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Opportunities for Learning: Teacher-Student and Student-Student Interaction in an Information Gap Task

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This research uses conversation analysis (CA) methodology to analyze teacher-student and student-student interaction that occurred within an EFL class information gap task. The research uses as data fine grained transcription of discourse in which three tertiary level, high intermediate learners collaborate together to complete a spot the difference task, while teacher overlooks and often joins in the interaction. The aim of the research is to offer empirical evidence for how the turn-by-turn organization of talk-in-interaction within the information gap task provides opportunities for learning, and how participants orient to their respective roles of teacher and learner to facilitate and promote learning. Using a CA framework, the research highlights interactional practices with a primary focus on repair and word searches to show how opportunity for learning arises in the task, while also highlighting sequences that arise in and around the repair, such as counter questioning, designedly incomplete utterances, and explicit positive assessment. This paper suggests that CA of language classroom interaction can inform and enhance SLA notions of corrective feedback, and provide teachers with opportunity to reflect on and improve their interactional practices.

**[conversation analysis/opportunity for learning/information gap task/
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I. INTRODUCTION

Current student centered, communicative language teaching and learning methodologies place emphasis on providing learners with opportunity to communicate (Harmer, 2001). Such methodologies, in no small part, are based on second language acquisition (SLA) theory that interactional modification of language and negotiation for meaning within talk provides a means for comprehensible language input and output, which in turn, are

considered valuable to the SLA process (e.g. Krashen, 1980; Long, 1983a, 1983b, 1996; Swain, 1985). As a result, the language classroom environment has adapted to incorporate a large amount of pair and group work, and activities, such as information gap tasks, which promote the acquisition process in this way (Mori, 2004). Hall and Pekarek Doehler (2011) note the substantial growth in research into L2 social interaction within the last 15 years. Such research has been undertaken on the sociolinguistic front to determine "how participants achieve some of the pedagogical behaviors" (Markee, 2004, p. 583) common in today's language classrooms and that may be considered as conducive to SLA. Conversation analysis (CA) has emerged as an analytic tool used in the attempt to gather evidence of the connection between social interaction and language learning (Huth, 2011; Hall & Walsh, 2002).

Evolving from ethnomethodology in the 1960's and 70's, CA was designed to study people's mundane conversation and how it was used to make sense of their day to day life. While CA was not originally intended to investigate interaction within SLA, the focus of its adoption into this field has been to provide insight into the "social aspects of language acquisition" (Kasper & Wagner, 2011, p. 117). In other words, this sub-field of SLA theory, termed CA-for-SLA, aims to provide insight into L2 learning as a social practice. Markee (2000) notes the need for conversation analysis of language classroom interaction, in order to examine "the effects on language learning of (a) conversational repairs and (b) conversational input in general to investigate whether the moment-by-moment sequential organization of such talk has any direct and observable acquisitional consequences" (p. 42). This study addresses the need to better understand such interaction by examining the moment-by-moment interactional organization of an information gap task that occurred in a Korean adult conversation class. The task chosen as data for analysis was an excerpt of one lesson in a series of eight lessons that were video recorded at a Korean adult language institute. Taking a CA approach, the research investigates the following questions:

1. How does the turn-by-turn organization of teacher and student initiated repair sequences and resulting discourse provide or restrict learning opportunities and affordances for learning?
2. How do members of the classroom orient to specific roles of teacher and learner / expert and novice within the talk-in-interaction to facilitate and promote classroom learning?

Within this research, opportunity for learning may be defined as "access to any activity that is likely to lead to an increase in knowledge or skill" (Crabbe, 2003, p. 18), while affordance is taken to mean an "interactive, linking concept with the approximate meaning of an individual learning opportunity" (Edge, 2011, p. 32).

The task occurred among three students in a two-against-one fashion, with the teacher overlooking and regularly joining in. Within the data, opportunity for learning arose most often through repair, which in its broadest sense may be defined as "the treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 168). In this sense, 'trouble' is regarded as anything problematic in the interaction. It is important to note that all language is a potential source of trouble for interactants and therefore repairable. Markee (2000) asserts the potential for learners to "exploit repair on a moment-by-moment basis as a resource for language learning" (p. 99). Such repair may occur in four ways, distinguished in terms of who accomplishes the repair (Wong & Waring, 2010). Firstly, self-initiated self-repair is accomplished by a speaker who both initiates and completes the repair. Self-initiated other-repair is initiated by the current speaker and repaired by another interactant. Other-initiated self-repair is initiated by an interactant other than the current speaker and repaired by the current speaker. Finally, other-initiated other-repair is both initiated and repaired by an interactant other than the current speaker. Repair has been the focus of much work in the CA-for-SLA field because of the perceived opportunity for learning that arises through it (e.g. Kasper, 1985) and is the primary focus of this current research. As repair represents a key element of classroom interaction, by highlighting the interactional unfolding of specific repair sequences as they occurred in the data, this paper aims to contribute to a better understanding of Korean adult conversation in the classroom context.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Interaction and Interactional Competence

The current SLA paradigm, that acquisition relies heavily on interaction, may be traced to Long's interaction hypothesis, which assumes that "environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, through *negotiation for meaning*" (1996, p. 414). In other words, comprehensible input alone is not enough, moreover, it is social interaction and negotiation for meaning that allows language to be produced as modified input. This mechanism allows learners to develop their communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). Long (1980) pointed out that modification of interaction may involve various strategies, including comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetition and confirmation of message meaning among other conversational adjustments. Such a causal, albeit indirect, relationship between modified interaction and a learner's language development is

summarized as follows:

1. Interactional modification makes input comprehensible;
2. Comprehensible input promotes acquisition; Therefore,
3. Interactional modification promotes acquisition. (Lighbown & Spada, 2003, p. 43)

Subsequently, Swain (1985) forwarded the notion that comprehensible output also plays a crucial role in a learner's language development. Swain asserts that for successful acquisition, it is also necessary for a learner to develop their syntactic ability, something not always important when comprehending input alone, but necessary when producing comprehensible output.

A naturally reflexive relationship has developed between such work on interaction and communicative language teaching (e.g., Canale & Swain, 1980), the popular teaching method in which communication is both the goal and the means of learning. The aim of such an approach has been to develop learners' communicative competence. An extremely important sub category of communicative competence, as rethought by Celce-Murcia (2007), is interactional competence, the learners' ability to interact with their fellow interlocutors. According to Celce-Murcia (2007), interactional competence subsumes actional competence, knowing how to complete speech acts such as expressing feelings or dealing with problems; conversational competence, knowing how to take turns in conversation, and paralinguistic competence, which includes all the non-verbal interaction such as body language, gaze and silence. A learners' interactional competence is displayed in their 'interactional practices,' and as the central thesis in this research, conversation analysis of teacher and student classroom interaction is able to make "our understanding of interactional competence more specific, more systematic, and more pedagogically sound" (Wong & Waring, 2010, p. 8).

2. CA and Its Application to Language Learning and Teaching

One major advantage of CA is that it is able to offer an emic, data driven perspective on the social, interactional nature of language (Sert & Seedhouse, 2011), which aims to "discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of action are generated" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998, p. 94). Taking a CA approach to interaction allows for analysis on a turn by turn basis. It is important to note that turns at talk may operate on a number of levels:

> The utterance is a display of the learner's analysis of the prior utterance of an interactant; it performs a social action in response and it positions the learner

> in a social system. It displays an understanding of the current context (sequential, social and L2 classroom context) and also renews it (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 178).

As such, Seedhouse points out that turns within the discourse are complex and are used to talk the classroom context in and out of being. In other words, it is through the interaction that context is created. Furthermore, students use their turns to show their position with regard to understanding the context in which they are in. It is essential to consider the sequential environment in which contributions to talk take place and in which participants are interacting, as it forms the interactional environment. Simultaneously, each contribution to talk 'renews' the context in which it occurs. Seedhouse also notes that within such a CA framework, all details of the interaction should be viewed as potentially important.

Previous studies have used CA to investigate various interactional practices during task interaction and other classroom talk. Jenks (2009) used CA to investigate participatory responsibilities and rights in information gap tasks and how such rights and responsibilities are managed. Jenks found that with regard to information gap tasks "the task design characteristic of exchanging referential information forms the basis of a two-part interaction sequence, where the recipient of missing information is predisposed to expose problematic utterances" (p. 185). Mori (2004) investigated the negotiation of sequential boundaries and learning opportunities during task interaction, also using CA techniques. Mori found that the sequential boundaries of repair within tasks are messy and complex, and advocates that teachers offer learners the use of L1 in the negotiation of such interaction to avoid unnecessary hindrance that an L2 only policy may cause. Furthermore, Markee (2004) uses CA to investigate zones of interactional transition, which he defined as "talk that occurs at the boundaries of different speech exchange systems" (p. 583). Markee found that language learning may be postponed or interrupted because of the interactional need to deal with issues such as hierarchy, saving face, or an impasse in the talk.

Nevertheless, the incorporation of CA in SLA studies has not been without criticism. One such reproach is that "CA is a behavioral discipline while SLA studies are a cognitive discipline" (Markee, 2000, p. 30), the counter argument being that cognition may be viewed as socially distributed and observable in conversation, and therefore analyzable through a CA perspective. One school of thought suggests that SLA is, at least partly, introspective, passive and singular. In this respect CA is not useful, as it cannot analyze what is not observable. On the other hand, CA may be regarded as useful when SLA is considered not as passive and static, rather as "an active process of problem solving" (He, 2004, p. 573), as is the case with much classroom interaction. This claim is advanced by Schegloff (1991) who argues that sequencing, turn taking and repair may be seen as

socially distributed cognition.

A further criticism suggests that CA may be equipped to examine language use, but not language acquisition (Markee, 2000). The negation of this claim, while accepting that language use is subsumed by acquisition, asserts that both are inextricably linked and that SLA studies would, in fact, be enriched by "conversational analysis of the sequential and other resources that speakers use to modify each other's talk and thereby to comprehend and learn new language" (p. 32).

The view of CA's contribution to SLA taken in this current research is in line with Markee (2000), who states that "CA can help refine insights into how the structure of conversation can be used by learners as a means of getting comprehended input and producing comprehended output" (p. 44). Furthermore, the language learning classroom with language as both the means and the goal of the class, coupled with learners who are not fully proficient in the language, make language classroom participants "display of and orientation towards understanding... critical to the overall purpose and outcome of the talk itself" (Huth, 2011, p. 300).

CA, then, may better our understanding of SLA, in as much as analysis is able to take on an emic perspective of participants interactional practices, describe them using fine grained transcripts, use such transcripts to identify evidence of learning and understanding as they occur in conversational behavior and in doing so, add to our understanding of the social interaction hypothesis (Markee, 2000). This current research aims to gain insight into interaction within a typical information gap task undertaken in a high intermediate Korean university EFL class by attempting to show whether such interaction, either between teachers and student or student and student is "'doing' what we expect [it] to, and *how*?" (Huth, 2011, p. 300).

III. METHOD

The data gathered for analysis was collected from a non-compulsory, high-intermediate English language conversation/discussion class at the language institute of a university in Seoul, South Korea. Written permission was obtained from the pupils and the language institute to record and analyze the lessons. To protect the anonymity of the participants of this study, their names have been replaced with random letters.

Data were recorded by means of a video recorder placed in the front of the class and small MP3 recording devices placed in front of each pair of students, as and when they arrived to class, so as to catch any data missed by the video recording device. All data used in this study comes from the transcriptions of the video/audio recordings and a questionnaire designed to elicit only student's basic information. No pre or post testing

took place, as CA does not rely on what participants, or indeed analysts, think may or may not be relevant, as such evidence is ultimately likely to prove vague and confusing to the analyst (Seedhouse, 2004). The aim of relying only on the evidence provided in the transcripts is "to develop an emic perspective on how the participants display to each other their understanding of the context" (p. 43).

Of eight recorded lessons, three were chosen at random and roughly transcribed. Then, the CA technique of *unmotivated looking* (Psathas, 1995), through the data was employed to select a spot the difference task, which occurred in lesson eight of the recorded data. The task was taken from the supplementary material section of the teacher's guide to the course textbook American English File 3 (Oxenden & Latham-Koenig, 2008) (see Appendix I), a four skills, high intermediate level textbook, with a focus on improving communication. In previous lessons, students had been working within a section of the textbook titled *Judging by appearances,* however, this was the first task of the lesson, given after approximately ten minutes of introductory talk between students and teacher. The aim of the task was to practice describing people and their general appearance and as a lead in to the unit section, in which such language would be necessary for study. The task consisted of two pictures, 'A' and 'B', of six people. Each of the people in the respective pictures looked similar, but had one or more differences in their appearance. The instructions on each of the pictures read 'Describe your picture to A/B. Find ten differences. Mark the differences on your picture'.

At the time of recording, three students were present. Two students are paired off against the third in order to complete the task. Due to the uneven number of students in the class, for the purpose of the task, L and R were given picture 'A' to share, while student D was given picture 'B'. Students therefore collaborated together in this way to complete the task. The teacher positioned himself close by, monitored and often actively assisted the students in the completion of the task. As such the data is rich in student-student as well as teacher-student interaction, as is evident in analysis.

The particular spot the difference task was chosen because on initial examination, the interaction appeared to contain many learning opportunities, which triggered motivation for further analysis. This researcher also felt the task represents those typically used in adult Korean language classrooms such as the one in which it occurs. The chosen excerpt also satisfies the general definition of a task in that it is an activity "where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome" (Willis, 1996, p. 23). Furthermore, spot the difference tasks, which may be subsumed under the heading of information gap exercises, are said to particularly promote negotiation for meaning, as well as language learning in general (e.g. Jenks, 2009; Pica, 2005).

This research is interested in how students negotiate completion of a spot the difference

task, often with the aid of the teacher, and how, and to what extent, the task does or does not present affordances for learning new vocabulary and language. As noted, the focus of the analysis is on repair primarily because it represents important cognitive incidents and is relevant to the promotion of SLA (Markee, 2000; Mori & Hasegawa, 2009), but also because repair appears frequently within the chosen excerpt of discourse. Of particular interest are word searches, which "refer to a speaker grasping for a word that is temporarily unavailable or on the tip of his or her tongue" (Wong & Waring, 2010, p. 218) and the resulting discourse.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis employs conversation analytic strategies outlined in ten Have (2007), and Seeedhouse (2004). Detailed written transcription is used as data for analysis, following transcription conventions outlined in Atkinson and Heritage (1984). This publication may be referred to for a detailed transcription discussion, in which the authors offer a complete guide to conversation analytic transcript notation. A summary of transcription conventions is presented in Appendix II. Any unspoken actions such as gaze or gesture will be noted within the transcription and/or described within the analysis.

The spot the difference task will be presented in this study as a single case analysis. Mori (2004) weighs up the undertaking of a single case analysis versus analysis of a number of cases for recurrent practices. Mori states that the benefit of analyzing many cases "underscores the recurrence of a particular practice observed across different contexts" (p. 539), while the single case analysis shows how "the resources of past work on a range of phenomena and organizational domains in talk are brought to bear on a *single fragment* of talk" (Schegloff, 1987, p. 101). In other words, the single case analysis highlights not unknown findings, but rather, what is already known about the discourse in question. Support for the single case analysis is further bolstered by Lazaraton (2003) who states "the emphasis in CA is on understanding single cases in and of themselves, not as part of larger aggregates of data" (p. 3).

1. L's Initiation of a Word Search (Line 114) and Resulting Discourse

The following text will be analyzed from two perspectives, firstly, as student L's self-initiated repair in the form of a word search (Brower, 2003), then as teacher's counter questioning technique (Markee, 2004). The students, with the aid of the teacher, are discussing the difference between the man who in one picture has a beard and in the other a moustache.

EXCERPT 1

112 L: And he wear a glasses
113 D: Yeah, and u::m
114 L: And he have this? (1.5) ((makes beard gesture))
115 T: ◦What's that? ◦=
116 R: =Mousta- moustache?
117 T: Mm.
118 D: [Yes-
119 T: [Be careful, err, (0.5) be careful, be careful (0.5)
120 D: He [puts his left hand
121 T: [What do y- no, no, no, no, don't, don't wait, wait, wait. =
122 D: Ok
123 T: What did you say? (0.4)
124 L: Here ((motions with beard gesture))
125 T: What's this, what's this called? ((makes beard gesture))
126 R: Mousta, moust-
127 T: Be careful. (1) What's this called? ((makes moustache gesture))
128 L: Ah, this is mousta-? ((makes moustache gesture))
129 T: This is moustache ((makes moustache gesture))
130 R: [[moustache]] ((makes moustache gesture))
131 L: [[moustache]] ((makes moustache gesture))
132 D: ◦moustache◦ ((makes moustache gesture))
133 T: What's this? ((makes beard gesture))
134 L: Beard? ((makes beard gesture))
135 T: Beard
136 R: Beard ((makes beard gesture))
137 D: ◦Beard◦ ((makes beard gesture))
138 T: Yes ok. You have a beard, you have a, what do you have Robert?
139 B: Moustache

This excerpt begins at line 112 as the students are discussing the second person in their respective pictures. Having noticed that the man in both pictures is wearing glasses, all three students are looking for a difference. In line 113, D shows that he has not yet found the difference with an unfinished turn construction unit (Wong & Waring, 2010), allowing L's word search in line 114 "And he have this?" while making a beard gesture with her hands. In this instance, L is looking for the word 'beard', but cannot find it. Word searches such as L's in this instance may be considered language learning opportunities (e.g. Markee,

2004; Mori 2004; Mori & Hasegawa, 2009). According to Brouwer (2003, p. 542), language learning opportunities become available in word searches when "(a) the other participant is invited to participate in the search, and (b) the interactants demonstrate an orientation to language expertise, with one participant being a novice and the other being an expert." In Excerpt 1, T orients toward the teacher/expert role through the use of display questions (e.g., Ellis, 1997) in lines 125, 127 and 133. Throughout the sequence, students direct there gaze towards T and willingly and simultaneously answer T's display questions for the purpose of understanding the words beard and moustache. They may, therefore, be understood as orienting towards embodying Brower's (2003) notion of novice in the sequence. Thus, L's word search and the subsequent participant orientation towards identities of teacher/expert and student/novice during the word search sequence has given rise to opportunity for vocabulary learning of the words beard and moustache.

From an alternative perspective, by returning to L's turn in line 114, we notice in the following discourse that the turn is a trigger for a counter question sequence. It is possible to note that the sequence follows the typical counter sequence trajectory outlined in Markee (2004), in which the student begins with a question (line 114), the teacher uses the following turn for the counter question (line 115), the learner provides the answer to the counter question (line 116) and the teacher comments on the learners answer (line 117). T initiates counter questioning because L is encountering trouble with the difference between beard and moustache, something relevant to the outcome of the task. T's comment turn in line 117 draws attention to the trouble source and acts as a springboard for T to guide the students through the difference between beard and moustache.

According to Markee (2004) the teacher practice of counter questioning acts to regain control of interaction and clear up trouble within the interaction. However, this practice can also have negative consequences because it can provoke challenges from both teachers and students, either in the counter question sequence or in the discourse that follows. In this sequence, in line 117, T comments with a cautionary "Mm," which acts to draw attention to the trouble the students are having in correctly defining 'beard,' suggesting that T is not satisfied with R's answer "Mousta- moustache?". T's comment "Mm" is interesting because it hints to the learners that all is not well, but does not explicitly rectify the trouble. Instead, T gives the students interactional space (Walsh, 2011) to self-repair and therefore gives learners the agency to potentially rectify the trouble themselves. T's next turn is as a warning, but again does not explicitly rectify the trouble giving the learners further interactional space to self-repair and thus promote learning of this particular lexical item. Nevertheless, what follows is a direct command to wait in line 121: "[What do y- no, no, no, no, don't, don't wait, wait, wait. =". This turn acts to challenge D to stop what he is doing, it also singles out D as moving in the wrong direction and therefore negatively evaluates this student, causing him to lose his initiative to make progress in the task.

In sum, T's invitation from L to become the 'expert' in a word search and learners' willingness to orient to the role of novice facilitates learning. T's tendency to allow the learners interactional space to self-repair also gives them the initiative to take responsibility for the trouble in the discourse themselves. However, T's original initiation of counter questioning lead to T challenging D to stop what he is doing, which in turn lead to T's negative evaluation of D, preventing D from making independent progress in the task.

2. L's Initiation of a Word Search (Line 156) and Resulting Discourse

In this excerpt, opportunity for learning arises as students attempt to describe the third woman in their respective pictures. T controls much of the discourse while T and students work together to find the word afro, which describes the woman's hair in picture A. T uses caretaker talk to deal with the potentially racially loaded word 'afro'. Also highlighted in the analysis of this excerpt is evidence of learning in the zone of proximinal development (Vygotsky, 1978) and L's code switching in line 171.

EXCERPT 2

156 L: ...Third woman, (0.5) um. (1) She's hair is? (0.2)
157 R: Roundy? Ha:h ((directs gave at paper and smiles))
158 L: Ha::::h
159 T: Her hair is? (0.5)
160 L: However, her hair is cu- uh cu- ani?
161 T: What do we call this?
162 D: Perm
163 L: Curl, curl
164 T: Curly, yes, but if, especially if on black people
165 L: Uhh
166 T: What do we call. (0.5)
167 R: Perm?
168 T: Not perm (.4) Special for black people (1.2) it's called afro.
169 L: Afro? How we can?
170 T: A.f.r.o. You have an af- he has an afro
171 L: Oh, uh, afro, maybe afro is a word that um, ((turns to partner and hides mouth with right hand)) ◦injeongchabyeol? ◦ ((Meaning racial discrimination))
172 T: Especially for black people's hair
173 R: Racism?
174 T: No, no

175 L: Racial [racial discrimination?
176 T: [Afro is not racist
177 L: Oh, no? ok
178 T: No, that's just the name of hairstyle
179 L: Ah, ok

In line 156, L is moving the task along to discuss the third person in the picture. She tries to describe the woman's hair but cannot find the word. In this turn, L's word search becomes the catalyst for the discourse in the excerpt through to line 181, which is all related to comprehending and discussing the word 'afro'. In line 157, R provides other repair by suggesting the word "roundy", which he potentially understands as incorrect and has likely said for humorous effect as he utters the word while directing his gaze at his paper, chuckling and smiling. L understands R's turn as humorous and laughs in response. The following adjacency pair in lines 159 and 160 highlights Vygotsky's zone of proximinal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) defines the ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). L produces a grammatical error "She's hair is", and therein displays her actual developmental level. T's question "Her hair is?" is a display of the target phrase and may be seen as scaffolding, as it is the precise phrase, designed to correct the particular error of the learner (de Bot et al., 2005). The following line is evidence of uptake in that L notices her error and produces the correct target language.

Within the interactional work T and students do to reach the desired word 'afro', lines 166-168 are significant as they contain evidence of caretaker language, sometimes termed 'motherese' (Ellis, 1997), produced by T. Line 166, for example, is a designedly incomplete utterance, as evidenced by the fall in tone at the final word and subsequent pause of 0.5 seconds, and typical of primary school classroom discourse (Margutti, 2010). Line 168 is also clearly evidence of reduced grammar and restricted code. It may be argued that T is using such caretaker language because the topic of discussion involves the potentially contentious issue of race, and T wishes to make discussion of such an issue acceptable within the discourse of the lesson. It is uncertain whether T's use of caretaker language was the driving force for L to initiate discussion about whether the word afro is racially discriminate, however, certainly, both L and R in the turns that follow, feel comfortable enough to raise the issue.

In line 171, L initiates another word search and this time, in doing so, code switches (Ellis, 1997) to her mother tongue for the word "injeongchabyeol", meaning racial discrimination. During this turn, L's gaze is fixed on the teacher, however, directly before

code switching, L breaks her gaze with the teacher, turns to her partner, hides her mouth with her right hand and lowers her tone to that slightly above whisper. In line 173, R offers other repair with what he approximates as the word L was searching for. L self-repairs with the full and correct translation in line 175. The manner in which L code switched, suggests that she values the use of L2 over her L1 in this classroom setting, at least in this instance when searching for vocabulary. This coincides with Ohta's (2001) findings, that in Japanese language courses, "use of L2 by students was highly valued" (p. 236).

This section has shown students and teacher working within the ZPD, turn by turn, to create an affordance for learning. It has also shown T using caretaker talk to repair trouble in the discourse that includes potentially racially loaded language. The caretaker talk T repairs in no way diminishes learners' initiative to discuss the term afro, as they continue to debate whether or not the word is racially discriminate and do so in a manner in which promotes the use of the target language within the classroom.

3. R's Initiation of a Word Search (Line 343) and Resulting Discourse

The focus of this excerpt is R's initiation of a word search in line 243, in which he is looking for the word 'turtleneck' but cannot quite grasp it. An affordance for learning arises in the resulting negotiation for meaning of the word turtleneck, however, further interaction around the word is potentially hindered by T's explicit positive assessment in line 349.

EXCERPT 3

343 R: ...And tu- tu- turtle, uh
344 D: Necklace
345 L: Neck
346 T: Turtle neck
347 L: [[Ah]]
348 D: [[Ah]]
349 R: [[Ah]]
348 D: Turtleneck? ((gaze directed at T during turn))
349 T: Good
350 D: Yeah...

After R searches for the word in line 243, D then offers the word necklace, which is close to the target language necessary for the repair, but, nevertheless, incorrect. L then correctly completes the word with "neck". Finally, in line 346, T offers the entire and correct version of the target word, "Turtleneck." Although it is T who gives the final and

correct answer, meaning is negotiated among the students beforehand and achieving the answer is clearly a collaborative process. In this instance, input is modified in order to make it comprehensible, which, in Long's (1980) terms, has promoted acquisition of the word.

Focusing on the adjacency pair in lines 348-9, D directs his gaze to T and raises his intonation at the end of his single word turn "Turtleneck?" as a confirmation check (e.g. Ellis 1997). In the following turn, T offers "Good" to D, which, according to Wong and Waring (2010), is an example of explicit positive assessment (EPA). EPA's are multi-functioning in that they (a) typically close a sequence, (b) validate the accuracy of the learner's previous turn and (c) praise the learner's previous turn. Wong and Waring warn that EPA's have potentially negative consequences, as the simultaneous act of closing the sequence and rewarding the learner as accurate "deprive[s] the learners of any interactional space for questioning, exploring, or simply lingering on any specific pedagogical point" (2010, p. 274). Thus, in line 349, T embodies his role as motivator/assessor and displays his interactional rights as teacher to close the sequence, but potentially loses an opportunity for further interaction, and by extension, potentially more opportunity for learning.

4. T's Initiation of Other Repair (Line 257) and Resulting Discourse

In this final excerpt, the students are looking for a difference between the man who in one picture has hair and in another has no hair. The catalyst for much of the discourse is T's other repair in the form of a designedly incomplete utterance at line 257, which acts to focus attention on the key word 'bald'. Part of L's interactional work in this sequence is to demonstrate her knowledge of the focus lexical item and use it in a new context outside of the task.

EXCERPT 4

251	D: ...And this man has hair on his head, right? (02) ((directs gaze at T))
252	T: Yeah, so-
253	D: So, the man in the picture is no hair
254	L: No hair
255	D: Sh- shaved head
256	L: Ah aj-
257	T: We call that b- b- b- b- (0.2)
258	R: Bald?
259	T: Bald, yes.
260	L: [◦Bald◦

261 T: [So you have short hair, your guy is bald
262 L: Uh how we can spell it, bald?
((15 lines omitted))
276 D: Sometimes we find some people who has less hair than other people, such as this style
277 T: Uh huh
278 D: I mean less hair
279 T: Less hair? Less
280 D: It's a kind of disease actually
281 T: Yeah, we say he's going bald
282 R: Going bald
283 L: Going bald ha:::::h
284 T: He's becoming bald or he's going bald, yes h::h
285 L: Uh it's really sad…
((a conversation on male pattern baldness continues for another eighteen lines))

At line 251, D directs his gaze at R and asks "and this man has hair on his head, right?" It is at this turn that D has picked up on a potential difference. The pause of 0.2 seconds between the end of D's turn and the beginning of T's suggests that T also realizes that D has spotted a difference. T seems to confirm this in his unfinished turn at line 252, as he asks "yeah, so-", encouraging D to verbalize his deductions, which he does in line 253. In line 257, T orients to his role as teacher as he decides that the preceding descriptions of the man in picture B as "no hair" by L and "shaved head" by D are inadequate. He initiates other repair in the form of an unfinished turn "We call that b- b- b- b-", which in this form may also be termed a designedly incomplete utterance (Margutti, 2010; He, 2004). Rather than simply giving students the answer, designedly incomplete utterances, may represent the teachers attempt to "create and present an opportunity for the students to partake in the formulation of the learning material, thereby assigning some authorship (and thus ownership) to the students" (He, 2004, p. 571). In this instance, T offers the first letter of the desired lexical item, but withholds the desired word 'bald'. R then produces the correct word bald, to complete the repair to T's satisfaction.

At line 260, L quietly repeats the target lexical item, while her gaze is directed at her book. This would suggest an attempt by L to internalize the word. Subsequently, in line 262, L asks T for the correct spelling of the word. Although we cannot be sure that L does not have previous knowledge of the word, these two turns would suggest that L is attempting to understand and learn the word, or at least re-learn it. The subsequent discourse is interesting because L attempts to break away from the word search and task and use the word in a separate context as she initiates discussion about baldness as hereditary and the sadness of male baldness. It may be argued that in this instance, L is

demonstrating her own “agency in expanding the assigned task while maintaining [her] orientation towards the presumed object of learning” (Mori & Hasegawa, 2009, p. 89). In other words, while L is continuing to orient toward use of the word bald, she is going above and beyond the limits of its use within the task and constructing an entirely new context in which to use the word.

In sum, analysis of interaction in this excerpt has demonstrated how designedly incomplete utterances can create opportunity for learning by giving students agency in their own learning. We have also seen that when L takes initiative to use focus vocabulary in a new context within the task-in-progress interaction, she is creating her own opportunity to consolidate and thus learn new vocabulary.

V. CONCLUSION

Analysis of interaction in this information gap task has displayed how the talk-in-interaction that occurred during the task was collaborative in nature. Focusing on repair with an emphasis on word searches within the task, analysis showed that participants both weave such phenomena into the fabric of the task to aid its progression, and use repair turns and sequences as sources of productive interaction and therefore, opportunities for language learning. The analysis has also shown how participants orient to teacher/student and expert/novice identity dichotomies throughout the talk-in-interaction in order to facilitate language learning.

Specifically, the analysis has shown that while overseeing the task, teacher displayed various facets of his identity such as resource, motivator, and assessor, and employed practices such as scaffolding, and display questions to aid the progression of the task, as well as language learning. However, while the teacher may have superior interactional rights within the classroom context, he may also delegate responsibility to students and use strategies such as designedly incomplete utterances to assign authorship, and therefore, ownership of learning to students. Analysis has also showed that it was within the power of students to become agents of their own learning and to expand and exploit the task for their own learning purposes. It is when learners take this initiative that opportunity for learning arises. Furthermore, as students worked collaboratively and assisted each other within the task, in doing so, they achieved more than would have been possible individually.

1. Pedagogic Implications

CA research within the field of SLA has had “promising applications for language teachers and methodologists” (Huth, 2011, p. 306), and a number pedagogical implications

have surfaced. Two implications as relative to this study are (a) how CA notions of repair can enhance SLA notions of corrective feedback, and (b) how CA can inform teachers' interactional practices.

Wong and Waring (2010) suggest that CA notions of repair can inform and enhance SLA notions of corrective feedback by suggesting that, as a result of CA-SLA research, teacher training may now be able to go beyond simply suggesting corrective feedback strategies, to offering teachers CA informed insight into the "sequential nature" (ibid, p. 276) of such feedback. This research has offered evidence of the sequential nature of repair specifically within information gap tasks. The analysis highlighted the sequential nature of teacher interaction when monitoring and joining in with the task. Teacher repair can play a positive role within the task-in-progress interaction to maintain the flow of the task and assist learners with completion of the task. It can create interactional space for the learners and give students initiative to create their own agency for learning. In this task-in-progress context, it is also important to raise awareness of the roles that learners can take in repair. This analysis has highlighted the learner's tendency to self-initiate repair, often by means of word searches, during the task.

As teacher interactional practices influence learner participation within a task, CA informed teacher reflection of such practices may improve opportunity for learning (Walsh, 2011). Three examples from this research are, firstly, that a teacher's counter questioning techniques, as highlighted in Excerpt 1 lines 114 – 117, have the potentially negative consequence of causing teacher and student challenges. The analysis showed that counter questioning did serve to clear up trouble in the discourse and that T's offering of interactional space to the learners did also allow them to maintain initiative within the discourse. However, the discourse that resulted from the counter questioning challenged D to stop the task and also forced negative evaluation of this student, stopping him from making his own progress in the task. It would be good practice for teachers to be aware of the advantages of creating space for learners to maintain initiative within interaction, but also of the pitfalls of counter questioning sequences. Secondly, a teacher's designedly incomplete utterances facilitate learner participation within the discourse, and therefore allow learners to become agents in the learning process. Finally, explicit positive assessment potentially negates learning opportunity by closing down sequences, as shown in Excerpt 3, line 349, and teachers, therefore, should be aware of employing such practice. Ultimately this discussion suggests that CA is able to show how interactional practices do or do not provide opportunity for learning and in doing so, can "enhance our overall sensitivity to the complexities of classroom talk" (Wong & Waring, 2010, p. 251).

In conclusion, while this study has presented language classroom discourse, with focus on word searches and repair within a spot the difference task, as providing opportunity for language learning, it is important to note that use of lexical items within these sequences

does not necessarily equate to long term acquisition of the words. Further CA research is needed to investigate learners' L2 development over time. Markee (2008), for example, has shown how learner behavior tracking methodology has the potential to highlight whether, when and how L2 appropriation takes place over an extended period of time. Use of this methodology in future CA studies may show not only how learners use the L2, but how it is incorporated into an individual's interactional repertoire. Furthermore, this study did not focus heavily on non-vocal resources that learners and teachers draw on during L2 classroom interaction. Non-vocal resources such as body language, gaze and orientation to classroom objects such as textbooks are an important part of classroom interaction (M. S. Seo, 2011). Future studies should give attention to how such non-vocal resources are used to facilitate L2 learning.

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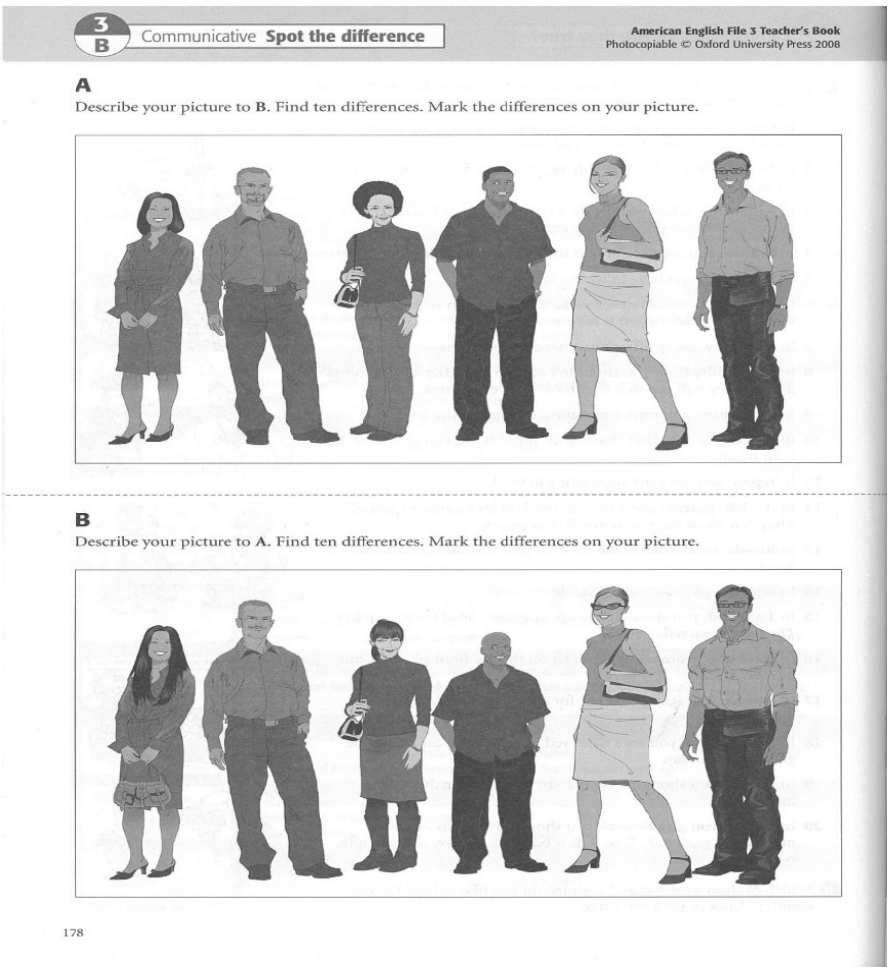
APPENDIX I

Spot the Difference Task



3 B Communicative **Spot the difference**

American English File 3 Teacher's Book
Photocopiable © Oxford University Press 2008

A

Describe your picture to **B**. Find ten differences. Mark the differences on your picture.

B

Describe your picture to **A**. Find ten differences. Mark the differences on your picture.

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APPENDIX II

Transcription Conventions (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984)

[[ ]]	Indicates simultaneous utterances
[ ]	Indicates overlapping utterances
=	Indicates contiguous utterances
(0.4)	Indicates tenths of a second between utterances
(.)	Indicates a micropause of up to one tenth of a second
:	Indicates sound extension of a word with more colons representing longer extensions
.	Indicates a fall in tone, not necessarily a sentence ending
,	Indicates continuing intonation
-	Indicates a sharp stop in articulation
?	Indicates rising inflection, not necessarily in the form of a question
__	Indicates emphasis of the underlined word
↑ ↓	Indicates rising or falling intonation occurring post utterance
◦ ◦	Indicates quiet talk occurring between signs
hhh	Indicates aspirations
·hhh	Indicates inhalations
.hh.	Indicates laughter within a word
>>	Indicates fast talk occurring between signs
<<	Indicates slow talk occurring between signs
(( ))	Indicates analyst's notes

Examples in: English
Applicable Languages: English
Applicable Levels: Tertiary

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