. Such practices are largely concerned with either the inaccuracy or inadequacy of linguistic forms in learners' utterances. Moreover, when such practices are employed, linguistic trouble is made relevant explicitly, which then typically opens a side sequence through which participants deal with the identified trouble in some form. Although some studies have previously examined implicit corrective feedback through a CA lens (e.g., Brouwer et al., 2004; Hauser, 2005; Kurhila, 2001; Mori & Hayashi, 2006), the current study has shed new light on embedded form-focused practices that have not received much analytical attention.

More specifically, in Chapter 4, the analysis has exhibited that more than half of all identified elicitations are inserted implicitly and hence embedded in a way to propel the ongoing meaning-focused interaction. Similarly, Chapter 6 demonstrates how learners' linguistic tries are

embedded into their responses so as to maintain the progression of the talk. This differs from previously studied more explicit form-focused practices, such as repair or word searches, that make a language-related matter a focal concern while maintaining the flow of the interaction completely. The findings of the current study thus contribute to CA-SLA research by illuminating previously less studied distinct features of focal form-focused practices applied in one-on-one instructional sessions.

More importantly, the embedded form-focused practices examined in this study lead to different types of learning opportunities than those previously studied. As shown in the current study's analysis, through such practices, participants are oriented toward using recently learned language forms in their responses. Put differently, they are co-constructing opportunities for actively incorporating recently learned linguistic forms in order to solidify what has been previously learned. This exemplifies the participants' orientation toward doing *learning by doing*. What makes this type of learning distinguishable from other typical IRE sequences is the fact that the ongoing communication, or immediately preceding turn, to be precise, does not necessarily sequentially require but certainly allows the use of the targeted language form. Consequently, as my analysis has shown, an orientation toward doing *learning by doing* is not always co-attended to by the other participant.

The nature of this orientation toward using a recently learned linguistic form also seems to explain the reason as to why the focal practices—elicitations and linguistic tries—are often embedded in participants' utterances. That is, since participants are oriented to *using* a particular form, rather than *correcting* or *finding* a form, their form-focused orientation can be incorporated into a meaning-focused utterance without necessarily intervening with the trajectory of the ongoing sequence. The analysis of implicit form-focused practices in this study, therefore,

showcases that learning is not simply oriented to as an opportunity to gain new L2 knowledge but also as an occasion to use and try out L2 forms for the sake of practice during the one-on-one session.

Although the present study exhibits cases of embedded form-focused practices, this does not mean that participants never explicitly make a linguistic concern relevant to the one-on-one session. In fact, the current data shows that participants in this particular pedagogical setting also employ overt repair and word searches to co-construct learning opportunities in a contingent manner. As identified in Chapter 5, one-on-one instructors make different types of language-related knowledge relevant to the interaction. The analysis illustrates that different pedagogical sequences are constructed depending on the type of identified knowledge gaps. These findings contribute to the understanding that, even if participants are oriented to doing similar type of learning, the way in which learning opportunities are constructed and responded to in the following sequence varies depending on what is being identified and made relevant as a “learnable” (Majlesi & Broth, 2012).

Second, the present study has also contributed to the understanding of the reflexive relationship between given institutional and instructional interactions. As discussed in the summary, the use of elicitations and ESCs display instructors’ orientations toward different aspects of given institutional objectives. Given this, the one-on-one instructional session is indeed an institutional talk in the sense that instructors’ conduct is largely goal-oriented and designed in a way to accomplish the institutionalized agenda provided to them. In other words, the way in which learning opportunities are constructed simultaneously embody and are constrained by the institutional goals provided by the study abroad program. The current CA-based research empirically demonstrates this point and thereby signifies that L2 learning, in the

sense of the construction of learning opportunities, must be understood in relation to the given institutional context that specifies its objectives.

The findings of the study also correspond with many of the arguments made in the proposal by the Douglas Fir Group (2016), who claims that L2 learning must be analyzed from multiple perspectives and frameworks. Previous CA-SLA research on classroom interactions has been only focused on micro-level social practices and activities. The current analysis based on the EMCA framework is an attempt to broaden this scope by empirically illuminates how L2 learning is mediated by the instructional action, and by extension, the institutional context in which the instruction is situated. In other words, microanalysis of interactional moments for language learning in institutional settings allows us to understand the multilayered contextual factors that facilitate or constrain the construction of learning opportunities. The analysis presented in this dissertation therefore contributes to understanding this more multifaceted nature of SLA and thereby reemphasizes the importance of addressing the reflexivity by demonstrating how social practices employed for actualizing L2 teaching and learning embody and are shaped by the institutional settings.

#### **7.4. Pedagogical Implications**

As Waring (2016) argues, one of the key qualities of effective language instructors is being responsive to the “simultaneity,” “demanding shifts,” and “integrity” of a given moment of pedagogical interactions (p.126-127). That is, instructors of quality must simultaneously address learners’ explicitly or implicitly displayed orientations at a given moment to the best of their abilities, adjust their own actions to maintain the trajectory of their overall pedagogical agenda, and respond to learners’ locally emerging needs. The findings of each chapter have addressed

this issue of being responsive to a moment by demonstrating different ways in which instructors manage to cope with a contingently emerging moment and accomplish the construction of a learning opportunity.

For practical applications of the current study, therefore, I would suggest that CA-based analysis be implemented more in the process of reflective practices for language teacher training. In fact, some notable attempts to utilize CA techniques to inform teacher training have already been made by several CA scholars (e.g., Carpenter, 2021; Sert, 2015, 2021; Warning, 2021). As Farrell (2019) puts it, reflective practices must be based on the analysis of the actual classroom data and entail “examining what you do in the classroom and why you do it” (p. 4). In this regard, CA can be a very useful and appropriate tool that support teacher trainers as well as trainees to conduct evidence-based reflective practices of their own teaching.

However, it is important to point out that this practical implication is not necessarily intended to criticize a specific instructor who participated in this study nor a particular practice per se. In fact, as discussed in the analytical chapters, each practice identified and analyzed demonstrates its own purposes and displays participants’ orientation toward accomplishing a given institutional goal. What the current study elucidates is the inevitable structural complexity and interactional challenges that instructors and learners face in accomplishing multifaceted pedagogical goals and responding to simultaneous demands during one-on-one sessions. Therefore, CA-based analysis that illuminates such empirically grounded insights can, I believe, be utilized as a reflective process for instructors.

In practice, this reflective practice then would involve a researcher (or CA-trained instructor) working closely with a trainee instructor. As previously suggested by applied CA scholars (Mori, 2021; Waring, 2021), during such reflective sessions, participants may want to

focus on one practice and identify specific interactional issues that address the purpose of the focal practice and why it is conducted in a certain way at a given moment.

To be more specific, more concrete interactional issues that appear in the current data sets include managing an optimal balance between pursuing a pedagogical agenda and encouraging a learner to elaborate on a given conversational topic, determining what and how to assess learners' linguistic knowledge, and attending to and turning learners' initiatives into further learning opportunities. CA as a micro-analytic framework then allows us to see how such interactional issues are dealt with through practices, such as the ones examined in the current study. Further, it helps us notice how small details of the practice employed by the instructor and what accompanies the practice vocally and non-vocally can display different orientations and affect how the practice is interpreted and responded to by the other participant. With this awareness, a researcher or trainer can ask a trainee instructor to reflect on whether their initial lesson plans/agendas/approaches to L2 teaching align with what is observed at different given micro-moments of the recorded interaction. For instance, as shown in the analysis of the current study, while there are moments in which the participants' orientations align with each other perfectly (Chapter 4, e.g., Excerpt 1), there are also cases in which their differing orientations fail to be in alignment (Chapter 4, e.g., Excerpts 4 and 5). Since it would be rather impossible to fully anticipate learners' responses and prepare a lesson plan accordingly (Ford, 2004), it is important that instructors develop their ability to manage *multivocality* (Waring, 2016) of given moments of interaction and awareness of what actional options are available at those moments. Through such reflections, trainee instructors can thus make evidence-based adjustments to their practices or informed micro-decisions to increase responsiveness to various locally emerging contingencies of L2 interactions. This process could then be further supported by working with a

curriculum or program coordinator who supervises a given specific pedagogical session and determines an overall goal. Such larger institutional objectives become a reference point against which the effectiveness and appropriateness of a particular practice or decision at a given moment can be discussed with the instructor trainee.

### **7.5. Limitations and Directions for Future Research**

While the current study has yielded some important findings in regard to the constructive process of L2 learning in the one-on-one pedagogical context and how focal practices are utilized in the process, it is certainly not without several limitations that must be considered. In this section, I will discuss the limitations as to what can be inferred from the current study and further suggest some possible directions for future research that may address the limitations.

The first limitation that must be mentioned is that the analysis based on the current data set does not fully portray the constructive processes of all the learning opportunities occasioned in the one-on-one instructional session. In this study, only two one-on-one instructors consented to participate out of four one-on-one instructors working during summer 2019. Even though every instructor is given the same institutionalized objectives and teaching materials for the one-on-one sessions, each instructor may interpret and act upon the given pedagogical goals differently. As such, there could be other practices or verbal/non-verbal resources that instructors who were not present in this study employ to accomplish the same institutional goals or different aspects of the same given objectives. Although this limitation does not necessarily undermine the legitimacy of the analysis of the current research per se, it is still important to note that the findings of this study may not account for and be applicable to all the one-on-one sessions that occurred during the 2019 summer study abroad program.

Given this limitation, future research should expand its data corpus by collecting more data from the same or similar one-on-one institutional contexts. Such research can further investigate how the focal practices examined in this dissertation are employed by other participants in different one-on-one pedagogical settings. Furthermore, the institutional objectives for one-on-one language teaching can vary depending on different language programs. Future research should thus be extended to such one-on-one language sessions conducted in other language programs in order to identify different types of pedagogical activities and, by extension, learning opportunities constructed in a given pedagogical setting. This kind of future endeavor will not just deepen the understanding of practices examined in the current research but also further illuminate how different practices are used to embody institutionalized objectives for one-on-one language teaching contexts. Additionally, as mentioned in Chapter 3, this current research was initially intended to compare participants' practices employed to construct learning opportunities across different social settings. Future research thus looks into the already collected data from such contexts and investigate how similar or different kinds of learning opportunities are interactionally co-constructed.

The second limitation is the degree to which the current research can inform language pedagogy. Even though the institutionalized pedagogical objectives are given to instructors, how exactly such objectives should be accomplished during a session is not explicitly stated in the institution's document. As such, we are not equipped with any specific guidelines or baselines that can be used to assess the quality of observed one-on-one instructional sessions. In future studies, therefore, ethnographic information regarding the institutionalized criteria should be further collected to analyze and assess these types of pedagogical interactions. For instance, pre-/post-program interviews with the program coordinator(s), director(s), and/or one-on-one

instructors might be necessary to determine whether the way in which one-on-one sessions are currently conducted aligns with their intentions. Without such ethnographic information, it would be difficult to make any concrete suggestions that bring about meaningful and effective changes at practical levels.

To address this second limitation, another possible direction for future research is an interventionist approach of applied CA (Antaki, 2011). This approach is defined as CA-based research that intends to apply its methodological framework to explicitly address “practical problems as it plays out in interaction, with the intention of bringing about some sort of change” (Antaki, 2011; p.1). Previous studies have adopted this approach in different institutional contexts, including doctor-patient consultations (e.g., Heritage et al., 2007; Robinson & Heritage, 2014), telephone conversations (e.g., Kitzinger, 2011), and role-play trainings (Stokoe, 2011, 2014), to inform participants’ practices based on CA findings. The field of CA-SLA has recently been witnessing a growth, albeit small, of a body of research that implements this interventionist approach (e.g., Carpenter, 2021; also see Markee, 2021 for an overview). Carpenter (2021), for example, designed and conducted a CA-based longitudinal intervention during ESL teacher training sessions that she supervised. In the process, she and a trainee identified three issues in the way the trainee elicits information from students in class through CA-guided observation. After several interventional meetings, the teacher trainee was able to improve the way in which she solicits students’ participation during class (Carpenter, 2021). As highlighted by other CA scholars (e.g., Antaki, 2011; Markee et al., 2021; Mori, 2021), however, what is important when incorporating such CA-based interventional approaches is to take into account larger institutional goals (e.g., concrete lesson plans that correspond to the given curriculum design) of a given setting. In future studies, such relevant ethnographic information that can be used as a reference

for making any practical suggestions should thus be collected, through semi-structured interviews for instance, in addition to video-/audio-recorded interactional data.

Another methodology-related limitation of the current study is that its analysis, or CA-based analysis on L2 interactions in general, does not always tell us whether learning, in the sense of change in cognitive states and abilities, has occurred as a result of the learning opportunities constructed through the identified focal practices (e.g., Mailesi & Broth, 2012). To be sure, the primary objectives of the current study are focused on the *process* of how learning opportunities are interactionally co-constructed, rather than on the *outcome* of such learning opportunities. However, language teaching practitioners and language education researchers may be more interested in questions related to whether or not learning has actually taken place in the one-on-one session.

One answer that the current data and analysis can provide in regard to this issue, despite its methodological limitations, is that the learning opportunities constructed during the one-on-one session do not always result in *learning*, in the sense that a learner uses the newly acquired language form in a similar and/or entirely novel context (Ellis, 2010). In the current data, there are cases in which an instructor and a learner orient to the same linguistic items at different sessions. For instance, at one session, the instructor provides a vocabulary explanation on the focal lexicon, but the learner does not incorporate the word in a way that necessarily demonstrates her gained understanding of the lexical meaning, as shown similarly in Chapter 5 (Excerpt 2). The same lexical item is then made relevant to the interaction again at a different session after a few weeks. During the session, the learner reveals that she knows what the focal item means but does not know how to use it in her response, which further results in a series of explanation and practice sequences focusing on this focal lexical item. This session illustrates

that learning opportunities constructed in the one-on-one instructional session do not always lead to the development of the learner's ability to freely use the target language form.

Despite this difficulty and complexity that accompany the process of identifying the cognitive change that takes place as a result of constructing learning opportunities, some CA scholars have attempted to tackle this precise issue and successfully demonstrated evidence of learning. Markee (2008), for example, utilizes a "learning behavior tracking" (LBT) method to longitudinally document the way in which a learner's orientation to the word "prerequisites" changes over time. Similarly, drawing on the LBT method, Hauser (2017) examines the longitudinal data on conversation-for-learning interaction (Kasper, 2004) and tracks how a Japanese learner of English learns to use the lexicon "near" through interacting with an L1 speaker of English. His longitudinal data provides empirical evidence that interactional practices, such as repair and repetition, which are produced contingently upon the ongoing conversation, can provide unplanned opportunities for learning vocabulary. More importantly, his study also successfully documents different stages of learning using longitudinal CA, and empirically demonstrates how learning opportunities observed in the data can indeed result in lexical acquisition. This type of longitudinal CA studies has also been conducted in other L2 learning environments and similarly shown the evidence of learning over time (e.g., Katilainen & Kurhila, 2020; Pekarek Doehler, 2018; Sert, 2017). Documenting and demonstrating the evidence of L2 acquisition resulting from the observed learning opportunities through CA is, therefore, possible. Future research could also be conducted to longitudinally track down how instructors and learners construct one-on-one sessions and display orientations to the given institutionality changes over time.

This longitudinal CA approach is, however, not always practical, and certainly not without its own limitations. The most apparent practical difficulty is that searching for a piece of evidence of long-term learning using CA is an extremely lengthy process with no guarantee that a learning object to be tracked will be identified (Seedhouse, 2022). Moreover, as some CA scholars have indicated, not all learning, which is analyzable from CA-based emic perspectives, is visible to analysts in the collected data (e.g., Gardner, 2008, 2012). This means that, although CA is capable of tracking and documenting not just the *process* but the *product* of learning, whether such research is fruitful in terms of its future direction remains questionable.

More recently, Seedhouse (2022) argues that a single methodology is not sufficient to accurately capture its complexity of L2 learning and further proposes quantitative-qualitative mixed methods to study both the process and product of learning. In his proposal, Seedhouse suggests ways to combine CA methodology with quantitative pre-/pos-language testing and self-report interviews in order to more comprehensively examine the L2 learning phenomena from multiple perspectives. Although this mixed method approach remains at the proposal stage and must overcome several practical hurdles, it can nevertheless serve as a potential direction for future researchers to capture the comprehensive picture of the complex phenomena of language learning.

Despite the limitations discussed above, I believe that the current research has demonstrated the significance of CA-based micro-analytic research on interactions for L2 learning by investigating how pedagogical goals of one-on-one instructional sessions are talked into different learning opportunities through various interactional practices. In order for the knowledge generated from this type of research to effectively inform practice and make a substantial impact on pedagogy, as previously mentioned, it is necessary to conduct more

research on the relationship between L2 learning, interaction, and institutionality. This dissertation has been an attempt to examine and explicate such interwoven relationship, which I will continue to build upon and expand through future research.

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## **Appendix A: Consent Form for Focal Participants**

### **UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MADISON Research Participant Information and Consent Form**

**Title of the Study:** Language Learning through Social Interaction

Principal Investigator: Prof. Junko Mori (email: jmori@wisc.edu)

Student Researcher: Yoshiyuki Hara (email: yhara2@wisc.edu)

#### **DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH**

You are invited to participate in a research study that primarily aims to investigate how learners of Japanese use verbal and non-verbal resources to conduct language learning through social interaction.

You have been asked to participate because you are identified as a learner of Japanese whose first language is not Japanese.

#### **WHAT WILL MY PARTICIPATION INVOLVE?**

If you agree to participate in this research project, you will be asked to audio- or video-record your conversations outside the classroom and upload the data into an online shared box a couple of times per week for the next two months. You will also be asked to get verbal or written consent from any conversational partner(s) who take part in the recorded interaction. In addition, I may interview you about these conversations once in the course of one or two weeks. The purpose of this interview would be to ask some clarification questions regarding the content, phrases, or words in your conversation that are unfamiliar to the researcher's knowledge. You always have the right to choose not to be recorded.

The collected conversational data will be used for academic research, as the basis for the publication of research results in scholarly journals, and for presentations at professional conferences, meetings, and educational settings. By signing this form, you are indicating that you are giving me informed consent to use the collected data, both audio- and video-tape/images, for the purposes mentioned above.

#### **ARE THERE ANY RISKS/BENEFITS TO ME?**

Potential risks include psychological discomfort that comes from being part of recordings. In addition, although the research team will do everything they can to maintain confidentiality, there is a slight risk that confidentiality could be breached.

Upon the completion of the data collection, you will be given a 100 dollar gift card for your participation.

The findings of the study will also be potentially beneficial to the field of applied linguistics, second language acquisition, and foreign language education.

**HOW WILL MY CONFIDENTIALITY BE PROTECTED?**

While there will probably be publications as a result of this study, your real name will not be used. The researchers will make sure that any instances of name or identifying information aside from the participants' image will be masked. In order to ensure that any research findings can be replicated reliably by subsequent researchers, your signature also indicates consent to maintain the audio- and video-recordings of your conversation as a resource for research and educational purposes for an indefinite period of time. The recording data will be stored on a secured laptop and UW Box that only the researchers have access.

**WHOM SHOULD I CONTACT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?**

You may ask any questions about the research at any time. If you have questions about the research after you leave today you should contact either the principal investigator or the student researcher:

Principal Investigator: Prof. Junko Mori, Email: [jmori@wisc.edu](mailto:jmori@wisc.edu)

Student researcher: Yoshiyuki Hara, Email: [yhara2@wisc.edu](mailto:yhara2@wisc.edu)

If you are not satisfied with response of research team, have more questions, or want to talk with someone about your rights as a research participant, you should contact the Education and Social/Behavioral Science IRB Office at 608-263-2320.

Your participation is completely voluntary. If you decide not to participate or to withdraw from the study it will have no effect on any services or treatment you are currently receiving. Your course grade will never be affected because of the participation in this study or not. You may stop taping/recording at any time without penalty. You also may review the recording and notify the investigator of your wish to exclude your audio and video tapes from the database of this study anytime.

Your signature indicates that you have read this consent form, had an opportunity to ask any questions about your participation in this research and voluntarily consent to participate. You will receive a copy of this form for your records.

Name of Participant (please print): \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## **Appendix B: Consent Form for General Participants**

### **UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MADISON Research Participant Information and Consent Form**

**Title of the Study:** Language Learning through Social Interaction

Principal Investigator: Prof. Junko Mori (email: jmori@wisc.edu)

Student Researcher: Yoshiyuki Hara (email: yhara2@wisc.edu)

#### **DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH**

You are invited to participate in a research study that primarily aims to investigate how learners of Japanese use verbal and non-verbal resources to conduct language learning through social interaction.

You have been asked to participate because you are identified as a potential participant of conversation in which a focal subject of this research will be engaged.

#### **WHAT WILL MY PARTICIPATION INVOLVE?**

If you agree to participate in this research and sign this form, you are giving me consent to record any of the subsequent conversation that you are engaged with the focal subjects (learners of Japanese) in the next two months. You may always choose not to be recorded. If you are a learner of Japanese yourself, you will additionally be asked to complete a simple questionnaire regarding your demographic information and previous learning background. This questionnaire will take approximately 5 to 10 minutes.

The collected conversational data will be used for academic research, as the basis for the publication of research results in scholarly journals, and for presentations at professional conferences, meetings, and educational settings. By signing this form, you are indicating that you are giving me informed consent to use the collected data, both audio- and video-tape/images, for the purposes mentioned above.

#### **ARE THERE ANY RISKS/BENEFITS TO ME?**

Potential risks include psychological discomfort that comes from being part of recordings. In addition, although the research team will do everything they can to maintain confidentiality, there is a slight risk that confidentiality could be breached.

Upon the completion of the data collection, you will be given a 10 dollar gift card for your participation.

The findings of the study will also be potentially beneficial to the field of applied linguistics, second language acquisition, and foreign language education.

#### **HOW WILL MY CONFIDENTIALITY BE PROTECTED?**

While there will probably be publications as a result of this study, your real name will not be used. The researchers will make sure that any instances of name or identifying information aside from the participants' image will be masked.

In order to ensure that any research findings can be replicated reliably by subsequent researchers, your signature also indicates consent to maintain the audio- and video-recordings of your conversation as a resource for research and educational purposes for an indefinite period of time. The recording data will be stored on a secured laptop and UW Box that only the researchers have access.

**WHOM SHOULD I CONTACT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?**

You may ask any questions about the research at any time. If you have questions about the research after you leave today you should contact either the principal investigator or the student researcher:

Principal Investigator: Prof. Junko Mori, Email: [jmori@wisc.edu](mailto:jmori@wisc.edu)

Student researcher: Yoshiyuki Hara, Email: [yhara2@wisc.edu](mailto:yhara2@wisc.edu)

If you are not satisfied with response of research team, have more questions, or want to talk with someone about your rights as a research participant, you should contact the Education and Social/Behavioral Science IRB Office at 608-263-2320.

Your participation is completely voluntary. If you decide not to participate or to withdraw from the study it will have no effect on any services or treatment you are currently receiving. Your course grade will never be affected because of the participation in this study or not. You may stop taping/recording at any time without penalty. You also may review the recording and notify the investigator of your wish to exclude your audio and video tapes from the database of this study anytime.

Your signature indicates that you have read this consent form, had an opportunity to ask any questions about your participation in this research and voluntarily consent to participate. You will receive a copy of this form for your records.

Name of Participant (please print): \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix C: Questionnaire

### Questionnaire

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Gender: \_\_\_\_\_

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Nationality: \_\_\_\_\_

First Language: \_\_\_\_\_ Second Language: \_\_\_\_\_

Email: \_\_\_\_\_

Most recent Japanese language course taken (including the materials/content of the course):

\_\_\_\_\_

List of all Japanese language courses taken (including year, levels, and names of textbooks):

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Current Japanese course being taken: \_\_\_\_\_

Years of Japanese formal studying: \_\_\_\_\_

Years of Japanese self-study: \_\_\_\_\_

Years of previous staying/living/studying in Japan: \_\_\_\_\_

Any other qualifications that indicate your Japanese proficiency level (e.g. JLPT, OPI, etc.):

\_\_\_\_\_

**I am interested in participating in the research as a focal subject:**

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ Only if no one is doing it \_\_\_\_\_