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**An Exploration of the Nature of Teacher/Peer Feedback
Interactions on Pre-sessional English for Academic Purposes
(EAP) Courses in UK Higher Education**

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**This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of
the award of Doctor of Philosophy**

January 2011

**An Exploration of the Nature of Teacher/Peer Feedback
Interactions on Pre-sessional English for Academic Purposes
(EAP) Courses in UK Higher Education**

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*Signed: Nam Hee Cho
Date: 31.01.2011*

**AN EXPLORATION OF THE NATURE OF
TEACHER/PEER FEEDBACK INTERACTIONS ON
PRE-SESSIONAL ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP)
COURSES IN UK HIGHER EDUCATION**

By

CHO, NAM HEE

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Abstract

This research concerns itself with the exploration of methods used to support student-writers' learning opportunities, as employed by teachers and by their students in teacher-student writing conferences; particularly the cadences of role construction and negotiation of viewpoints between peers in student-student writing conferences, within the context of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes' pre-sessional writing courses in a UK university. The author poses two distinct questions: first, what methods are employed in the supporting of students' learning processes in terms of teacher-student writing conferences? Second, what tactics are taken in peers' role construction and viewpoint negotiation in student-student writing conferences? The study utilises a Conversation Analysis-informed methodology and interrogates its research data: namely audio/video recordings of 32 spoken teacher-feedback sessions and nine spoken peer-feedback sessions taken over a period of six months.

Data analyses in this study reveal the massive importance that writing conferences play in jointly constructing the student's critical judgment and knowledge in preparation for academic literacy development. The study explores a number of interactional strategies used by teachers in support of student learning; giving special attention to the "scaffolding technique", and how it assists students by maintaining their interest and enthusiasm for their studies, and by creating a shared frame through the teacher appearing to share responsibility for the learning, like an accomplice to the student. The study also considers the role of student-student interactions in promoting and developing learners' supporting arguments through engaging in the sheer complexity of these sessions.

Overall, the study suggests and emphasises the importance of teachers and the requirement for them to create and to maintain opportunities for productive dialogue activities—as with writing conferences—by using an array of interactional strategies, all of which lead to students' joint and active participation for solving any problems that they may encounter during their journey to higher education, equipping them with all the knowledge and know-how that they need for their future studies.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 My Research Motivation

An important interest for me in the provision of feedback lies in how it is used as a way of developing language learners' academic literacy development in the process of writing (Zamel, 1982; Ferris, 1995b: 2003; Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005; Goldstein, 2004; Hyland and Hyland, 2006). In particular, spoken teacher feedback, or writing conferences, between teachers and students, and spoken peer feedback between students and students, on learners' writing development in a multiple draft writing process have gained particular importance in teaching and learning a second language (L2) in higher education settings, because it gives "a central role to social conversation" in the revision of writing (Hyland and Hyland, 2006).

In the area of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), writing instruction and composition classrooms in UK Higher Education are based on the assumption that what student writers have been taught and learnt will help them in delivering writing tasks. Hyland and Hyland (2006) highlight how students in academic writing courses require experience of dealing with texts of an academic genre written from within their own or another discipline, and the preparation for assignments, by focusing on what is required in terms of future content in their courses. It is widely believed that much success in academic writing depends on how well the student's writing meets audience expectation. To do this, two-dimensional effects of interaction play a key role in determining and then engaging in authorship, in addition to readership, the clearing of purposes and style in their academic writing task, and the seeking of clarification where there is doubt, and the extent to which student writers participate in discussion.

Despite the importance of its role in academic writing, to date there has been little to say about feedback interaction in the nature of academic writing for the EAP context. In fact, there have been a number of studies that consider students' writing problems with non-interactive methods of teachers' written feedback in second language writing contexts in general. However, relatively little research has considered interactive ways in spoken feedback or writing conferences in the EAP context, in particular. More importantly, despite the fact that increasing attention has been paid to the role of spoken interaction (which might enhance student understanding within the teacher and student writer's participation or involvement in the discussion, for example, in being clear about their audience, about the specific purpose of the

task and achieving the right style in academic writing), this has constantly been emphasised by scholars who examined written feedback in both first language (L1) and second language (L2) writing contexts (Ferris, 2003; Lillis, 2001; Hyland and Hyland, 2006).

Nevertheless, there is insufficient evidence to support EAP academic literacy teaching policies and practices on the value of spoken teacher/peer feedback (or writing conferences), or on how to use spoken feedback on academic writing effectively in the EAP context.

It is, therefore, important for researchers or practitioners to explore the role of spoken feedback interaction between teachers and students, and between peers in small groups in EAP writing classroom contexts. Although there are many approaches for investigating classroom interaction, since conversation analysis has developed in itself an applied framework, and because “its fundamental concern with language as a form of social action suggests a natural link with applied linguistics” (Seedhouse, 2011:346), applied linguists can be informed from the resources gained from combining CA and DA methods to dealing with their interest and professional concerns, organisation of classroom interactions and the evaluation of learning; for instance, in CA-informed methodology, which mainly uses CA and DA in teacher-student/student-student interaction in writing conferences. This has the potential to offer new insights into feedback interaction in academic writing classes, on the basis of which it may be possible to: identify characteristics of behaviour which teachers may more consciously take into account in their interaction with their students; identify interactional strategies which are defined as negotiating intended meaning between/among speakers in a spoken interaction that may facilitate student participation or involvement in discussions; explore the association between specific strategies, i.e. scaffolding strategies and student involvement and development of their understanding; identify peers’ role management and negotiation of each others’ views.

In this study, I will focus on two key issues in writing conferences: first, the ways of supporting students’ learning opportunities in teacher-student writing conferences; second, the ways of peers’ role construction and peers’ view negotiation in student-student writing conferences. It is hoped that the exploration of spoken feedback interactions engaged in by teachers and student writers/student and student on student drafts in this study will raise awareness of the benefit of such spoken feedback or writing conferences. The findings of the present study will be useful for EAP classroom teachers who wish to know more about the role of spoken teacher/peer

feedback or writing conferences, and to prepare and guide two kinds of writing conferences confidently in L2 language classrooms in general and EAP writing classrooms in particular.

Before exploring the theoretical and methodological background, I will discuss the EAP context in UK higher education, as it is important to understand the present study context.

1.2 An overview of EAP Context

1.2.1 EAP and its pedagogy

Current academic literacy practice in higher education reveals perhaps a greater range of social and cultural diversity than ever before. Especially in recent years, the number of overseas or international students (L2) who must gain fluency in the conventions of English academic discourse has grown dramatically in UK higher education (Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

With the rapid growth in the numbers of L2 students, English as a Second/Foreign Language instruction, especially English for Academic Purposes, has developed significantly (Coffey, 1984; Robinson, 1991; Jordan, 1997; Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002; Hyland and Hyland 2006). The needs of EAP students have been defined as “the quick and economical use of English to pursue a course of academic study” (Coffey, 1984:3). EAP courses aim to facilitate students’ speaking, writing and research skills, with a syllabus based on needs-analysis of student activity in the subject-specific disciplines. The EAP syllabus is often dominated by constrained time limits and a need for prioritisation of specific discourse in the medium of English; e.g. mastery of appropriately handling textbooks, lectures, journals, seminars, group discussions, and so on (Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002). The EAP learners can be pre-sessional, non-native speakers preparing for future university studies, or in-sessional students, already studying for a degree in English-speaking countries: most are preparing for a particular professional career (Robinson, 1991). Therefore, EAP pedagogy is focused on equipping non-native speakers with study skills, language and literacy knowledge to function in an uncertain environment (Jordan, 1997).

1.2.2 Issues in EAP: Academic writing and its feedback

Regarding the current situations related to EAP pedagogy, the key issue facing EAP is academic literacy. Academic literacy teaching for both L1 and L2 groups has been identified as one of the most problematic practices in higher education (QAA, 2002) as it needs to deal with

complexity in the academic community. In other words, academic literacy norms or conventions of recent times are considered as plural, multicultural and multimodal, rather than unitary and monolithic (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). This view is especially underpinned by a socio-cultural approach, where writing is considered as a socially and culturally-embedded action; thus, the focus turns from a singular or unified practice to sets of practices on how writers and readers learn to participate and to make meaning.

As a process of situated rhetorical action, writing of any kind involves a complexity of cognitive and linguistic activities, whereby writers match the expectancies and competencies of their readership (Hyland, 2000: Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Effective writing aims to result in texts which both meet the individual writer's goal and satisfy the needs of readers in their professional context. This is especially so in EAP. However, it is not simply a matter of engaging a student's textual awareness. Alongside this, students must develop awareness of their own personal and internal strategies in order to go beyond mere reproduction of models of practice, and to develop their own academic voice.

In the process of achieving such a voice, and effective awareness of linguistic and rhetorical actions in text, it is generally believed to be important to engage students in teacher/peer feedback, for this kind of interactivity generates awareness of practice, particularly of the recursive nature of the composition process in tasks such as writing (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Undoubtedly, feedback activities, both in interactions between student and teacher, and between peers, play an important role: they help the learner to raise their awareness of strengths and weaknesses, and to be motivated and encouraged to improve learning performance (Paulus, 1999). Feedback as formative assessment can help students to reflect on their learning performance, to identify their strengths and weaknesses, and take responsibility for their academic growth in order to become autonomous learners (Brown and Knight, 1999).

Regarding the importance of interaction, however, there is little information on what is going on in real feedback interactions, although, in recent years, spoken feedback or collaborative learning has become a popular practice in EAP writing classrooms. Therefore, EAP teachers working with L2 student writers need to understand how the specific ways of talking, or teacher/peer discursive strategies, can construct or negotiate student thinking or their views in order to develop student writing.

This section has addressed key issues in relation to academic literacy teaching of EAP writing. The following section provides a brief introduction to the theoretical background to this study.

1.3 Theoretical Background

1.3.1 Learning and classroom interaction

The conceptual framework for this study is based on a cognitive and socio-cultural view for learning as it relates to spoken feedback or writing conferences. Since the proposal of Vygotsky's (1987) social view of learning, social interaction is considered to be essential for cognitive development and learning. According to Vygotsky, students' learning is "not from the individual to social, but from social to individual" (1987: 36). For him, social interaction influences students' potential development and cultural differences in their development of thinking. Vygotsky's view of cognitive development and learning somewhat differs from that of Piaget. Piaget (1983) argues that students need to interact with their environment in order to accommodate new knowledge or skills that do not fit into an existing schema or practice. For Piaget, students' learning occurs when they create knowledge by experimenting, enquiring, reflecting, realising and discussing. Although both Vygotsky and Piaget have somewhat different perspectives in terms of their emphasis on the individual or the group, and the direction of the intellectual development process, both agree that social interaction is essential for learning to happen.

In response to these two views, Sfard (1988) distinguishes two concepts of learning: "learning is having" and "learning is doing". These two subtle distinctions stress differences in acquisition as a result of individual mental acts, and participation as social actions with others. Although the two perspectives still remain influential in education research, in this thesis I am interested in the latter view of learning, as I am dealing with spoken feedback or writing conferences. Writing conferences are intended to provide opportunities for students to develop their thinking related to their writing by asking questions, making comments and introducing new ideas, which can be challenges to the development of their thinking (Keebler, 1995). In addition, it is at the heart of writing processes, being associated with socially co-constructed knowledge or mediation, and learners' participating in the social activity; thus it is closely related to socio-cultural theory.

With socio-cultural theory, learning as shaped by a shared and jointly constructed sense of

culture and knowledge, the processes of learning cannot be understood without considering social aspects and the nature of communication between “teacher and student” and “student and student” formats. Under this view, in general, many researchers and educators have demonstrated that educational success depends on the quality of dialogue, which can shape student participation, enable learners to be more active, more engaged in activities and develop their thinking (Mercer, 1995: 2008; Alexander, 2000; Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Wells, 2002; van Lier, 1996; Lantolf, 2005). For example, more authentic questions, e.g. requesting justifications, connection or counter arguments, result in stimulating students’ participation and arriving at consensus views in interaction (Nassaji and Wells, 2000). Alexander (2000) understands the quality of dialogue as dialogic teaching, which helps students’ reflect, clarify and articulate their own understanding.

1.3.2 Spoken teacher feedback (teacher-student writing conferences) in writing classrooms

“Spoken teacher-feedback”, or “Teacher-student writing conferences”, refer to the one-to-one teacher-student conversations that address the students’ standard of writing. This is “to help them solve a problem related to their writing” (Tompkins, 1990: 370). Since the process of writing emerged in classrooms in the 1980s, feedback on student writing in written or spoken forms has been widely practiced. However, compared to a teacher’s written feedback, research on spoken teacher/peer feedback or writing conferences seems to be of relatively little interest; in particular, there is little empirical research on second language writing context (Ferris, 2003). In both L1 and L2 contexts, findings such as these have led some researchers to argue that what is needed in writing classrooms is dialogue or interaction. For example, Hounsell (1984) has signalled the gap or mismatch between tutors’ expectations and students’ understanding of academic writing conventions. In her in-depth interview study with a sample of 17 History L1 students, she found that the students misunderstood what their tutor saw as important rules in their essays; this criticism has also been frequently made by other researchers. Lillis (2001) discusses how tutors’ perceptions of student writing differ from the students’ perception of their own writing, and that unquestionably L2 students’ perceptions of their own writing can be conditioned by their cultural and social experiences. Lillis’ view is that, as this is a deep and often not fully conscious conditioning, feedback to student writers should include support through spoken in-class dialogue, because without dialogue, sometimes instructors’ feedback can be misconstrued.

Hyland and Hyland (2006) claim that feedback should be interpersonal: providing feedback is “effective only if it engages with the writers and gives them a sense that it is a response to a *person* rather than to a script” (p. 206, italics in original).

Research focused on the nature of interaction and its effect on writing conferences has found that some specific ways of interaction can make for meaningful or effective negotiations on students’ revision (Williams, 2004; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Wissberg, 2006). Some studies have explored university tutorials’ task engagement (Benwell and Stokoe, 2002), as it informs us how the teacher and student work collaboratively in the openings of tutorials. Others have studied the ways of negotiation delivered through dialogue between teacher and student. Some found that teacher-student writing conference negotiation plays an important role in successful revisions of the students’ draft essays (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990); they looked at the length of “teacher dominant” time between weaker and stronger students (Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997); and at various aspects of the teacher’s feedback; e.g. explicit, direct or questioning (Williams, 2004). These findings were supported by Goldstein (2004), who argues in terms of written commentary and student revision, and how the key to successful feedback in writing depends on how the teacher and student work together. The teacher’s recognition of the students’ intention is needed; however, students also need to let their instructors know their intention, and think about their audiences and their point of view, so that the instructors can read and respond appropriately.

These studies underline socio-cultural theory, which “provides an ideal context for mastering complex cognitive skills like writing” (Weissberg, 2006:3). The findings from these studies inform the importance of the scaffolding technique and negotiation process. In other words, the researchers’ central argument is that academic writing is best acquired through interaction. However, they do not seem to fully explore the teacher’s various dialogic strategies with active student participation, especially task engagement in openings, or scaffolding strategies during the activity. As the teacher’s spoken feedback or writing conference is aimed at collaborative learning, which could create learning opportunities for the student writers, there may be a variety of dialogic or interactional strategies or scaffolding strategies that can be described as a dialogic teaching approach (Alexander, 2004), or “guided construction of knowledge” (Mercer, 1995). Evidence gathered for a range of characteristics of the dynamic nature of spoken teacher/peer feedback interactions will resolve unanswered questions or explore key issues;

like, for example, what are the roles of the teacher's talk in the opening? Most emphatically, how can teachers help students to develop their ideas or articulate their own voice through questions? What are the implications of the teacher's authoritative or dialogic talk? How do teachers and students use interactional strategies for enhancing student participation, hence developing student understanding? How do teachers scaffold student ideas and allow students to explore their thoughts and ideas through discussion, and so on?

1.3.3 Spoken peer feedback (student-student writing conferences) in writing classrooms

Peer feedback (student-student writing conferences) refers to conversation between or amongst peers in groups. Along with teacher-student conferences, student-student conferences are now widely-practiced in second language writing classrooms. Peer feedback, as collaborative work, is considered the most interactive approach, as it is the idea of choice of partners or groups, the idea of freedom to talk without teacher-control, and the idea of equality as second language student writers (Sullivan, 2000). Some studies claim that collaborative peer work is effective as it is a more learner-centred approach that can encourage learners' engagement in the learning activities (Johnson & Johnson, 1994); and, when properly engaged, peer feedback can generate a rich source of information for content and rhetorical issues, and can enhance intercultural communication and give students a sense of group cohesion (Hansen and Liu, 2005). In these writing conferences, peer feedback is intended to observe students' role construction and view negotiation through working together.

Peer feedback is supported by several theoretical approaches, including process writing (Elbow, 1973), collaborative learning theory (Bruffee, 1984), Zone of Proximal Development theory (Vygotsky, 1978), and interactionist theories of SLA "negotiation for meaning" (Long, 1996). Through these theoretical frameworks, studies on peer feedback argue for the effectiveness of peer feedback in the L2 language classroom (e.g. Jacobs et al., 1998; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Rollinson, 2005; Lundstrom and Baker, 2009). Some studies (Jacobs et al., 1998, and Tsui & Ng, 2000) have stated that peer feedback allows more students to participate in the learning process, leading to the generation of more ideas and encouraging participants to spot strong and weak features of each others' texts. The theory is that peer commentary will encourage collaborative learning, enhance learners' roles as authentic readers, raise their awareness of strengths and weaknesses, and encourage ownership of text. Also, peer-training

and preparation is promoted in individual studies (Rollinson, 2005). Peer feedback is especially beneficial when it provides feedback based on the reviewer's own writing (Lundstrom and Baker, 2009). Other studies (Nelson & Murphy, 1993; Mendonca & Johnson, 1994; Schmid, 1999; Weigle and Nelson, 2004) have observed that most peer feedback focused on suggestions for revision rather than on grammatical correction. In other words, participants focus on the meaning of their texts rather than on their surface errors; true for both undergraduates and postgraduates. These studies identified a number of characteristics of peer interaction in peer review sessions of international graduate students; they were found to be actively involved in five major types of negotiation: asking questions, explaining, restating, making suggestions and correcting grammar. These studies suggested that it was more advanced students who benefited the most from peer review.

However, research on peer feedback is controversial. Some researchers (Connor & Asenavage, 1994; Paulus, 1999) argue that the effect of peer feedback is limited. Some studies have suggested that peer feedback is not able to bring out the "real" reader's perspectives (Sengupta, 1998; Mendonca and Johnson, 1994; Zhang, 1995). The studies have discovered that student writers tended not to trust their peers or themselves, and to say "I am not the teacher", believing that only the teacher could give worthwhile feedback. They tended to ignore the same comments from peers.

Despite a number of studies regarding the effectiveness of peer feedback, few studies focus on analysing the ways of talking in which peers work together using empirical data. For example, peers' various social behaviours were found during revision (Villamil & De Guerrero, 1996; Young, 1992). Villamil & De Guerrero (1996) looked at two intermediate ESL college students' behaviour when the students worked collaboratively in revising a text. The researchers examined the same students repeatedly over a short period, mindful of moment-to-moment changes in their behaviours. The findings showed how peers maintain assigned roles and performance, and how the roles of peer tutor and peer tutee changed frequently, although sometimes they remained in the same role. In addition, Young (1992) found that peer tutors, especially in L2 contexts, faced challenges with identifying the peer tutee's errors and providing quality comments, as they lacked competence or knowledge. These features need to be considered together with focusing on peers' role construction and its management and how they negotiate their views or opinions in improving the student writing process, as there are important new issues regarding a wide range of peers' social behaviours

and role performance in peer feedback.

As can be seen above, the research on spoken teacher/peer feedback or writing conferences in student writing with actual empirical data has received limited attention in EAP pedagogy in UK higher education; in particular, the literature does not yet provide sufficient empirical evidence to understand these feedback processes, and to plan and guide the feedback process confidently in the writing context.

My preliminary research (Cho, 2004), as a pilot case study, addressed the issue of contextual and social factors in the EAP writing classroom. The thesis was that, through understanding interactive feedback interactions, limitations and possibilities, instructors can encourage students to find and to create their own “voice” in their own discourse communities. However, opportunities for detailed investigation were limited. Such detail is almost certainly the key to a fuller understanding of the nature, uses of and responses to feedback in the EAP classroom. This study will, therefore, focus more on the nature of negotiated learning in interaction; that is, to give an account of how teacher-to-student and peer-to-peer behaviour works interactively around a writing task.

There is, therefore, a need for a better understanding of what happens during feedback by exploring real language use: “The functions of language are often best understood in a discourse environment and the exploring of language in context focuses us to revise some commonly held understandings about the forms and meaning of language” (McCarthy & Carter, 1994: vii). The focus on interactive feedback interactions can help us to observe and to analyse characteristics of feedback activities that may have been previously unexplored. Sufficient attention to the actual feedback interactions can allow writing instructors to understand and to facilitate feedback effectively in EAP writing classrooms.

This section has briefly presented the theoretical background of this study with regard to the issue of EAP writing teaching and feedback instructions, including spoken teacher/peer feedback.

1.4 Methodological background

1.4.1 Conversation analysis-informed methodology and institutional talk

For a fuller understanding of the nature of teacher-student/student-student interaction in writing conferences, there is a need for an appropriate approach. This study tries to demonstrate a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction in the second language classroom (Seedhouse, 2004). Throughout interactional strategies, the evidence of learning can be considered in relation to specific teaching goals and a particular micro context (Walsh, 2011). This was also observed in Drew's and Heritage's (1992) study of how participants in institutional interaction orientate themselves to some "core goal, task or identity conventionally associated with the institution in question" (p. 22).

Although there are many interaction studies using pre-determined categories, the study of understanding the nature of the classroom interaction does not require pre-determined categorising. Instead, it requires the view of the participants' social behaviours as being "situated learning" (Lave and Wenger 1991). Thus, the investigation could see the process of members' or participants' learning engagement which includes a shared domain of interest, joint activities engaged in, shared repertoire of ideas, commitments and memories (Wenger, 1998). For this reason, in recent years educational researchers are interested in conversation analysis (CA), as a CA approach reflects classroom events *per se*, which can take into consideration the details and subtleties of participants' behaviour; it favours naturally-occurring data, as it is concerned with "situated" achievement and its perspective is organisational and procedural; so it explains "how" in the process rather than "why" (ten Have, 2007).

However, in early CA, "pure CA" tends to use a very restricted data set from recordings of only naturally occurring interactions. Heritage & Atkinson (1984) point out that, although recorded data are indefinitely rich in empirical detail, which could be produced by anybody, researchers are in favour of other data sources, such as interview data, observational studies relying on fieldnotes or coding procedures, idealised or invented examples, and experimental methodologies which are not used in CA. Latterly, however, CA has become widely introduced in institutional settings, called "applied CA", which aims at identifying the unique fingerprint of each institutional action. CA with institutional talk is oriented by some "core goal, task or identity conventionally associated with the institution in question" (Drew and Heritage 1992:

22). Thus, it may include contextual knowledge with the instance of actual interaction, which can be observed and recognised on various layers of the architecture of inter-subjectivity against generalisations (ten Have, 2007, Drew and Heritage, 1992, Heritage 2005). As contemporary classroom interactions are far more complex and dynamic than simple exchanges, in discourse analysis approach's IRF structure in isolation, or via a pre-determined coding system in interaction analysis, there are other things to consider in attempts to deal with the dynamic nature of the interaction.

This study will be informed by the resources of combining the CA and the Discourse Analysis (DA) approaches (which we term "CA-informed methodology") for dealing with the complexity of dynamic interaction in on-going second language writing classroom interaction, especially in relation to identities, roles and relationship. With regard to classroom interaction approaches, the current study employs a CA-informed methodology to elaborate specific issues in spoken-feedback interaction.

1.4.2 Research Context

The research participants in this study were three native writing teachers and 24 EAP students in three pre-sessional writing classrooms and English for Academic Purpose (EAP) programmes, in higher education at a UK university. Each session of teacher/peer spoken feedback or writing conferences was recorded over a period of approximately six months.

To study the nature of spoken teacher/peer feedback interaction, spoken teacher/peer feedback interactions were audio- and video-taped: 32 spoken teacher feedback sessions and 9 spoken peer feedback sessions in total. The total length of recordings of both feedback sessions was approximately 12 hours 48 minutes (See Appendix III: Number of Recordings). The nature of the spoken teacher/peer feedback interaction (teacher-student/student-student writing conferences) in audio-/video-recording data was reviewed repeatedly and certain parts were transcribed, where we can observe salient points for study focus. Transcribed and presented data were 3 hours and 1 minute (23.5% used in total data. See Appendix V: Transcriptions of Teacher-Student/Student-Student Writing Conferences). I then selected samples to analyse in the transcribed data and carefully re-transcribed the samples using CA symbols (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Heritage, 2005) (see Appendix IV: CA Symbols).

With regard to particular features of the analytic approach, four features were considered: first, any utterances, including non-verbal behaviours, are considered to be performing particular social actions which are associated with writing conferencing, such as the ways of supporting student learning opportunities; e.g. functions of questioning, using different teaching approaches between dialogic and authoritative, various other interactional strategies and the ways of peer role construction and view negotiation. Second, turn-taking is considered to be elements of an understanding of the teacher and student/student and student turns in writing conference—such as who is and when the teacher and student/student and student talks; e.g. interruptions, hold, pass, and how this affects the construction and understanding of their turns. Third, turn design is considered to appear when there is any connection between personal or group identity and lexical choice in writing conferences, throughout elicitation, repair and speech modification, lexical choice, gesture, facial express, timing, stress, volume, etc. Fourth, utterances/actions are connected in sequences of actions or moves which allow us to see patterns or characteristics in terms of goal-oriented activity (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990).

This section is presented briefly in the methodological background of the present study. The following section introduces the research aims and two key areas of the research.

1.5 Research aims and questions

As has been addressed through this chapter, there is a significant need to demonstrate how participants collaboratively construct their knowledge during the teacher-student/peer writing conferences. From a socio-cultural perspective, this research aims to explore the ways of supporting EAP learners' active participation and knowledge co-construction, and explore the value of writing conferences as a way of collaborative learning. The primary objectives are to examine the ways that teachers talk on EAP students' task or topic engagement; the knowledge co-construction between a teacher and a student; the ways of peer role adaptation and negotiation of each others' views; and thus to explore the potential benefits of writing conferences in EAP learning.

Based on the primary research objectives, two specific questions are formulated. The first question encompasses the following questions with regard to joint construction of knowledge with students in teacher-student writing conferences:

1. How do teachers in teacher-student writing conferences support student learning opportunities through talk?

-1.1 What happens in the EAP writing classroom in terms of how the teacher uses questions to support student learning in teacher-student writing conferences? Can we characterise these functions when teachers are trying to construct joint and shared knowledge with their students? I observe this when the teacher opens up their talk in the conferences.

-1.2 How does the teacher engage in different types of interactive teaching approach between authoritative and dialogic with their students? How do these two teaching approaches manifest themselves in the interaction and influence of student contribution?

-1.3 How does the teacher shape student contributions by various interactional strategies that enable students to express their understanding, articulate ideas and reveal problems that they are encountering?

-1.4 How does the teacher scaffold student development of understandings?

The second question articulates itself around peer role construction and negotiation views in peer writing conferences. It puts forward the following two questions:

2. How do peers in student-student writing conferences negotiate each others' views?

-2.1 How do peers construct the role of peer tutor and peer tutee?

-2.2 How do peers negotiate each others' views?

The order of the research questions relates to the presentation of Chapters 5, 6 and 7. The discussion, conclusions and suggestions are presented in Chapters 8 and 9 respectively. The last section of this chapter provides the outline of this thesis, addressing the main concerns of each chapter.

1.6 The structure of the thesis

This thesis will explore the nature of feedback interaction in a UK EAP writing classroom in order to investigate the ways of supporting student learning opportunities with teachers and peers through looking at the actual details of interaction. The thesis is organised into nine chapters.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the thesis as a whole. Section 1.1 introduces my research motivation. This is followed in section 1.2 by presenting an overview of the EAP context. The theoretical and methodological background of the research is presented in sections 1.3 and 1.4. The research aims and questions in the present study are presented in section 1.5. This chapter ends with an outline of the thesis in section 1.6.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical background to the study in four major sections: section 2.1 deals with the major issue of learning and classroom interaction. After a brief discussion of why interaction in the classroom is important, the question of what is meant by learning is discussed. Next, I discuss how classroom interaction helps learning. In sections 2.2 and 2.3, I discuss studies of teacher-student interaction and studies of student-student interaction in writing conferences. Finally I summarise and conclude this chapter in section 2.4.

Chapter 3: Analysing classroom interaction

This chapter provides an overview of the relevant approaches to classroom interaction to the study in four major sections: section 3.1 discusses the discourse analysis approach focusing on structural-functional linguistics; section 3.2 reviews the interaction analysis approach system-based analysis; section 3.3 reviews conversation analysis; and section 3.4 concludes this chapter.

Chapter 4: Methodology

This chapter explores the methodological framework relating directly to the practical points in

the present study. Section 4.1 presents research context, including research participants and feedback activities; section 4.2 presents selected methods, including data collection procedures and data transcription. Section 4.3 concludes this chapter.

Chapter 5: Interactional strategies in teacher-student writing conferences

This chapter presents the results of qualitative data analysis regarding the first research question of this study about joint construction knowledge with students in writing conferences. Section 5.1 discusses the use of teacher questions; section 5.2 discusses different interactive discourse approaches between authoritative and dialogic; section 5.3 discusses other interactional strategies; section 5.4 summarises the finding of the results; and section 5.5 concludes the findings of this chapter.

Chapter 6: Scaffolding techniques in teacher-student writing conferences

This chapter presents the results of the analysis regarding research question 1.4. Section 6.1 discusses scaffolding techniques which the teachers used in this context. It begins by considering how a teacher's speech appears to support student essay writing and learning opportunities through writing conferences. The aspects of the negotiation process are considered, when the teacher and student meet potential sources of mismatch in understanding of text or purpose. Also, how the teachers negotiate the interaction to construct meaningful new concepts within a form of teacher-student writing conferences or spoken feedback interaction is elaborated. Section 6.2 summarises the findings of the results and section 6.3 concludes the findings.

Chapter 7: Taking others' views in student-student writing conferences

This chapter presents the results of the analysis regarding the third research question. In four major sections, section 7.1 explores the peer tutor's role construction, where they engage in the peer feedback activity particular to individual orientation for academic literacy development, within the spoken feedback interaction. Section 7.2 discusses the peer tutee's rejection and its negotiation process. Section 7.3 discusses the peer tutee's challenges and its negotiation; section 7.4 discusses dynamic role changes; and section 7.5 summarises the peer's role construction and view negotiation. Section 7.6 concludes this chapter.

Chapter 8: Discussion

This chapter draws together research findings and the theoretical and methodological

considerations. Section 8.1 discusses teacher-student interaction in writing conferences in relation to the first research question. Section 8.2 discusses collaboration/cooperation in small peer groups in relation to research question two. Section 8.3 concludes this chapter.

Chapter 9: Conclusions and suggestions

This chapter concludes this study and makes some suggestions for further study. Section 9.1 presents conclusions about the role of teacher-student/peer interaction in writing conferences. This includes developing existing knowledge and offering some evidence on the observed issues. Section 9.2 deals with the contributions and implications of the research, and section 9.3 presents the limitations of the study. Section 9.4 presents suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Developing the ideas set out in Chapter 1, the aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the theoretical background to this study. Concerning a deeper understanding of the nature of spoken teacher/peer feedback or writing conferences, in particular by focusing on language learning and interaction, this chapter contains two major sections.

In the first section, 2.1, I discuss learning and interaction in the context of the language classroom. After a brief discussion of why interaction in the classroom is so important, what is meant by “learning” is discussed. Next, I discuss how classroom interaction helps learning. In sections 2.2 and 2.3, I discuss studies of teacher-student interaction and studies of student-student interaction in writing conferences. Finally, I conclude this chapter in section 2.4.

2.1 Learning and interaction in the writing classroom

2.1.1 Why is interaction in the writing classroom important?

For EAP writing teachers, providing appropriate feedback is a major issue in their classrooms, especially as spoken teacher/peer feedback or writing conferences are composed of one-to-one conversations between either teacher and student or student and student about student writing (Sperling, 1994); it is important for students to engage in dialogue and to be active participants in the conferences (Keebler, 1995). Hyland and Hyland argue that writing teachers should guide, model and engage students as writers in dialogue rather than through a script, as only this interpersonal way of feedback is effective (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Writing conferences are also considered as a way of interaction through “joint endeavour”, or “joint construction of knowledge” (Mercer, 2000), using some special methods of language. In my study, I will consider spoken teacher/peer feedback interaction as having the same meaning as teacher-student/student-student writing conferences.

In general, researchers and practitioners are interested in the relationship between the interaction used by teachers and learners and learning; e.g. how interaction contributes to learning. In recent years, educational research has demonstrated that the choice of language or the quality of conversation, including teacher-student interaction and discussions amongst

learners used by teachers and learners, can influence or promote active, engaged learning, and help the process of learning and the development of a learner's thinking (Alexander, 2000; Mercer, Littleton, 2007; Mercer, 2008).

With regard to writing conferences, perhaps the most important tasks and functions are engaging with students related to their draft writing actively, and helping them to solve the problems to being better writers (Tompkins, 1990; Anderson, 2000). However, without evidence, we cannot assume how the conferences are associated with learning while student writers work with a teacher and their peers. Also, it is important to give attention to contextual differences in each circumstance. In other words, like classroom interaction, understanding the role of writing conferences must start by considering students as social actors as well as developing individuals. In learning theory, however, there is an argument between two perspectives: the cognitive and the social-process perspectives that attempt to explain learning with empirical findings.

2.1.2 What is meant by learning? Two views of learning

2.1.2.1 Cognitive and social-process perspectives

Many theories have been proposed and there has been much debate about how language is learned in terms of the second language learning process. Larsen-Freeman (2010) discusses two influential conceptions of learning: "Learning is having", under a cognitive perspective, and "Learning is doing", under a social perspective, by adapting Sfar's (1998) distinction of the having-doing continuum. This can be distinguished by the distinctions of "acquisition" and "participation". While the "having" view as acquisition places emphasis on the individual mind and how language learning is associated with knowledge acquisition as a result of an individual mental act, the "doing" view as participation focuses on social activity and language learning involving participation between individuals and others.

Larsen-Freeman (2010) sees having/acquisition versus doing/participation distinctions as a complexity theory. This is because "learning is not taking in of linguistic form by learners, but the constant adaptation of their linguistic resources in the service of meaning making in response to the affordances, which is, in turn, affected by learners' adaptivity." (2010: 67). Sfar (2008) concludes that the metaphors of both acquisition from a cognitive learning theory, and participation from social learning theory, do not inevitably correspond to a psychological-social dichotomy. As learners acquire, have or possess some new skills or new

knowledge in the same way as any other skill – learning to drive a car, or to play tennis, for example – they can then do something with that skill. In other words, a learner’s thinking is an individualised form of interpersonal communication, and whatever one creates is a product of collective doing.

Ellis (2010) argues that there are clear differences between the two perspectives of cognitive and social learning theories; such as language, representation, the social context, learner identity, the learner’s linguistic background, interaction, language learning and inevitably methodology (see p. 28 for details). The former acknowledges that, as a result of input, language learning occurs inside the individual learner (Long & Doughty, 2003). It seeks to account for how interaction as a source of input, such as “linguistic data” – words, phrases and sentences – serves as a trigger for acquisition. It focuses on form generalisations about groups of learners, with typically quantitative and confirmatory methods. The latter rejects the view of cognitive learning, arguing that interaction is a socially-negotiated event and is collaborative rather than an individual mental phenomenon. It illustrates how language is used and acquired holistically, qualitatively and interpretatively in terms of social context (Firth and Wagner, 2007). It seems that, as each theory has validity in its own right, it is not possible to claim that one theory is better than another. Ellis suggests that one of the ways to resolve the debate is to develop a theory that incorporates both a cognitive and a social perspective, which takes each strand as having equal importance, although it is not yet clear how to demonstrate learning and it needs further investigation. Two views still remain influential, but much contemporary research has shown interest in understanding socially co-constructed knowledge and its process through learners’ participating in the social activity.

With regard to a social view of learning, writing conferences are opportunities for students to “expand thinking by asking questions, making comments, or introducing new ideas which challenge their thinking or provide additional food for thought” (Keebler, 1995: 5), rather than language acquisition as a result of individual mental acts. It is at the heart of the writing process being associated with the term “socio-cultural” as socially co-constructed knowledge or mediation and evidence of learners’ participation in the social activity.

2.1.3 How does classroom interaction help learning?

2.1.3.1 The socially constituted and dynamic processes

As mentioned earlier, spoken teacher/peer feedback (or writing conferences) is much more closely related to Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory. His work on development and learning is represented as social interaction that takes place in learning settings. His notion of learning is understood as social and cultural processes by an expert's mediation. Unlike Piaget, who was interested in social interaction within peer interaction, Vygotsky's cognitive development is understood as co-construction of knowledge and understanding through social interaction. Through interaction with a supportive teacher and more knowledgeable peers, a learner is encouraged to participate, or led to perform at increasingly more challenging levels before she/he is able to perform unaided (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is an essential feature of learning. For example, reading comprehension has been improved when learners socially interact and work together in the zone of proximal development. Vygotsky (1978:86) describes ZPD as:

the distance between a child's 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.

According to this definition, there is a difference between actual development and potential development, and full development of the ZPD relies on the help of others: the learners' ability can be developed with adult/expert guidance or peer collaboration that exceeds that which can be achieved alone. Vygotsky's definition of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) represents a social constructivist view that knowledge with structures is transferred from the more knowledgeable to the less knowledgeable learner. As can be seen in reciprocal teaching, the roles of instructors and peers are important to fulfil learners' potential development, as learners could achieve through interaction that which they could not achieve alone.

Scaffolding is the metaphorical concept that deals with an individual student's needs through the interactive verbal support provided by teachers or capable peers to guide a student through the ZPD. This metaphor refers to "the steps taken to *reduce the degrees of freedom* in carrying out some tasks so that the child can concentrate on difficult skills she is in the process of

acquiring” (Bruner, 1978: 19 cited in Mercer, 1994, italics added). Scaffolding is defined by Bruner as (1983: 60):

a process of ‘setting up’ the situation to make the child’s entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it.

For Bruner, more expert individuals provide scaffolding for the novice learner. At first, the learner requires a lot of support, such as suggestions and verbal prompts; however, this support will decrease until it is no longer needed. As the learner develops their own strategies, they gradually become more able to work on his/her own. Eventually the learner is able to work unaided.

According to Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976), who originally developed scaffolding theory in the context of first language acquisition and parental tutoring for very young children, based on the Vygotsky’s process of learning, scaffolding teachers have six functions to support the learner’s progress:

1. Recruitment: orienting the learner’s interest in the task.
2. Reduction in degrees of freedom: involving simplifying the task by reducing number of steps.
3. Direction maintenance: keeping the students in pursuit of the particular objects.
4. Marking critical features.
5. Frustration control: controlling the frustration during problem-solving by face-saving errors.
6. Demonstration: demonstrating or modelling solution to a task.

As this metaphor is based on the Vygotskian premise of learning as a socially constructed process, it seems to be beneficial for novice learners who require teacher intervention and support: “What the child can do with assistance today she will be able to do by herself tomorrow” (Vygotsky, 1978: 87). The notion of scaffolding through ZPD has been attractive to teachers, perhaps because “they offer a neat metaphor for active and sensitive involvement of a teacher” in a student’s learning (Mercer and Littleton, 2007).

However, the notion of scaffolding has also been received as problematic. This is because the

original study (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976) was based only on first language and parental tutoring at home in the context of little children, and hence may not cover the second or foreign language context, which contains both the content and medium for language. Moreover, the ways of intervention in parental tutoring cannot be comparable with the format of students' learning with their peers; taking place with a “dynamic contextual framework of shared knowledge, created through language and joint action” (Fernandez et al 2001). Some researchers have argued that scaffolding can be at work in processes of learning. Gibbons (2002) argues that scaffolding may not be just a simple way of “carrying out tasks successfully”; it may contain a complexity of multiple meanings in teachers' support, which considers being “responsive to the particular demands” (Gibbons, 2002:11); e.g. levels of understanding. Gibbons (2002) argues that some educators seem to think scaffolding is only a conventionalised top-down structure that moves from planned tasks to interactional process; e.g. three pedagogical scales (scaffolding 1: plans or curriculum; scaffolding 2: particular tasks which support curriculum; scaffolding 3: actual activities). However, it would be difficult to prove this as it deals with processes that are associated with a bottom-up structure, where, when activities are being carried out, planned tasks can be changed or blended moment by moment, unpredictably and innovatively.

van Lier (1996) also argues that scaffolding is a dynamic feature of collaborative work between the teacher and the learner that allows “the teacher to keep in mind, at all times, a long term sense of direction and continuity, a local plan of action, and moment-to-moment interaction decision making” (van Lier, 1996:199). van Lier characterises six principle features that derive from an idea of the dynamism of working within the ZPD (ibid, 1996: 195): continuity, contextual support, inter-subjectivity, contingency, hand over/takeover and flow. van Lier's principles seem to confirm that scaffolding can only be built through dialogue between the agentive mind and its context. In other words, scaffolding is involved in matching the social natures of learning and establishing an active process that enables students to reconstruct their meaning.

Scaffolding, however, has informed different methodological strands that are the “macro-level/top down” and “micro-level/bottom up” methodologies in many disciplines concerned with socio-cultural and socio-semiotic phenomena (Wells, 2002). The macro-level refers to teachers' overall design via a sequence of tasks within each lesson; it tends to focus on specific outcomes, such as the teacher's goal, planned tasks, students' current abilities and

sequencing tasks. Much research tends to focus on cognitive changes triggered by learners' outcomes and little research focuses on the nature of interaction. The micro-level, on the other hand, refers to interactional organisation between teachers and students, or between peers within the lesson, that focuses on on-going practical pedagogical matters, such as task interaction or opening sequences, where the teachers construct tasks or task engagement (Benwell and Stokoe, 2002; Stokoe, 2000), through a variety of interactional strategies (van Lier, 1996; Seedhouse, 1997; Mercer, 2000; Walsh, 2008). Without being adequately described, the validity of scaffolding in interaction can be questionable. In order to offer an adequate description of scaffolding, it is first necessary to consider on-going practical pedagogical matters, such as task engagement; there also needs to be evidence that students are successful in carrying out their goals with some areas of assistance; lastly, with regard to the principle of "hand over" (van Lier, 1996) strategy, there also needs to be evidence that students have achieved their goals when considering the level of competence and independent functioning throughout the scaffolding technique.

As scaffolding assumes that learners benefit from teachers or more capable participants' intellectual support, it is problematic if we wish to adopt it in more symmetrical situations, such as peer interaction. For example, the study of Hertz-Lazarowize, Kirkus and Miller (1992) shows that Vygotsky's level of learning in the Zone of Proximal Development is not always involved in a hierarchical order. The study of the role of students does not always include peer collaboration, in which fellow students are perceived as "more capable peers" who assist one another's learning within the zone, as their role can shift throughout the process. In addition, in a cooperative group, learners see others as equals, so no peer is designated as being more capable than others. In this case, the students consult the ideas through "thinking together" (Mercer and Littleton, 2007), which is designed to motivate the learner to engage with each others' ideas in group-based activities. Mercer and Littleton (ibid) argue that, when the group tackles specific tasks, it is important that they discuss fully all differences between other ideas, interpretations and understandings. Thus, disagreement or conflict is important for students reaching a consensus, enabling them to modify and develop their opinions with a dynamic negotiation process.

To explain learners' thinking development in more dynamic, interactive and task- or topic-related classroom settings, Mercer (2000) introduced a new concept, known as the Intermental Development Zone (IDZ). Considering the role of interaction and development of

learners' understanding, Mercer draws attention to scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). He argues that the ZPD concept is too static (Mercer 2002), as it is involved in dialogue to explain the individual learner's development at one time, that is useful only if individuals achieve cognitive development "under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978: 86), rather than the process of joint activity (Mercer, 2000). The Intermental Development Zone is meant to represent how both teachers and learners and students among peers create space for dialogue in a more dynamic, interactive and task- or topic-related environment, and it focuses on the nature of the communication process (Mercer, 2002). This concept can be useful because the Intermental Development Zone offers understanding of the process of joint activity in asymmetrical as well as symmetrical formats of teaching and learning. This concept covers that with which the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding were originally previously little concerned. Mercer's Intermental Development Zone (IDZ) implies that it enables teachers and learners to create joint activity and to negotiate a shared community through the dynamic of classroom dialogue. Mercer suggests that, as IDZ is a mutual achievement, the quality of IDZ depends on the interactive participation and commitment of both teachers and learners. However, he strongly argues that "a teacher must take special responsibility for its creation and maintenance" (Mercer, 2002: 14). His view is related to the role of teachers in the interaction and how well teachers maintain and create the IDZ, in which learners are able or unable to engage in the understanding of a shared framework and improve or reduce their capability and understanding.

In spoken teacher/student feedback or writing conference, then, in reality how do writing teachers create and maintain the quality of inter-mental environment, or/and how do they scaffold meanings through interaction? There is little evidence available for observing the nature of teacher-student and student-student interaction in writing conferences, in terms of the quality of teacher and student participation and their commitment. To understand teaching approaches in the classroom interaction, "dialogic teaching" is an important concept that enables us to consider the role of teacher and student substantial contributions in teacher-student conversation in the classroom. I will return to this approach after considering how interaction helps learning.

2.1.3.2 How does interaction between teacher and student and amongst peers help learning?

As discussed earlier, though there have been many studies which offer useful insights into how interaction with a teacher and amongst peers can be used to be more effective, the essential principle of the interactions in language learning involved is in participation (Sfard, 1998). This social view of learning with participation is considered as a “process of becoming a member of a certain community” (Sfard, 1998:6), rather than language learning in the cognitive tradition as existing in an individual learner’s mind (Doughty & Long, 2003).

Such certain community participants engaged co-constructs as an interactive practice (Hall, 1995), or a discursive practice (Tracy, 2002; Young, 2009). However, when we think of improving learning and opportunity for learning, we need to extend our observation from the ways of participants’ co-construction practice and characteristics of interactional structure, to the ways of improving learning where learning is considered as a joint activity in a more dynamic, interactive, task-related environment in the Intermental Development Zone. In this way, we can see how teachers and learners develop shared understandings collaboratively, and how they create and maintain empathetic learning environments (Fletcher, 2005). This view of social realities involves learners’ active participation and extension of their opportunity for discussion and problem-solving collaboratively.

2.2 Studies of teacher-student interaction

In this section, I discuss some specific strategies in interaction which might influence students’ learning opportunities. I address how specific strategies are used and what issues have been found. I will address: first, questions and learning opportunities; second, two types of teaching approach; and third, the ways of shaping student contribution. I will draw on EAP context or similar contexts on second language (L2) classrooms or foreign language classrooms (FL), or even first language (L1) classrooms, to observe what substantial research has previously offered.

2.2.1 Questions and learning opportunity

In the following section, I review the use of teacher questions and learning opportunities. I draw attention to researchers’ criticism of forms and functions of specific types of questions and the validity of the use of specific types of questions. I also focus on some studies that consider questions in interaction, exploring how teachers’ questions help to facilitate student

learning.

2.2.1.1 Question types

Teachers' questions have been used for a number of reasons in pedagogical purposes in most classrooms. The researchers criticise how "classroom talk is dominated by teacher questions" to check what has been learnt (Wood, 1998: 175). In a number of teachers' questions, there is little opportunity for students to raise queries that avoid misunderstanding and misinterpretation, to express interest in the topic and to articulate relevant ideas and opinions (Wells, 1999). Many researchers debate the forms and functions of this type of question and its validity. In this debate, researchers claim that teachers use closed questions too much. As teachers in most classrooms commonly use a closed question which expects just one "right answer", usually applying to recurring memory and recall, students were discouraged from voicing what they wanted to say (Barnes, 1969; Lynch, 1996). The closed question often asks for "known information", by a teacher as a primary knower (Mehan, 1979), and has become known as a "display question" in the second language classroom that tests students' knowledge; e.g. structure or vocabulary (Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Markee, 1995; Long and Sato, 1983). Researchers often contrast display questions with referential questions, which are known as information-seeking questions (Mehan, 1979), open-ended questions (Barnes, 1969), authentic (Nystrand et al., 2003) or negotiatory questions (Wells & Arauz, 2006).

There is also evidence that, because the use of display questions by English Language teachers is far greater than the use of referential questions, students have limited opportunity to articulate their ideas and opinions in the interaction. For example, David's study (David, 2007) found that display questions account for 85% of the total questions asked, while referential questions share 15% of the total questions asked by 20 teachers with 400 students in six schools in Nigeria. Although there are a small number of referential questions in these findings, this form of question appears to have potential as it can increase the student's extended contribution. The referential question, though the researchers named it differently, appears to draw attention to the student's interest and has more potential to promote students' extended ideas than in the case of display questions. This question often encourages students to produce longer and more complex responses than that of display questions (Long and Sato, 1983). More importantly, Nassaji and Wells (2000) argue that requesting justifications, connection or counter arguments always arrives at a consensus after negotiating views, and it stimulates more equal participation in dialogue. This type of question is observed as having a more authentic

nature that considers challenging issues or student interest (Nystrand et al., 2003). Also, it links to contingency on the student's previous utterance, in that it does not require any known answer, which makes the students express their own ideas and opinions (Boyd & Rubin, 2002:2006; Nystrand et al., 2003). From this point of view, for improving the quality of interaction, it is probable that teachers' extensive utilisation of closed or display questions for checking knowledge can be problematic.

2.2.1.2 The issue of the use of the types of questions

It would be wrong to decide that same types of questions, either display or referential, perform the same function without considering the real discourse context. We cannot assume that all forms of question-answer perform the same functions in every context. Also, it would be difficult to distinguish questions with only two predetermined categories. Some researchers have addressed these issues.

On the one hand, researchers question the generalisability of the findings. Wells (1993) argues that the questions can be "used by the same teacher in different contexts, to achieve very different purposes" (p. 3), thus the same form of the questions should not be treated as though essentially similar when it occurs in every context. Banbrook and Skhen (1990), and Allwright and Bailey (1990), also echo Wells' view, that teachers' questions function in particular ways specific to each context, thus teachers require appropriate strategies for considering different contexts. It is evidence that, in Dalton-Puffer's (2006) study of teachers' questioning methods of Content and Language-integrated Learning programme, which is a combination of foreign language learning and subject content in school lessons in foreign language learning context in Austria, open-ended questions were not always effective. A more complex form of open-ended questions could result in teachers' leadership going in the wrong direction. Open-ended questions were far too complex for student responses linguistically and cognitively, thus it often leads the teacher into unprepared and unplanned directions. In addition, research also observes that the use of display questions is not always ineffective. The research by Boyd & Rubin (2002:2006) in an ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) classroom found that the teachers' display questions were not always sufficient in checking known information. Rather, the display questions were often used when teachers responded to their students' questions or utterances, and allowed students to think more carefully about their thoughts or opinions. This resulted in extended student contributions. It has also been found that, while display questioning is more useful for beginners, to improve classroom participation and

involvement in the activity, referential questioning is useful for higher proficiencies in English learners to enhancing classroom interaction (David, 2007; Allwright and Bailey, 1991).

On the other hand, some researchers criticise the validity of using two types of questions. For example, van Lier (1988) questions the division of two types of questions into display and referential in second language classrooms. He argues that neither form of questioning has a simple relationship to their function. They are so closely related to directing, and also to assisting students' thinking, that their purposes and effects should be considered in terms of second language learners' linguistic production, cognitive demands and interactive purposes. Some researchers also show van Lier's criticism that, overwhelmingly, the number of questions generated by these types of questions are restricted rather than elaborate. Much research in second language classrooms focuses on two question types and observes how teachers discuss the function of types of questions with predetermined categorising; e.g. David, 2007; Allwright and Bailey, 1991. Although they offer important results to observe teachers' behaviour in objectivity, these studies with predetermined categorising may not offer a more explorative ground of appropriate questioning strategies to facilitate student learning. For example, Wu's (1993) study shows a number of teachers' questioning strategies in ESL classrooms in Hong Kong. Her study addressed how referential questions can be restricted by display questions in terms of student attitudes. She argued that referential questions did not necessarily guarantee a higher quality of student contributions. When students show their difficulty in giving answers, or failing to extend ideas, teachers can modify the form or content of the question to promote the students' extended thinking through questioning strategies; such as rephrasing, simplification, repetition, decomposition (i.e. breaking down an initial question into several parts) and probing. The study suggests that ESL students in Hong Kong did not want to show off by giving a longer response to the teacher's question, but teacher's specific appropriate questioning strategies, especially the more probing strategies, appeared to be useful: it prompted students to give longer and syntactically more complex answers. Hu (2004) also echoes Wu's study, showing teachers' various questioning strategies in four university English classrooms in Chinese. Hu found that teachers often used methods like repetition, simplification and rephrasing strategies, but seldom used probing, chaining and decomposition strategies.

In the classroom, teachers appear to use a number of questioning strategies. For example, questions can be used to check the students' understanding of what they have learnt; to seek

information; or to promote student participation, when the students are failing or struggling to give answers to the teacher's questions. This means that a specific type of question does not necessarily perform better than another; it depends on how carefully the teacher questions students, and how well-designed the questions are to engage in knowledge. The key point is how teachers' questions function to the students in developing their thinking and in assisting their contributions as a tool for learning. Rather than using predetermined categorising of questions, observing the functions of the teachers' questions can be useful in observing teachers' command over a number of discursive strategies; including waiting time, raising their voice, the use of signposting or non-verbal expression, etc. For example, the student may be the beneficiary of sufficient waiting time, of increased confidence and enthusiasm for the topic, and an increase in appropriate responses (see also Edward, 1992; Nunan, 1991). Thus, more elaborate description through looking at authentic discourse enables us to understand the process of joint construction of knowledge in full.

In my study, I will not identify specific types of questions made by teachers and their functions; rather, I will focus on how teachers' questions influence student learning opportunities in more extended teacher-student interactions in teacher-student writing conferences: it allows us to understand the process of joint construction of knowledge. In the next section, I review two types of teaching approaches: authoritative and dialogic discourse.

2.2.2 Two types of teaching approach: dialogic and authoritative discourse

Many researchers have made persuasive and influential arguments for the importance of teachers' quality talk and learners' substantial contribution (Palincsar and Brown, 1985; Rogoff, 1990; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Alexander, 2000; Young and Miller, 2004; Wells, 1999, Mortimer & Scott, 2004, Seedhouse et al., 2010; Walsh, 2011). In writing classrooms, through spoken feedback or teacher-student writing conferences, there can be many ways to consider dialogue with others, and how students can extend their individual "higher mental function" through "thinking together" (Mercer, 2002).

In the following review, I pay attention to two types of dialogic approaches between authoritative and dialogic, and dynamic instruction and dialogic teaching approaches. In the classroom setting, the word "dialogic" has widely been used to characterise the dynamics of instruction and approaches to teaching. In dialogic approaches to teaching, in many cases, "dialogic" teaching is analysed by a framework based on certain features of classroom

discourse and contrasted to “monologic” (Nystrand et al., 2003), or “authoritative” (Mortimer & Scott, 2003; Scott, Mortimer, & Aguiar, 2006) teaching. These terms have been used as synonyms based on Mikhail Bakhtin’s (1981) notion of “authoritative discourse” and “internally persuasive discourse”. According to Skidmore (2006), for Bakhtin, two types of discourse can be characterised as open or not-open to debate, in that authoritative discourse’s meaning cannot be changed, so may not be challenged by the students. Conversely, internally-persuasive discourse meanings can be changed or interpreted differently, so it seeks another’s independent point of view through dialogic interaction. Internally-persuasive discourse seeks multiple voices, as “one’s own discourse and one’s own voice, although born of another or dynamically stimulated by another, will sooner or later begin to liberate themselves from the authority of the other’s discourse” (Bakhtin, 1981: 348). It challenges the authoritative voice and negotiates with it until individuals reach an agreement or understanding (Freedman & Ball, 2004).

Mortimer and Scott (2003) draw attention to this distinction by adopting Bakhtin’s idea in defining two concepts of communicative approach: “authoritative” and “internally persuasive” discourse, authoritative and dialogic discourse in a Brazilian high-school science class. They used the word “authoritative” discourse when the teacher’s purpose is “to focus the students’ full attention on just *one* meaning” (Scott, et al 2006: 610). Conversely, they used the word “dialogic” discourse when the “teacher recognizes and attempts to take into account a range of students’, and others’, ideas” (ibid: 610). Through the study, they viewed that dialogic discourse involves collecting others’ viewpoints by questioning, contrasting and comparing others’ views, and students’ working together to apply new knowledge to solve problems by agreeing and disagreeing with each others’ views.

Additionally, dialogic discourse can be played with the different levels of inter-animation of ideas from low to high levels. Teachers start by collecting the views of others by simply listing knowledge on the board and exploring and working with the relations between these views by comparing, contrasting and developing. In contrast, authoritative discourse does not involve the process of interpretation of the other and is closed to any other point of view. Teachers prefer the transmitting of information or knowledge to students, rather than transforming knowledge of the students. One interesting point for their study is that when teachers use two forms of discourse, authoritative and dialogic, they change them whenever they need to; they are not used as a dichotomy. Rather, they see a tension and a dialectic dimension whereby the

teacher may use one form of discourse, or use one to support the other one, in terms of a number of a teacher's different methods of using language for supporting meaningful teaching and learning. This implies that teachers may not always need to use "dialogic" discourse. The important issue is how two types of teacher talk affect student learning opportunities differently.

Similarly, Nystrand et al. (1997 and 2001) adopted Bakhtin's dialogism theory and characterised classroom discourse between monologic and dialogic. The monologic and dialogic dimensions represent the extent to which participants, teachers and students are actively involved in the interaction: in monologic discourse, teachers offer from a predetermined "script", whereas in dialogic discourse the participants extend or modify their views as "one voice 'refracts' another" (Nystrand et al., 2001:2). The study of Nystrand et al. (1997), of 8th-9th grade English and Social Studies classrooms in 25 Midwestern middle and high schools in the USA, distinguished two types of instruction, using some specific features. For example, monologically-organised instruction contains recitation, transmission of knowledge and objectivism (knowledge is given); teacher textbooks' authority excludes students, whereas dialogically-organised instruction contains discussion, transformation of understanding, dialogism (knowledge emerges from interactions of voice), and includes student interpretation and personal experience coherence (see p. 19). The results show that the classroom discourse is "overwhelmingly monologic" (p. 41). He argues that one tendency in monologic instruction is how teachers are too often involved in recitation. Teachers move on constantly through questions when students demonstrate what they know, focusing on the teacher's responding to students rather than the students responding to teachers. However, the study revealed similar results to what we see in Mortimer and Scott (2003), in that monologic discourse is not altogether ineffective; it depends on how teachers extend or modify sequences. In addition, open-ended questions are also valuable, as this type of question tends to promote students' elaboration and explanation further. They call this scenario "dialogic spells" that shift interaction from the typical and more traditional teachers' "recitation script", in terms of considering both sides of a dialogue in alternate participations of teacher and student, rather than a teacher's single action.

In my study, I focus on two types of dialogue between authoritative and dialogic to examine explicitly how these types of talk influence student learning, based on Bakhtin's dialogism. I will observe two kinds of discursive variety in teacher-student interaction through looking at

questions and control of interaction. In the next section, I review how dialogic teaching emerged in teacher-student writing conferences in the EAP writing classroom.

2.2.3 The ways of shaping student contribution

2.2.3.1 Dialogic teaching

To understand the nature of teacher-student interaction, in which both teachers and learners participate in and commit to interaction, the concept of “dialogic teaching” is important. Dialogic teaching means using the power of talk to stimulate and to extend students’ thinking, and to advance their learning and understanding (Alexander, 2008). This approach is interested in both the teachers’ and the students’ contributions, because, on the one hand, it helps the teacher’s precise diagnosis of students’ needs, and to frame their learning tasks and assess their progress. On the other hand, it empowers the students to be active in their own learning (Alexander, 2008). This approach is linked with many studies that have made persuasive and influential arguments for the importance of teacher-student interaction in order to improve opportunities for learning; for example, Palincsar and Brown’s (1985) “Reciprocal teaching”, Rogoff’s (1990) “guided participation”, Wells’ (1999) “dialogic enquiry”, Walsh’s (2011) “Classroom Interactional Competence”, and so on.

Alexander (2000) compared the pedagogy of teaching by analysing the classroom experiences, interactions and discourses in a large-scale comparative study project in various countries: for example, England, France, India, Russia and the United States, using 17 samples of teacher-student/student-student interaction. One of the most interesting results of this study lies in the different ways of fostering learner engagement through communicative teaching. One particular way for increasing the potential for learner engagement is in the line of scaffolded dialogue, defined as “achieving common knowledge through structured and sequenced questioning, and through ‘joint activity and shared conceptions’” (p. 527). Later, “dialogic teaching”, developed by Alexander, is described as “collective; reciprocal; supportive; cumulative; and purposeful” (Alexander, 2004:29). Also, both “discussion” and “scaffolded dialogue” are treated as important criteria for achieving dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2008c). Through careful observation in teacher-student dialogue, Alexander found that the teachers whose pupils improved the quality of conversation and raised students’ standard attainment could be distinguished by the following five key principles (Alexander, 2003: see p. 7):

I) Collectivity: teachers and pupils address learning tasks together, whether as a group or as a

class;

ii) Reciprocity: teachers and pupils listen to each other, share ideas and consider alternative viewpoints;

iii) Cumulation: teachers and pupils build on their own and each others' ideas and chain them into coherent lines of thinking and enquiry;

iv) Support: pupils articulate their ideas freely, without fear of embarrassment over giving the wrong answers, and they help each other to reach common understandings;

v) Purposefulness: the dialogue is planned and transacted with specific learning outcomes clearly in view.

These principles can challenge the traditional, teacher-fronted, teacher-dominant voice, and monologic accounts of the nature of teacher-student classroom interaction. These characteristics imply that the quality of dialogue and teacher and student interaction is not only supportive of students' development of their own thinking, but the ways of dialogue are engaged in thinking. In other words, it is important to consider how both teachers and students engage, build and negotiate each others' views. From this point of view, significant student participation or the student voice is also valuable in classroom interaction, while the teacher's voice is still important. Alexander's "dialogic teaching" may differ from interactive whole-class teaching. This approach requires closer attention in terms of the different contexts of dialogue; the purpose of questions (e.g. elicitation, recall, instruction, management, routine and probing); their structure (e.g. open, close, directive, leading, narrow and discursive); the form of answers (e.g. factual, analytical, speculative, hypothesising, evaluative); and their length, feedback and the way answers are built upon in order to take thinking forward, and so on.

This study clearly underlines the fact that the quality of a pupil's conversation in the classroom is directly related to that of the teacher. In particular, talking about students' writing through dialogic teaching can have potential benefits on improving their thinking regarding their own writing.

Alexander draws attention to the concept of dialogic teaching from Bakhtin's (1986) concept of dialogue, in which the individual "does not expect passive understanding that so to speak rather he expects response, agreement, sympathy, objection, execution, and so forth." (Bakhtin, 1986: 69). Dialogic teaching is thus understood through teacher and student dialogue, both teacher

and student actively participating in “thinking together” (Mercer, 2002) and helping students to reflect, to clarify and to articulate their own understanding.

In an earlier study, a similar dialogic teaching approach in the classroom has been taken by Palincsar and Brown (1985), who used a structured dialogic to improve reading comprehension for seventh grade students. One of their special interests was in their dialogic structure strategy, involving sharing the role of the teacher within a small group activity in which the students jointly constructed and improved other students’ understanding of the text. Palincsar and Brown (1984: 169) called this dialogic strategy “reciprocal teaching” and commented that:

the reciprocal teaching procedure involves continuous trial and error on the part of the student, married to continuous adjustment on the part of the teacher to their current competence.

Their analysis shows how teachers can encourage students’ active participation in small groups by the use of specific strategies. These include a more explicit and structured instruction that encourages students to predict using clues from the text; that, by asking questions, students can make meaning, words or passages clear in the text; that encourages students to ask questions about the text or use strategies; and encourages students to summarise the main ideas of the text by using their own words. Thus, in this dialogue process, participation in socially-mediated activities is essential, and the activities need to present learners with a variety of tasks and demands, and engage the learner with others (Lantolf 2000; Lantolf and Thorne 2006).

Another study which links to dialogic teaching is “guided participation” (Rogoff, 1990). Rogoff’s study shows learners’ cognitive development through interaction, in which she used structuring dialogues to facilitate learners’ incorporation into the intellectual thinking process. Rogoff sees that “learning is a process of transforming participation in shared socio-cultural endeavours” (Rogoff, 1994: 210), which is the potential benefit of collaborative learning. She draws attention to learning with more experienced people, who would help foster mature roles and skills (Rogoff, 1994).

However, Rogoff’s view is unconcerned with an active participation of learners. A learner may take active roles in seeking or transforming what they are given into new knowledge. Also, the learner’s role can be extended over time to collective learning through what Lave and Wenger

see as “full participation” (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

Lave and Wenger (1991:29) highlight the potential benefits of “full participation”:

Legitimate peripheral participation provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artefacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. A person’s intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a socio-cultural practice. This social process includes, indeed it subsumes, the learning of knowledgeable skills.

In their basic concept, during the process, learners as apprentices with others – teachers or peers – join communities and learn at the periphery. Then, over time, when they become more competent, they become more involved in the main processes of the particular community and they move from legitimate peripheral participation into “full participation” (Lave and Wenger 1991:37). Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that communities of practice exist everywhere and that people are generally engaged in a process of collective learning, whether in their work place, school, home or in their civic and leisure interests. Wenger (1998:45) commented:

Over time, this collective learning results in practices that reflect both the pursuit of our enterprises and the attendant social relations. These practices are thus the property of a kind of community created over time by the sustained pursuit of a shared enterprise. It makes sense, therefore to call these kinds of *communities of practice*.

According to Wenger (1998), a community of practice is about its joint enterprise, as understood and continually renegotiated by its members. It functions on the premise of mutual engagement that binds together members into a social entity, and, over time, members become more involved in the shared repertoire of communal resources. In other words, learning as increasing participation in communities of practice is not seen as the acquisition of knowledge by individuals; rather, it is seen as a process of *social* participation (ibid: 49). Another argument of guided participation especially related to social practices comes from Barnes (1976). Barnes (1976: 142) discussed two contradictory pedagogical styles – transmission and interpretation:

The transmission teacher sees it as his task to transmit knowledge and to test whether the pupils have received it. To put it crudely, he sees language as a tube down which knowledge can be sent; if a pupil catches the knowledge he can send it back up the tube. Such a teacher does not see speech or writing as changing the way in which the knowledge is held. For the interpretation teacher, however, the pupil's ability to re-interpret knowledge for himself is crucial to learning, and he sees this as depending on a productive dialogue between the pupil and himself.

This implies that, while a transmission teacher determines what is taught and assigns to his/her pupils a passive recipient role in learning, an interpretation teacher begins with an understanding of what is to be learnt and how it is to be taught and encourages his/her pupils to participate actively through a series of activities. Barnes considers two major teaching approaches towards classroom interaction, arguing that the traditional teacher's role, as a transmitter of knowledge, can be replaced by the role of a teacher who facilitates her students' active participation regarding their own tasks or own learning. In other words, appropriate teacher guidance is focused on knowledge construction or reconstruction, which emphasises interactive learning with teachers, students and experts in an authentic learning community.

In a more recent publication, Lyle (2008) highlights the need for classroom teachers to practice appropriate dialogic teaching. In this review, Lyle shows how dialogic practice enables learners to raise their voice, promotes reflective learning and potentially increases pupils' engagement at a deeper level. It also supported learners' articulation and mutual understanding without fear of embarrassment within the activity. Lyle argues that, as a dialogic approach to classroom emphasises the activity of student understanding and critical thinking in dialogue with their teacher, it has transformative potential for learning. However, there was concern to ensure that a dialogic approach was planned and transacted with pedagogical purposes, or specific learning outcomes.

2.2.3.2 Interactional strategies

Interactional strategies refer to the strategies whereby the teacher and students, or the student and the student, carry out negotiating intended meaning in a spoken interaction, and, therefore, mutual understanding is reached for both parties (Dornyei and Scott, 1995a). These strategies

include: request for information, clarification of intended meaning, making a constructive response, expressing their understanding, showing their interest, and so on. For writing teachers, it can be a challenge to use appropriate interactional strategies to provide constructive feedback in relation to student texts.

In second language classrooms, some researchers are interested in how teachers use interactional strategies to maximise students' learning and their learning opportunities (Seedhouse and Walsh, 2010, Walsh, 2002:2006:2011; Cullen, 2002; Seedhouse, 2004). Although there can be a number of ways to demonstrate interactional strategies, in recent years Seedhouse and Walsh (2010) and Walsh (2011), who have made significant contributions to the theory of language classroom discourse and learning, have demonstrated how specific interactional strategies affect learning and learning opportunities. Walsh called these specific interactional strategies "Classroom Interactional Competence" (CIC), which is defined as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (Walsh, 2006:130). Although interactional strategies are not always successful, and sometimes obstruct students' learning opportunities (Walsh, 2002), when CIC as a specific interactional strategy is extended, students' learning opportunities are maximised. Three important features of CIC that manifest themselves have been observed (Walsh, 2011). First, CIC is used as a language related to specific pedagogic goals, and to the agenda of the moment. In particular, in teacher-student interaction, CIC shows both teachers' and learners' interactional decisions and subsequent actions that indicate why the teacher has made certain interactional decisions—Walsh called the teacher and learner "mode convergent" (p. 110). Secondly, CIC is used for facilitating interactional space for learning. It shows how participants are able to create and maintain "space" for learning opportunities, where learners are given adequate space to contribute their thinking and to receive feedback on their contributions in the interaction. And third, CIC is used for "shaping" learners' meaningful contributions through the use of various strategies; for example, scaffolding, paraphrasing, reinterpreting, and so on.

Regarding relationships between L2 learning and interaction in more learning-oriented interaction, Walsh (2011) argues that scaffolding differs from that which has been promoted under CLT methodologies. As learning is a non-linear process, that emerges in often unpredictable ways from meaningful activity in the L2 (Larsen-Freeman 2010), simply using a "hand over/take over" (van Lier, 1996) strategy does not appear to allow students and teachers to jointly create interactional space, disallowing opportunities for meaningful activity.

Teachers require the opportunity to use various strategies to maintain their interest and to participate actively in their learning area. This means that “classroom processes will only improve once teachers have the means of understanding local context and are able to improve it” (Walsh, 2011:21). Seedhouse and Walsh (2010:146) comment:

...the interaction strategies used by teachers and learners to support each other and assist the process of meaning- making are both central to effective classroom communication, and a clear indication of classroom interactional competence.

Under this social view of learning, learning is no longer regarded as the mere transmission of knowledge from teacher to learners in the classroom; it is regarded as a process, dynamic and a social activity with others, as shown in the concept of Intermental Development Zone (Mercer, 2002). As mentioned, learning fundamentally takes a social view as a transformation that involves all participants’ co-construction of their knowledge in thinking and doing processes for clarifying their thoughts, clarifying the idea, sharing each others’ ideas and creating meaning in a discursive practice. In this respect, as I mentioned previously, a new metaphor for the students’ participation in their own learning is considered as an essential element during the writing conferences.

With regard to student participation in writing conferences, Leki (1990) stresses that teachers can develop a greater awareness of students’ intentions in writing through dialogue between teacher and student, so that teachers are more aware of feedback issues and respond more effectively. For example, the empirical investigation of Goldstein’s & Conrad’s (1990) study analysed ESL writing conferences between the teacher of the writing class and three of her advanced students from different cultural backgrounds. They looked at how students dealt with revisions based on seven features: episodes, discourse structure, topic nomination, invited nomination, turns, questions and negotiation. The analyses of the data from their ten audio-recorded conferences indicate that three 20-minute writing conferences contributed effectively to students’ revision and negotiation of their views on draft essays. The study argues for the importance of negotiation of meaning between teacher and student, to the point that, when the students did not negotiate with the teacher’s suggestions, the students’ “subsequent

revisions were often either unsuccessful or not attempted at all” (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990: 454).

A similar result was also found in Hewett’s (2006) empirical study of 52 synchronised online conferences between 14 online writing instructors and 23 undergraduate students, tasked with writing letters and essays. The result of this study revealed that 62% of student writers asked for assistance from instructors to help address specific writing problems, such as developing ideas, providing details and clarification. For comparison, requests for assistance for ideas and content problems amounted to 25%, while surface errors, such as grammar, mechanics, citational and bibliographical difficulties, numbered just 13% out of the total. These two studies suggest, as Hyland and Hyland (2006) and Goldstein (2004) point out, that the key to successful commentaries in writing probably depends on the recognition of the students’ intention, and the giving of feedback personally through discussion (like writing conferences), which provides opportunities for students to let their instructors know their intentions explicitly, to be made to think about their audiences and questions on their points of view, so that the instructors can respond to their writing appropriately.

Alexander’s concept of “dialogic teaching” enables us to observe the role of teacher and its relation to student learning. However, the concept has only provided general descriptions based on his research in elementary schools. As can be seen, empirical studies help teachers to understand the role of teacher-student interaction in supporting students’ learning opportunities, but it is still limited in presenting itself as clear evidence of teacher contribution and their pupils’ participation based on what goes on in spoken feedback or teacher-student writing conferences, in particular. For understanding the role of teacher-student interaction in writing conferences in relation to learning, the use of examples of interaction by participants from classroom observational data is essential, for this provides evidence of learning with the kind of empirical illustration. With evidence given by examining the changes of cognition displayed by learners in a particular context of classroom talk, this may promote understanding of the classroom interactional process (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger 1998). Therefore, my research investigates the ways that dialogue in the notion of dialogic teaching relates to the actual discussion and interaction between teacher and student in the EAP writing classroom, and to seek evidence of development in students’ understanding.

2.3 Studies of student-student interaction: peer collaborative learning

In the next section, I will discuss peer-to-peer interaction, also called “peer collaborative learning”.

2.3.1 Assumptions of peer collaborative learning

Along with interaction between teacher and student, interaction between/among peers as peer collaborative learning is also practiced in the classroom. According to Smith and MacGregor (1992), collaborative learning involves joint intellectual effort between students and teachers and among peers together. Students in small groups usually search for understanding, solutions, meanings, or to create a product. In the present study, the concept of peer “collaborative” learning is synonymous with “cooperative” learning; they will be used interchangeably in student-student writing conferences.

Smith and MacGregor (1992) discuss collaborative learning and foreground a number of important assumptions about learners and the learning process:

1. Learning is active and constructive: students integrate new knowledge with what they already know, so they are constructing meaning or creating something for new intellectual processing.
2. Learning is influenced by the context and activity: students are actively engaged with his/her peer in challenging tasks or questions.
3. Students are diverse: students can bring multiple viewpoints to the collaborative activity, from people with varied backgrounds, learning styles, experiences and aspirations.
4. Learning is social: in a collaborative environment, students inevitably encounter different learning through talking to each other and establishing meaning together, in which this social stimulation leads to much of the learning outcomes.

According to the above assumptions, students do not rely on an expert’s or a text’s framework; they are challenged both socially and emotionally through a collaborative learning environment. In terms of interaction, this means that peer collaborative learning can enable students to engage in structured work, and they are expected to reach a consensus on an issue or come to an agreement.

In a collaborative environment, when students work together within small groups, their

learning goals can be structured to promote “cooperative” effort, which can maximise their own and each other’s learning (Johnson et al. 1994). One of the most important elements for this cooperative learning is positive interdependence. Each group member requires their own contributions to make up a joint effort. Other elements of cooperative learning involve face-to-face positive interaction, both individual and group accountability, interpersonal or group skills and group processing. Thus, in cooperative learning, the group is required to achieve mutual goals, to make group member competence stronger, or to engage in the tasks dynamically, to gain interpersonal or group skills (e.g. trust, leadership, decision-making, and conflict resolution), and to reflect on how well the group is functioning.

As mentioned earlier, the above approaches of guided and collaborative learning have an underlying socio-cultural approach that is distinguished from that which emphasises natural growth and individual development. Although this approach to learning is recognised where the supportive engagement or words of adults or peers with individuals and also non-verbal guidance occurs (Rogoff, 1990), applying the approach may be a slow process, and sometimes ineffective because of contextual differences. Thus, researchers need to explore more about real situations while they integrate various social learning activities; e.g. how peers adopt the role of peer tutor, how peers exchange or build their ideas, what happens or how they respond when challenged or their feedback is rejected, and how they negotiate each others’ views etc.

2.3.2 Approaches to peer learning

Peer interaction can be understood regarding three approaches: peer tutoring, cooperative learning and peer collaboration (Demon & Phelps, 1988; 1989b). Peer tutoring is an expert-to-novice approach (ibid, 1989b:11). However, in peer interaction, the role relationship involving a power distance is not clear-cut and not all peer tutors exist as “experts”. They argue that, in peer tutoring, the expert party is not very far removed from the novice party in terms of authority or knowledge; nor has the expert party any special claims to instructional competence. In peer cooperation, peers can modify their ideas through discussion, and participants in peer collaboration have different expertise and can negotiate or share their knowledge. Such differences affect the nature of discourse between the peer tutor and peer tutee, because they place the tutee in a less passive role than does the teacher/learner instructional relation.

With regard to the three approaches to peer learning, peer interaction is understood within

social contexts: role, interactive structure and task (McCarthy & McMahon, 1992:21). In the first dimension, “role” is defined as “the relationship between or among the participants based on who has knowledge and power”. The authors compare the role of three kinds of peer groups. In peer tutoring, the more capable peer gives feedback to the less capable peer (making this low on equality by nature); in peer cooperation and collaboration, peers can modify or negotiate each others’ ideas through discussion (making it high on equality). As regards power, unlike teacher and student interaction—where an expert and novice relationship, or a high-power distance exists—peer interactions during the writing process involve a low power distance that can be explained as more equal, or having less control to change the individual’s text.

The second dimension is the “interactive structure” in peer interaction (McCarthy & McMahon, *ibid*). As peer learning is a more cooperative environment, it is assumed that students are more likely to share their knowledge during the writing process, where readers and audiences are mutually engaged in the discourse. The peer structure may differ from the teacher’s dominant voice in the traditional classroom. In the group, an individual has an opportunity to reflect on their text and is enabled to articulate their understanding through the interactive structure.

“Task” is also considered as the third dimension of peer groups (McCarthy & McMahon, 1992). In group work, it is likely that the type of task influences their roles and interactive structures (p. 23). The peer tutor/tutee roles are selected according to the task. In an individual task, e.g. to complete an essay, while the peer tutor acts as a guide to provide explanations, make suggestions, ask questions and to model their own thinking, the peer tutee asks questions, accepts or agrees with the peer tutor’s suggestions. As a result, the peer tutor is likely to be dominant in their interactive structures. On the other hand, in a cooperative group task, each student tends to share the responsibility and ask questions, provide explanations, accept suggestions and agree to incorporate them into their paper.

However, this convergent task requires the student to discover expertise, truth and justification. For example, in Tin’s (2003) study of non-native speakers, two types of tasks are discussed. In the first convergent task, e.g. grammar correction, there was little attempt to generate ideas and construct knowledge among the EAP groups. As they could not explore specific features of grammatical items and the reasons for their choices, they failed to arrive at the target. Conversely, when they received the second task, e.g. to make a decision on what was the error and how to correct it, the group would attempt not only to contract given ideas, but also to

justify them with explanations. The findings suggest a challenge whereby tasks need to have more criticism or discussion in which the group engages in more supportive and constructive methods towards each others' ideas, with challenges or counter challenges being offered and justified (Barns and Todd, 1977; Mercer and Littleton, 2007). In other words, merely equipping students with communicative skills for participation in discussion and seminars does not guarantee successful performance; so the convergent tasks need to integrate an EAP programme to raise student awareness of academic competence.

2.3.3 Different ways of peer talk

In the 1990s, researchers considered how interaction between peers in peer discussion and working together could improve learners' potential benefit for their intellectual development (Barns and Todd, 1995; Mercer, 1995). They argue that learners have little opportunity to talk with each other in group-thinking as they frequently work alongside each other. They consider that learning through collaborative discussion is seen as a dual process, not just supporting individual development but in itself embedded in social thinking: "In normal human life, communicative activity and individual thinking have a continuous, dynamic influence on each other" (Mercer, 2000: 9); and they have attempted to identify different ways of peer talk during collaborative learning.

Illustrative evidence of different ways of collaborative discussion have been characterised by a three-part typology of talk, used during peer learning: disputational talk, cumulative talk and exploratory talk. "Disputational talk" is characterised by disagreement and individualised decision-making; "cumulative talk" is where speakers build positively but uncritically on what others have said; "exploratory talk" is where partners engage critically but constructively with each others' ideas. Statements and suggestions are offered for joint consideration (Mercer and Littleton, 2007: 58-9).

Summarising their findings, Mercer and Littleton (2007:67) write:

What is expected in terms of behaviour may be accepted without really being understood. The distinction between structures for classroom management (for example, lining up in pairs or sitting rather than kneeling on chairs) and structures for supporting learning (for example, listening to a partner or

asking a question) may not be apparent to children. Even when aim of talk is made explicit – ‘talk together to decide’; ‘Discuss this in your groups’ – there may be no real understanding of how to talk together or for what purpose.

When thinking about the issue of how to talk together and for what purpose, Mercer and Littleton have highlighted the importance of exploratory talk. They argue that teachers need to set ways of dialogic strategy (they called it “ground rules”) for exploratory talk to students, to be aware of a kind of dialogic strategy when they engage in group activity. Mercer’s and Littleton’s (2007:72) ground rules for talk were, for example:

We share our ideas and listen to each other.

We talk one at a time.

We respect each other’s opinions.

We give reasons to explain our ideas.

If we disagree, we ask ‘why’?

We try to agree in the end.

These rules “represents a joint, co-ordinated form of co-reasoning in language with speakers sharing knowledge, challenging ideas, evaluating evidence, considering options and trying to reach an agreement in an equitable manner” (Mercer and Littleton 2007: 62). This study shows pedagogical benefits in the ground rules for exploratory talk, in which learners are aware of how language can be used so that the rules become part of the common knowledge in their class and can use be used in relevant activities.

2.4 Conclusion

Up to this point, my review of literature has focused primarily on the role of teacher-student interaction and peer-to-peer interaction in relation to learning in the classroom. It is also important to consider analysing interactions that show empirical evidence for learning.

Without an adequate approach, there is little understanding of learning about how interaction in the activity helps students at all. The next chapter discusses relevant approaches to analysing classroom interaction.

CHAPTER 3 ANALYSING CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Classroom interaction has drawn analytic attention from linguistics, applied linguistics and a range of other education fields. These disciplines have made considerable contributions towards the understanding of classroom discourse in the L2 language classroom. As I have already mentioned, evidence of L2 learning in classroom interaction must demonstrate appropriate interactional strategies in relation to specific teaching goals and a particular micro-context (Walsh, 2011). In other words, any approach to understanding classroom discourse must demonstrate a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction in the L2 classroom (Seedhouse, 2004). This was also observed in Drew's and Heritage's (1992) study of participants in institutional interaction, and how there is orientation to some "core goal, task or identity conventionally associated with the institution in question" (p. 22).

According to Seedhouse (2004), the relationship between pedagogy and interaction is the foundation of the organisation of interaction in the L2 classroom that represents socially-distributed cognition and learning. For a fuller understanding of the process of L2 classroom interaction, there is a need for an appropriate approach. In this chapter, I discuss some approaches to analysing classroom interaction: in section 3.1, discourse analysis *structural-functional linguistics* (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975); in section 3.2, interaction analysis system based analysis; in section 3.3, *conversation* analysis (e.g. Markee 2000, Seedhouse, 2004, Levison, 1983); and finally, the conclusion in section 3.4.

3.1 Discourse Analysis approach: structural-functional linguistics

Since discourse is used as a form of language, linguistic methods of analysis have played a predominant role in the study of written and spoken discourse. Under the DA approach, many types of grammar have been developed to describe the role of verbal utterance in the context, such as structural, generative and functional grammars; also phonology, morphology and syntax have emerged to describe sounds, words and sentences. For example, "Can I ask you why you write this way?" could then be mapped as a request to explain why. There are explicit DA models in the classroom interaction where, once a teacher or a student makes a move on one level, their moves can be specified and coded, and then hierarchical systems can be developed.

In the Birmingham School, Sinclair's and Coulthard's (1975) study is probably the most significant finding that takes a "discourse analysis" approach. Sinclair's and Coulthard's work attempts to develop the linguistic structure of interactional exchanges by looking at how teachers and pupils take their turns or moves. They borrow from Halliday's (1978) scale and category grammar, and develop a model for the description of teacher and student talk based on a hierarchical discourse order, which is otherwise well-known as the classroom model of IRF: Initiation, Response and Feedback (Follow-up).

According to Sinclair and Coulthard, classroom discourse in a pedagogical context includes a number of elements that are related to a ranking scale, or given an order of hierarchy: *lesson*, *transaction*, *exchange*, *move* and *act*. The largest order in the discourse is the *lesson*, which consists of units of *transaction*. 'Transaction' consists of units of *exchanges*, which consist of units of *moves*. A *move* consists of units of *acts*. Therefore, *acts* are the smallest unit. Although this research does not aim at improving educational practice as such, Sinclair's and Coulthard's work on the structure of interactional exchanges has clearly made possible certain applications to classroom analysis. The authors point out how teachers tend to work to a highly organised structure in their lessons, and that this structure contains mainly two types of exchanges: boundary and teaching exchanges.

Boundary exchanges are identified as those which commonly occur at the beginning or end stages of the lesson, and have the function of allowing students to know what is going to happen next: this is called a meta-statement (Hyland 2002). A boundary exchange can be employed either with a *framing move* or a *focusing move*. Typical framing and focusing moves are signified by speech *acts*, such as "OK", "well" and "right", in addition to extended comments or pauses by the teacher. Such moves have the aim of drawing the students' attention to a following task; for example, "I want to tell you about.....". On the other hand, *Teaching exchanges* concern the evolving sequence of the lesson that plays out the teacher's intentions; e.g. giving information, explanations or evaluations. A typical teaching exchange in the classroom consists of an *initiation* move by the teacher, followed by a *response move* from the pupil, followed by a *feedback* move to the pupil's response from the teacher, hence the IRF model. For example:

A

T (I): What's the name of this cutter?

P (R): Hacksaw

T (F): the hacksaw

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992:69)

B

T (I): Can anyone tell me what this means?

P (R): Does it mean 'danger men at work'?

T (F): Yes

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992:71)

Structure

I with elicit as head

R with reply as head

F with evaluation as head

In the two extracts, they tend to simply specify or code, being based on the coding system. For example, the teacher's pedagogic move is specified as "Initiation" and "Feedback", or "follow-up" (they reconsider three elements of exchange structure using the structural label "follow-up", see Sinclair and Coulthard, 1995), while the pupil's move is specified as "response", and the function of teaching exchange moves follow the same structure as an IRF.

The coding system in this model can be useful in any attempt to understand the nature of the classroom and to describe the distinctive role of the teacher, who mainly controls classroom discourse (I) and (F), from the pupil, who plays a passive role (R) in classroom interaction. Sinclair and Coulthard, whose work is based on recordings of teacher-pupil interaction in L1 primary school classroom discourse during the 1960s, found that teachers mainly make two pedagogical moves, (I) and (F), and that they control the lesson through asking questions, providing information and commenting. Conversely, pupils make one response move (R), and are responding to teachers' questions and directions and listening to the teacher giving information. This means that pupils rarely ask questions or actively participate in the lesson. Studies of IRF also show that pupils tend to focus mainly on getting the teacher's attention, in order to be nominated or selected by the teacher.

However, with separate coding dimensions, it can be difficult to understand the full scale of interaction in contemporary schools, which contain a number of other features of interaction. Compared to Sinclair's and Coulthard's study, contemporary classroom interaction involves far greater equality in terms of contributions between teacher and student and teacher-led talk, facilitating the meaning-making and co-construction of knowledge (Wells, 1999; Mercer, 1995). Nassaji and Wells (2000:401-402) tried to analyse episodes of teacher-whole-class interaction collected during a collaborative classroom session. They found that, in the follow-up (feedback) move, teachers avoid providing an evaluation; rather, they provided a wide range of discourse that allowed students to make connections or counter arguments, which also leads students to self-select in making their contribution. The evidence shows that understanding of the analysis of the IRF pattern has shifted from the very hierarchical categorising of a pattern of exchanges, to identifying and including its complexity of pedagogical potential. Based on their findings, Nassaji and Wells argue that the initial IRF structure fails when there is a need to explain the characteristic of complex, dynamic interactions, rather than using simple exchanges. This result suggests that there are other things to require understanding of interaction in relation to specific pedagogy goals in the local context which can promote learning. As Levinson (1983) argues, DA seems unable to deal with complex interactions: it seems able only to translate one speech act at once. As can be seen from the above example, a single speech might perform multiple speech acts at a time, thus it is difficult to see dynamic features of interactive contributions between the teacher and the pupils, including verbal and non-verbal expression, such as laughter or pose. According to Seedhouse (2004), using the DA approach, "the analyses are quick, straightforward and complete, there are no fundamental differences" (p. 60) between different examples.

To conclude this section, under the DA approach, examples were analysed as if they were straightforward and complete. IRF could be predictable if everything was planned without considering multiple equal relations, or intertwined conflicting demands between participants. In the contemporary L2 classroom, however, studies have shown that interactions are far more complex and that more attention is required to how teachers help learners make meaningful contributions through interaction. As can be seen, DA's approach to the IRF structure in isolation is problematic when dealing with the complexities of dynamic interaction. Thus, a variable approach for analysing classroom interaction requires demonstration of valid and adequate descriptions of on-going L2 classroom interaction.

3.2 Interaction analysis approaches: system-based analysis

In recent years a number of studies have been of much interest to processes of teaching and learning. In order to improve the quality of teaching skills or behaviour to maximise student learning, educators or practitioners have collected and investigated teaching behaviours using recordings in actual classroom dialogue, that are then subjected to statistical analysis. To do this, various systems have been developed, by observers such as FIAC (Flanders' Interaction Analysis) by Flanders (1970); the FLINT system (Foreign Language Interaction, an adaptation of FIAC) by Moskowitz (1971); and COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) by Allen, et al. (1984). These observation schedules, in terms of interaction analysis, have some common features:

- Before observing the class, the observers check for the problems in order to be mindful of the schedule and decisions regarding the place to observe.
- The observers are concerned with effective and reliable data collection. They use coding systems for categorising; for example, entering a code on a grid at regular time intervals for real-time observation, or making audio-/video-recordings to allow closer and more detailed analysis.
- The observers can easily compare one system to another.
- During the research process, the observers have the opportunity to look at their own teaching. Since the research problems are crucial aspects in the classroom interaction, the observation of these problems have become a chance to reflect on their own teaching.

Among many particular dimensions of systems, Flanders' interaction analysis system has been widely used as a research tool for exploring patterns of classroom interaction. Flanders' coding system includes ten aspects of classroom communication possibilities, in three divided categories: teachers' direct and indirect talk; students' initiation and response talk; silence or confusion, in instances where observers cannot understand communication between the teacher and the student. The Flanders' interaction categories are as follows:

Figure 1: **Flanders' Interaction Categories (Sources from Flanders, 1970: 34)**

TEACHER TALK

-INDIRECT INFLUENCE

1. ACCEPTS FEELINGS
2. PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES
3. ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENTS

4. ASK QUESTIONS

-DIRECT INFLUENCE

5. LECTURING
6. GIVING DIRECTIONS
7. CRITICISING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY

STUDENT TALK

8. STUDENTS' TALK: RESPONSE

9. STUDENTS' TALK: INITIATION

SILENCE

10. SILENCE OR CONFUSION

This technique does offer important characteristics in emerging classroom interaction between teacher and student dialogue. It also offers understanding of non-verbal expressions, such as silences. With regard to silence, some researchers argue that students' silence may indicate teacher-dominant classrooms (Jaworski & Sachdev, 1998), although there have been counter views by others. For example, Li (2001) and Ollin (2008) argue that students can actively participate in silence in classroom interaction when a reflective teacher ought to be listening more carefully to the silent interaction, or enquiring what is meant by the silence. They suggest that silence is part of a continuum, equated with sound, and an integral part of classroom participation, in that teachers can stimulate and promote students' self-exploration and self-directed learning through being more attentive to silence. Although the work with this system in Flanders' interaction analysis contributes to understanding of some important features of a process of learning in classroom, the validity of this pre-determined observation is questionable for dealing with different communicative contexts. Classroom interaction is a complex of socially-shared learning processes and may contain a number of other non-verbal expressions other than silence or confusion; thus, this analysis of pre-categorised observation alone seems insufficient. In addition, it does not seem to explain itself in real-time, and situates learning processes of meaning-making and knowledge construction in student and student interaction. Along with Flanders' interaction analysis, another system, the COLT, has been developed to capture differences in L2 classroom interaction in a variety of settings. The COLT

system refers to Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching and was first introduced by Allen, Spada and Fröhlich in 1984.

This system was designed within a research project in which observers investigated the nature of L2 language proficiency and its development in classrooms. The observers wish to systematically describe whether instruction that was communicatively-oriented contributed differently to L2 development. The scheme is divided into two parts. The first part, A, describes classroom events considering each activity and its constituent episode, time spent on the various COLT features, participants' organisation, content, students' involvement in their learning, the uses of students' skills, and materials; while the second part, B, analyses the communicative features of verbal exchange between teachers and student. In later years, verbal exchange between student and student as group work is suggested as representing a communicative classroom (Spada & Fröhlich 1995). The reasons for this are, first, that students in a group are encouraged to focus on negotiation of meaning, rather than accuracy of their utterance; second, L2 students show willingness to take initiative turns more than when working with a teacher in second language classrooms (Rulon & McCreary 1986). Third, group work in L2 classrooms may create a relaxed atmosphere, so it would reduce communication anxiety and help students to feel more secure in speaking up, rather than when in front of the whole class (Foster, 1998, Dörnyei, and Murphy, 2003). An individual student in a group might get more opportunity to speak in their own way. Although in recent years the system has been developed in more complex ways in order to enable observation and classification of various characteristics of classroom interaction, again the system alone still seems insufficient.

To summarise this section, we can say that systems-based observation in interaction analysis does attempt to find out a number of differences in each system by starting with simple categories and then developing more complicated ones. Any attempt to analyse classroom interaction using the interaction analysis approach seems to inherit a number of limitations. First, observers rely on their initiative assumptions about process learning. The assumptions are thus pre-determined, so it is difficult to deal with interactions that do not fit the prescribed categories. Second, observers or practitioners in interaction analysis do not examine actual behaviours in the classroom; rather they seem to take account of their interpretation of the events or the teacher's perspective only, not including the students' perspectives. Third, observers working in other countries may view the same event, such as silence, in different

ways, or even two observers may see it differently. Thus, it can be difficult to deal with contextual differences in the same way using this system. In the final section of this chapter, I review the Conversation Analysis approach to analysing classroom interaction.

3.3 Conversation Analysis

The Conversation Analysis (commonly abbreviated as CA) approach in research is primarily focused on social interaction, emerging in a study in sociology in the late 1960s (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974). Social interaction is the primordial domain of human sociality (Schegloff, 1996). It is “meaningful for those who produce them and they have a natural organization that can be discovered and analyzed by close examination” (Psathas, 1995). Heritage and Clayman (2009: 14) state that:

CA consistently and insistently asks a single question about any action (or indeed any component of any action); CA examines what the action does in relation to the preceding action(s), and what it projects about the succeeding action(s).

Under this view, CA is informed by analysis of the sequential structure of interaction. This interaction is determined by context-shaped, context-renewing and building blocks of inter-subjectivity. That is, speakers’ organisation of interaction concerns the relative positioning of coherent, orderly and meaningful succession. A speaker who produces subsequent actions can show understanding of the prior utterance by an action of a particular nature of talk at a multiplicity of levels. For example, if the action relates to doing an assessment in the prior turn, there may be an agreement or disagreement to follow it (Schegloff, 2007).

This section begins with the ethno-methodological inspiration of CA, key concepts in CA and major features of CA research in institutional settings, which together play a fundamental role in the present study.

3.3.1 Ethno-methodology and CA

CA is developed from the early work of a group of American sociologists, so it originated outside the field of linguistics, during the 1960s and 1970s. Early CA analysts, such as Sacks,

Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), were originally influenced by Garfinkel's "ethno-methodology" (1967). Ethno-methodology is the study of common-sense knowledge that people use to understand situations in which they find themselves (Heritage, 2005). Thus, ethno-methodologists are real studies answering 'how' interaction contributes to the construction of social order, which extends far beyond any given analysable interaction (Heller & Martin-Jones, 2001).

One of the key points of the theory of ethno-methods, or social facts, is to be found from Garfinkel's (1967) and Goffmann's work on interaction order (Goffmann, 1959, cited in Drew & Wootton, 1995). Garfinkel's account is primarily "reflexively accountable": people in society or members (accounts) are engaged in making sense of the world, and can engage in logical explanations of their understanding of it (Garfinkel 1967: vii). CA takes the view of "ethno-methodological indifferences"; that is, that ethno-methodological analysts reject prior theories. In other words, analysts should not assume a "problem of relevance"; rather, they are concerned with the orientation of participants' dialogue. Schegloff (1992: 192) points out that demonstration of the participants' relevant context, in which their actions are embedded, is important, as it might explain the function of particular actions.

Although the two approaches, ethno-methodology and CA, have the same stem, they could be seen to bifurcate. The theory of ethno-methodology was not developed independently using empirical data. It does not employ the "scientific" treatment of data, but prefers the "common sense way" in practical exercises. In contrast, CA claims a core scientific and logical approach, using empirical data to attempt to make sense of society (Sacks, 1984a).

For example, Garfinkel (1967) proposed a set of "breaching" experiments to break the rules of unstated social roles, in order to see how people dealt with intentional interruption to their taken-for-granted routine; that which we feel we 'know' and in which we can be 'at home' (e.g. you don't have to ask permission to use the toilet in your own home). For him, the breaching experiments are fundamentally "aids to a sluggish imagination". His study did not, however, seem to show participants' sense of mutual understanding in a natural context, and they remained the 'special' situation constructed by the researcher. Some researchers try to tackle this problem by using the conventional ethnographic methods, e.g. mixed observation and interviews; however, the main problem remains that "analysis is based on the researcher's own account", rather than the actual situation (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2002). On the other hand, the

CA approach is based on actual recorded data of naturally occurring interactions; “details of actual events” (Sacks, 1984a: 26), and is transcribed in detail carefully. The interaction is collected by audio-/video-recordings, where the participants physically co-present, rather than data in which the details of behaviour will be lost, e.g. note-taking. Thus it offers authenticity, rich details of conversation and qualitative micro-structural data. Although CA research was originally based on ordinary conversations, it has now been developed in relation to a wide range of data corpora; e.g. questionnaires, interviews, participants’ commentary, self reports and diaries.

3.3.2 Institutional Conversation Analysis

Most of the early work in CA focused on ‘ordinary conversation’, unconfined to specialised settings or specific tasks. This tradition of CA involves identifying particular interaction and how the action is located and shaped within the institution of interaction. In contrast, the studies of institutional CA as a means of analysing institutions of dialogue first emerged with Atkinson’s and Drew’s courtroom interaction, “order in court” (1979). Institutional CA often focuses on the restriction of participants’ contributions and how interaction is shaped by institution- and activity-specific inferential frameworks (Drew & Heritage, 1992).

As institutional CA developed in the late 1970s, some basic features underlie the interaction: a) orientations to institutional tasks and functions; b) restrictions on the kinds of contributions to the talk that are, or can be, made; and c) distinctive features of interactional inferences (Drew and Heritage, 1992). These concepts are directly linked to the study of institutional settings, where participants often engage in institutional tasks or functions that are related to instructional goals and aims. Unlike ordinary conversation, institutional dialogue is organised jointly between each part of the interaction in disciplinary settings. Institutional CA uses the basic assumption of CA as a resource to understand social institutions that includes a more complex network of meaning of power, social ideology, intellection innovation, and other factors involving processes of social changes (Heritage, 2005).

Heritage’s (2005) and Benwell’s & Stokoe’s (2002: 2006) studies of institutional CA suggest that exploring each part of interaction, e.g. in more extended turns, is needed in institutional settings, in order to see more complex, distinctive or dynamic features with regard to the learning process. In addition, participant contributions can be constrained in institutional

contexts. In more formal settings, interactions can be shaped by people who have power, which indeed they can sometimes legally enforce, e.g. a judge in a courtroom (Atkinson and Drew, 1979), or in other settings where it can be oriented to the more local and negotiable, e.g. a doctor-patient interaction in a surgery (Frankel, 1990), or a teacher-student interaction in a school (Benwell & Stokoe, 2002).

Drew (2004) has recently highlighted the four key concepts in institutional CA: turn-taking, turn design, social actions and sequential orders of interaction. These concepts are important to investigate the nature of classroom interaction by exploring details of participants' social behaviours, or patterns of sequential order of interaction. Thus it is important to provide details.

Turn-taking

Since Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974) first conducted a seminal investigation of turn-taking organisation in conversations, *turn-taking* has been treated as a fundamental resource in conversation. The turn-taking system consists of three components (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990): i) the turn constructional units (TCUs); ii) the turn allocational component as speaker selection techniques; iii) a rule set. A turn can be constructed out of turn constructional units, which are defined as linguistic units, e.g. a single word, sentence, clause, phrase or other lexical construction, that provide places for possible turn-transition. The types of linguistic units are grammatically and pragmatically complete units that can be recognised as social actions in a particular context (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974). Schegloff (1996) mentions that TCUs also comprise non-verbal behaviours; for example, gesture is co-organised with the talk that it regularly accompanies. A turn can also be made by members who build TCUs and speak one at a time, usually for varying lengths of time. Turn allocational components describe how turns are transferred between the current speaker and the next speaker in a conversation. McDonough and Shaw (1993: 156) stress that “within the ‘framework’ of the conversation, ‘turns’ have to take place if the conversation is not to be totally one-sided”. Sacks et al. (1974) note that, for turn allocation, there are three possible options at the end of TCU: i) current speaker selects next speaker; ii) next speaker self-selects as next; or iii) current speaker continues. Finally, a rule set that orders options for action at points of possible transition. For example, an initial speaker can extend their talk if there is no co-participant self-selected as the next speaker.

In teacher-student/student-student interaction in the writing classroom, turn-taking systems are

an important feature for the identity. It would see teacher and student/student and student, interrupt, hold and pass turns in the interaction. It offers us opportunities to observe how teachers help to support students' opportunity for learning, and/or how teachers help students to talk without breakdown. It also offers opportunities to see how participants negotiate their talk within a particular framework.

Turn design

The second fundamental concept in conversation analysis is "turn design". Schegloff (2007) studied what goes into a turn in natural conversations finding that, when looking closely at how to close a conversation, speakers tend to design their turns to rely on actions needed in the conversation: e.g. to deal with the closing problem, the last speaker can opt to stay silent rather than give relevant information directly. The basic rule – one person talking at a time – helps conversation to take place smoothly. However, when more than one person talks at a time in conversation, people's turn design or management is much more complex. In this situation, people sometimes try to overlap or interrupt in a conversation, and as a result they break the turn-taking rule (Schegloff, 2007).

In teacher-student/student-student interaction in rewriting conferences, this turn design system may help to observe teacher and student/student and student(s') reactions, or some kind of turn management. Teachers tend to depend a great deal on elicitation, repair and speech modification strategies. In second language classrooms, teachers often pause or slow down their speed of talking to enhance their quality of speech; use model language for appropriate pronunciation; intonation, consonant sounds, vowel sounds and stress to represent particular functions of voices; and use facial expressions and gestures to help students' understanding of meaning. Teachers also ensure students' understanding within the class.

Drew and Heritage (1992) mention that speakers' structures are associated with specific identities. Special vocabularies can be found in the specific institutional context, as such vocabularies can reveal special knowledge and institutional identities (Drew and Heritage, 1992). For example, there are many ways to formulate a reference to "I, we, and you" (Schegloff, 1996c). While many speakers use the form of self-reference, such as "I", "we," or listener "you", interactants could use the third person, which includes pronouns, proper names, specific titles, and so on; e.g. the teacher's title "Sir/Miss or Madam" is often used rather than their actual name. Fortanet (2004) identifies the use of first and second person pronouns by

speakers and writers in academic discourse in the classroom setting. “We” is frequently used as representation and meta-discourse in academic speech, rather than other pronouns such as “I” and “you”. The results imply that a person’s reference may be used differently in an academic context; e.g. between native speakers and non-native speakers (see Rowley-Jolivet and Thomas, 2005). Within this analysis, it is possible to see whether there is any connection between personal or group identity and lexical choice. This could lead us to the discovery of any possible strategic use of a specific language; e.g. elicitation, repair and speech modification.

With regard to repair strategy, error correction is very important in second language learning context, but small group work formats in L2 classrooms appear to deal with content problems or negotiation of meaning, rather than focusing on accuracy in their utterances (Foster, 1998).

Social actions

The third concept in CA draws attention to social actions rather than just talk. CA analysts attempt to explicate the relevance of the participants to the interaction. For example, in spoken teacher feedback interaction, the concept of power relations can be a priority for analysing the relevance of the teacher-pupil interaction, while more equal relations between student and student(s’) are expected in peer feedback interaction.

Institutional interaction is characterised as asymmetrical relationships (Drew and Heritage, 1992). One common feature in the teacher-learner classroom interaction setting is not different from asymmetrical rights to knowledge or power. Their roles are not equal: teachers may control the lesson and change their topics and tasks based on their work plan (Benwell & Stokoe, 2002). In other words, teachers hold authority or power: they control most interactions that they manage, they develop topics and they also direct most student responses. In Benwell’s and Stokoe’s study (2002), in higher education tutorial sessions, the teachers controlled the pattern of the interaction, e.g. a three-part sequence in the opening, which is thought to be a crucial component in the educative process: the teachers *propose* the project for the future task; they *express* some contextual details and justify the limits of the task ahead; and then *orientate* to what is happening now. Although teachers mainly control the teaching agenda, teachers often invite student contributions as they may be challenged by the task. On the other hand, students are no longer passive listeners, though they do not possess equal levels of control interaction. Rather, they tend to negotiate meaning with their teacher through resistance, which

itself indicates current academic or intellectual identities. Their study shows the complexity of the negotiation process in terms of interactional power concerning the politeness strategies; e.g. “face”.

In Stokoe’s (2000) study, the teacher’s voice is also concerned with task orientation. She found that the teacher’s voice in small groups initially focuses on task orientation immediately, or shifts between topics of conversation before “getting down to business”, as this particular interaction is attentive to the pedagogic purpose for the construction of co-ownership of the classroom discourse through goal-oriented classroom activities. The study suggests that teacher talking time may not be as important as people used to think, and “teacher talk is understood and adjusted according to teaching/learning objectives at a given moment and by recognising that any lesson is made up of a number of contexts, not one” (Walsh, 2003: 125).

The studies above cover current higher education identities concerning task-based discussions; however, they do not show how language teachers support or develop ways of student thinking regarding developments of EAP student draft essays. How teachers open the class or engage in the task in EAP writing conferences is important as it deals with how teachers and students co-construct and negotiate meaning. It offers a glimpse of how these co-construction strategies contribute to the development of student thinking with regard to students’ written work. Thus, investigating the details of spoken teacher/peer feedback interaction allows us to see the participants’ roles and their social identity or relationships, and the use of a particular structure, whilst teacher and student are engaged in discussion activities regarding student writing.

Through looking at participants’ social action, CA could find interesting issues or solutions by looking at other classroom interaction; e.g. teacher-led or peer interaction.

When looking at social action, the politeness strategy is often found in the interaction. The principles of politeness are derived originally from pragmatics in philosophy, where analysis was initiated from the speech act theory. The consideration of the properties of indirect speech was developed into alternative speech forms by Brown and Levinson (1987). Politeness is based on the notion of face: “the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself” (1987: 61).

Brown and Levinson believe that people want to maintain their own face and that of others, too,

though they are often forced to commit face-threatening acts in unplanned interaction. Thus, politeness strategies may involve thinking about a listener's feelings, to avoid embarrassment or feeling uncomfortable when face-threatening acts are inevitable or even planned. Brown and Levinson develop face strategies in that there are two related and universal wants: negative face and positive face: "the desire to be unimpeded in one's actions (negative face) and the desire (in some respects) to be approved of (positive face)" (1987: 13). In their view, the notion of face can be described within this universal model.

However, there has been an interesting debate about the universality of their politeness principles, and the ability to identify them because of culturally different values. For example, in Lynch's and Anderson's study (1988), during student discussions, there was no case of interruption by other native-speakers, and just 3% interruption by non-native speakers. Impressively, all of the native speakers knew what was and was not polite in the context. This finding suggests that interruption is no doubt culturally determined. Another study, by Chen (1993), found some extreme cross-cultural differences, where two groups of American English speakers and Mandarin Chinese speakers were found to use largely different politeness strategies. Regarding responding to compliments, while American English speakers tended to accept compliments, Mandarin Chinese tended to reject compliments. The findings of this study suggest some inadequacies of Brown's and Levinson's (1987) universal politeness, since it does not seem to explain all strategies used by the two different cultural groups. Although there were some general concepts and dimensions of politeness that are shared by Chinese and English speakers, they used different politeness strategies (Yu, 2003); the findings of the cross-cultural studies thus indicate that culture plays a very important role when analysing the issue of speech act universality.

Different theoretical models of politeness have been proposed regarding variations in compliment response. For example, Pomerantz (1984a) points out that there are two conversational principles which govern the act of compliment responses: the recipients agree with and/or accept compliments, and the recipients avoid self-praise. Pomerantz classified some ways of compliment responses: acceptance (appreciation and agreement), rejection (disagreement) and avoidance of self-praise (reassessment and return). In his study of agreement and disagreement, the author found that agreement or acceptance is more straightforward and faster than disagreement, which is delayed and mitigated in a variety of ways. The consequences of responses are more likely to be outcomes of the sequence (Schegloff,

2007). Along with these responsive actions, pre-sequence and sequence-initial actions are also components of preference organisation and contribute to a specific outcome; hence, the analysis is from a CA perspective.

Within CA analysis, interaction in social actions is an important strategic/sequential dimension of social contexts (Heritage, 2005). Especially, in applied linguistics it has analysed how such principles function within speakers' and hearers' educational and social contexts. Research on this is observational, empirical and analytical.

In the present study, despite the debate of the cultural dimension, within a CA perspective the politeness approach can usefully shed light on comprehensive descriptions of non-native classroom interaction among peers during the discussion, and asymmetrical features of interactions between teachers and students in teacher-student conferences. We can also focus particularly on teacher-student and peers' roles and identity, especially how peers shift their roles from peer tutor to peer tutee, and how they construct or negotiate with each other during peer feedback; e.g. role construction and its negotiation, when accepting, rejecting or challenging each others' views.

Sequential order of interaction

The final concept of CA is the sequential order of interaction, which focuses on how actions are ordered in conversation. In the interaction, turns may be organised sequentially with "special relatedness" between adjacent utterances, which is called the adjacency pair. Talks occur sequentially in responsive pairs, but they can be extended over the sequence of the turns (Schegloff, 2007). Ideally, a basic rule for the occurrence of pairs is that two parts should be produced next to each other by different speakers: e.g. question-answer, greeting-greeting, invitation-response (acceptance or declination), offer-refusal, request-acceptance, and complaint-excuse. Within this adjacency pair framework, each participant's action in interactional events must be analysed to produce appropriate understanding of reciprocal action, though it can be adaptable to analyse much broader and more loosely specified actions (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990).

In particular, classroom discourse is largely dominated by question and answer. Teachers and students implicitly follow the rule that the teacher asks questions and the student should answer these questions. As mentioned in an earlier chapter, the function of the teacher's enquiry is an

important component for classroom interaction researchers. Through looking at extending the structure of the adjacency pair, observers can uncover the ways of using teachers' questions in relation to goal-oriented activity. .

3.3.3 Limitation of CA approach

Although the CA approach is able to deal with and greatly enhance a fuller understanding of what happened in the real classroom interaction, a number of limitations have been found.

-Limitation of the data selection

One big criticism of the CA approach is how researchers selectively choose the data within a whole interaction for analysis. From a CA point of view, researchers using a CA approach require recording data that is not only available for repeated observation, (re)analysis, but also for public observation. With random selection of the data in an unmotivated and desultory way, researchers consider and arrive with a particular problem and its solution.

-Limitation of the validity of findings' data:

CA researchers and practitioners tend to devote to discussion specific issues using empirical data; e.g. naturally occurring recorded data. The use of very restricted empirical data is often seen as a limitation to the validity of the findings' data. However, focusing on context specific and narrow context data does not mean that their findings are not valid. From a CA point of view, this can be a strong point for pedagogical research, as much classroom interaction research aims to improve understanding of 'what happened' in a specific context, and to facilitate the findings to other contexts. Although the findings cannot be generalised, with the complexity of the classroom process, their resources are evidence of the actuality and observably produced, rather than the prejudged, uncovering hidden meanings (ten Have, 1999).

To summarise, there are fundamental features of the CA approach to analysing L2 classroom interaction.

- Ordinary spoken interaction was a fundamental resource for CA analysis. However, a number of studies are constantly showing their interest in specialised social institutions which embody goal- or role-orientated specialisation (Drew and Heritage, 1992). In the language classroom, all participants relate to pedagogical goals and tasks.

- The approach insists on the use of recorded data that is strictly empirical. It represents infinitely richer resources of what people actually do in the real world, rather than what can be imagined or invented (Sacks, 1992).
- Social interaction is informed by institutionalised structural organisation of interactional practices, with reference to sociological and psychological characteristics of the participants. A great deal of interaction is better examined with respect to action and deed (Schegloff, 2007).
- CA approach is premised on three features: context-shaped, context-renewing and building blocks of inter-subjectivity.
- CA approach accounts for particularised and multiplexes of “structures” in social actions. CA work avoids premature and idealised theory construction. Rather, CA work is in favour of the empirical identification of diverse structures of practices (Atkinson and Heritage, 1984).

3.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have tried to draw relevant approaches to analysing classroom interaction: Discourse Analysis, as the structure of conversational exchange known as IRF; Initiation, Response and Feedback (Follow-up); and Conversation Analysis (CA), including Members Categorisation Analysis and the theory of Politeness Strategies. As can be seen from the above sections, Discourse Analysis, especially in terms of the IRF provision of information on how teachers’ and students’ talk is exchanged, is useful, although it seems to provide limited information about ‘how’ the interaction can be facilitated, which can lead to observing participants’ various ways of negotiated and shared behaviours. Conversation Analysis (CA) appears to offer a practical approach for investigating classroom interaction research, because it starts by looking at the details of interaction as social behaviours, and considers its interpretations (Wei, 2002). For this study, it could be useful to use the combined resources of the two approaches (CA-informed methodology) in order to understand how learning occurs. Not only does this methodology deal adequately with structures of interactional exchanges by considering pedagogical discourse, through which we can see how teachers draw students’ attention, or encourage participation in interaction, it also deals with high levels of complexity in dynamic interaction, and pays more attention to how teachers help learners to make meaningful contributions through looking at turn-taking systems. It allows us to observe

potential pedagogical feedback interactions. Also, the method informs politeness strategies, which enable us to observe participants' behaviours by looking at their social actions turn-by-turn, carefully. Through analysing the actual interactions—which are not the interactions originally planned and foreseen, therefore not of the researcher's own plan—it is possible to relate social behaviours to authentic pedagogic issues in the present context of educational settings. The main features of CA-informed methodology lie in how it shows exactly what takes place in real situations, and how it provides evidence by which we can analyse the role of the teacher/student in classroom interaction. Furthermore, it allows engagement with professional development in L2 academic literacy instructions, through teaching exchanges, interpretations, understanding of events and evaluations in interactive processes. We will return to this methodology in Chapter 4 in order to draw out more practical issues in the present study, and to address the research questions clearly.

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodological framework, directly related to the practical points in the present study. The chapter consists of four sections: section 4.1 presents the context of the research with student/teacher participation groups and their activities. This is followed by selected methods in section 4.2. In terms of the methods of data collection and data analysis, a CA-informed methodology is employed as the main approach in order to gain rich information. Section 4.3 concludes this chapter.

4.1 Research context

The aim of the research is to investigate the nature of teacher-student/peer interaction during teacher-student/peer writing conferences in a UK university, in order to understand the joint knowledge construction processes of teacher-student/peer interaction in writing conferences, and to discuss interactional features (which shape teacher-student/peer talk), and then to provide implications for future teaching practices. As mentioned in the previous chapters, for EAP international students, this presents an important challenge in improving academic writing skills, as writing is considered as a socially and culturally embedded action. Feedback is seen as a recursive nature of the composing process that can help student writers to identify their strengths and weaknesses and to take responsibility for their academic growth towards becoming autonomous learners (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Brown and Knight, 1999). While spoken teacher/peer feedback, where there is potential for meaning and interpretations to be constantly negotiated, has been widely practiced in the writing classroom, there still is not a comprehensive idea of the dynamic nature of feedback interactions in L2 writing classrooms. Thus, my study's aim is to explore the nature of feedback interaction by observing L2 student writers' active participation and knowledge construction, through looking at teacher-student and student-student writing conferences.

4.1.1 Rationale for the context

This study used an actual situation in a local context (Brown & Rogers, 2002); that is, EAP courses, especially writing classrooms in a UK university. The rationale for focusing on this particular research context is twofold: it informs my interest as a researcher, and it also informs my personal interest as an international learner in higher education. Both interests are informed by learning more about spoken teacher/peer feedback in the EAP writing programme. In order to investigate this phenomenon, I first conducted a pilot research on whether there were any

pedagogic benefits to be derived from teacher feedback through real interactions. This question led me to observe the nature of interactive feedback in an EAP writing class through various instruments: semi-structured interviews with the student participants, classroom observations, face-to-face teacher feedback interactions, and reflective student journals after feedback. The research concludes that there is clear evidence that the teacher's dialogues with L2 student writers tend to co-construct the ideas of students and support them to solve the problems which they encounter. Despite valuable results, the amount of interaction data collected was small, as it was collected from one class only, with limited opportunities for detailed investigation. To collect a larger amount of data required a more thorough investigation of the details of classroom interaction. Thus, in the present context, three different levels of EAP courses were chosen in order to observe sufficient evidence, rather than compare the three courses.

The second reason for this study is my personal interest as an international second language learner and a university student. I had had experience of learning on an EAP programme myself before I studied at a British university; but, nevertheless, when in the UK, I struggled to write essays, as the writing conventions in English for Academic Purposes were very different from those used in my country and educational culture.

As a result, my aim as a sole researcher was to attempt to uncover L2 students' difficulties and social behaviours, which might reflect my own experience at the same stage. In my experience as an EAP student, I am interested in a greater depth of understanding in the academic convention issues that similar students encounter in the writing classroom, and how they solve their problems. An added interest comes from my role as a teacher: I taught primary school students and primary school teachers—including English Language Teaching—in Korea for 14 years. As a teacher, I am, therefore, also interested in communicative approaches to learning, which may inform the professional development and good practice of teachers in my own country.

Thus, the present research is interested not only in the nature of interaction during teacher/peer feedback activities, but professional development in higher education as a whole that would benefit from writing pedagogy and academic literacy development. The rationale for using this particular approach reflects my desire to examine the characteristics of the nature of face-to-face interaction of both teacher feedback and peer feedback.

4.1.2 Research participants

The research participants in this study included three writing teachers and 24 EAP students in pre-sessional writing classrooms in higher education at a UK university. In addition, as Heritage (2005:104) points out, the interaction between teacher and student, and between student and student(s), would be expected to contribute to “the execution of particular tasks”. The present study is also specialised or restricted in the ‘institutional’ context to the discourse in feedback activities.

Student participant group:

For spoken teacher/peer feedback observation, the group of student participants were from three English Language courses in an EAP programme at Oxford Brookes University in the UK: i) an International Foundation Diploma (IFD); ii) a Foundation Diploma in Liberal of Arts (FDLA); and iii) a Graduation Preparation Diploma (GPD). A total of 28 non-native students agreed to take part in the research, but actual participants were 24. Breakdowns by nations per course were:

- i) IFD course (total 7): Ukraine (1), Pakistan (1), Italy (1), China (1), France (1) and Japan (2).
- ii) FDLA course (total 9): Brazil (2), Cyprus (1), Jordan (2), Mexico (1), Latvia (1), South Africa (1) and Zimbabwe (1).
- iii) GPD course (total 8): China (5), Japan (2) and Korea (1).

The courses were designed for international students wishing to develop their knowledge and use of English for Academic Purposes, as preparation for studies in English-speaking countries. The IFD and FDLA students were preparing for undergraduate degrees, while the GPD students were preparing for Master’s degrees in various subjects, e.g. business or business related subjects, hotel and restaurant management, law, social sciences, art, publishing, music and languages. The GPD course students who had already gained a first degree were mostly mature students. The entry English requirements for the IFD, FDLA and GPD groups in the study were IELTS 5.0, with a minimum of 5.0 in all skills / TOEFL 500 (173) for the first level, IELTS 6.5 with a minimum of IELTS 6.0 on all sub scores / TOEFL 575 (233) for the second level. and IELTS 5.5 with a minimum of IELTS 5.0 in reading and writing/ TOEFL 525 (193) for the third. Although three courses had different levels of English proficiency entry requirements, the present study does not intend to compare or contrast among these courses.

Rather, the study intends to collect a range of empirical examples from them. The school ran various modular programmes; I chose to focus especially on the writing module in three courses as their writing tasks were similar. Each participant had a writing task and these were similar across the three courses; i.e. the individual participant could choose her/his own topic. At the end of the semester they were expected to produce a 3,000 word essay on their own. The following table shows writing tasks for each course.

Table 1: Writing task for each course

Course	Writing Task
IFD	To write a 3,000 word written report on a topic of your choice within your subject specialist area and intended field of undergraduate study.
FDLA	
GPD	To write a 3,000 word written project reflecting independent research on a topic relevant to your intended field of postgraduate study.

With the writing module in three EAP courses, the students who experienced various difficulties in managing their linguistic knowledge for study purposes were expected to be familiar with British culture and to develop English skills within a range of other modules, e.g. listening, reading, speaking research skills and an integrated undergraduate module (for the GPD course only).

Teacher participants and feedback activities:

There were three different female native teachers amongst the participants: Rose (T1), Tania (T2) and Amy (T3) (real names withheld). They had all been teaching English for 10 years or more and had all taught English outside the UK. Regarding feedback activities, three teachers in three writing classrooms from IFD, FDLA and GPD courses had a quite similar approach: three teachers adopted a process writing approach. In this process, student writers were involved in various stages; for example, planning, revising, re-reading, re-producing drafts, feedback practices and final editing. Particularly while student writers were producing multiple drafts before the final draft, the students had feedback activities, such as written teacher feedback, teacher-student writing conferences (spoken teacher feedback), and student-student writing conferences (spoken peer feedback). The teachers asked students to submit a minimum of two drafts to the teachers. Three EAP teachers in this study seemed to spend a great proportion of their time responding to and commenting on student writing. After they had

commented on individual papers through written feedback, these written comments were followed up with an opportunity for each student to discuss their draft face-to-face with their teacher.

With regard to teacher-student writing conferences (spoken teacher feedback), each student was allocated a 15-minute slot for this discussion. When the feedback interaction took place, the teacher and student would sit closely together in the classroom or the teacher's study room. The teachers brought the student drafts to the meeting with written comments to discuss with the student, but in some cases the students had already been given the written comments a week before, which they brought with them to the meeting. The three teachers sometimes provided additional discussion sessions when the students requested them, or when the teacher felt they were needed.

With regard to student-student writing conferences (spoken peer feedback), the three teachers had discussion time with the whole class before the actual feedback activity began. The teachers demonstrated how to give comments on student writing and what kinds of things would be provided/received. They provided students with a guidance sheet, with each having different contents in student-student writing conferences. In IFD and FDLA courses the mark sheet had the same contents, which were divided into three parts: Linguistic, Content and Technical. These parts were also broken down into smaller categories (peers could tick according to small categories, or they could write their opinions); in the GPD course, meanwhile, the sheet was divided into three columns: introduction, body and conclusion, and students could make comments on the sheet. The three teachers asked them to read other student(s') essays for 30 minutes to 1 hour and to comment on these on a guided sheet, but recommended that they write their opinions rather than give a mark. The groups were given 30 minutes to complete the student-student writing conferences.

Considering group formation, all three teachers created small learning groups. They assigned students to groups based on their future study or topic, although this did not fit exactly. The size of groups were from two (a pair) to four students per group.

The next section is about a selected method, which includes the data collection procedure, data transcription and research questions.

4.2 A selected method

4.2.1 A Conversation Analysis-informed methodology

For this study, as pointed out in Chapter 2, two approaches – institutional Conversation Analysis (CA) and Discourse Analysis (DA) – can be helpful in understanding how learning can occur in teacher-student/student-student interaction during EAP writing conferences. This research will primarily be informed by institutional CA, but it will also receive assistance from DA. The combination of the two approaches is useful for this study: on the one hand, the CA approach is a qualitative method that allows the researcher to obtain rich authentic evidence of micro-structural data – “details of actual events” (Sacks, 1984a: 26) – to find out what really happens in spoken teacher/peer feedback activities. In addition, institutional CA enables us to understand social phenomena in a holistic way, based on actual recorded data of naturally-occurring interactions, looking at turn-taking, turn design, social actions and sequential order of interaction (Drew and Heritage, 1992).

On the other hand, the research will be informed by the DA approach, which deals with teaching exchanges on how teachers encourage learners to make meaningful contributions, through asking questions, responses, giving comments, etc. The investigation of this study thus includes a number of interactional strategies; for example, the use of questions, the control of interaction (teaching approaches), and strategies such as repair, speech modification strategies, scaffolding strategies, and so on.

The data collected is developed along the lines of a detailed transcription system with a highly empirical orientation. As transcripts facilitate intensive analytical consideration with selective episodes, transcription enables the analysts and other readers to have transparent access to the data content. It is to be noted that transcriptions cannot represent the recorded materials in full; rather, they are necessarily selective. Furthermore, selective transcripts can be followed by the researcher’s analysis and afford researchers an opportunity for deeper consideration. The study aims to capture a richness of details with regard to classroom interaction, and to apply a CA-informed methodology to maximise understanding of interaction and learning in real world situations and authentic findings.

4.2.2 Data Collection procedures

4.2.2.1 Ethical Considerations

The notion of "public" students' activity

As expected, there was an ethical issue in students being asked to 'go public' with regard to their studies. It is central for the researcher to maintain an ethical stance towards informing participants that their activity will be the subject of an analysis. The project was discussed with them in the first instance: first, an information sheet was displayed on the notice board in the Language department, so that all members of staff and students would know about the research project. Then, three writing instructors in the EAP programme were introduced to the project: the aim, lengths and outline of the overall design of the study and the research methods were discussed with them.

Requirements for informed consent from participants

The students were provided with an information sheet (see Appendix I: participant information sheet) and were told that their feedback activities would be video-/audio-recorded and that draft essays/internet interactions (if they had any) would be copied. They were also asked to read the information sheet carefully before they decided to take part in or consent to the research. Participation was entirely voluntary and participants were still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason (see Appendix II: A consent form). All the participants had a right of consent (or conversely *veto*) to the research.

Video-/audio-recordings

With regard to the video-recordings, these enable us to provide dense and accurate information, making materials available for careful analysis. These types of recordings as collectors of data free the researchers from the constraints of real time, and allow more intensive analysis of intonation (McDonough & McDonough, 1997). In the research of L2 speakers, especially those who have limited linguistic capacity, visual information may be useful to identify their potential problems, other paralinguistic cues and participants' gestures, facial expressions, other visual cues, and so on (Gass & Houck, 1999). As a video camera can be distracting and possibly invite exhibitionist, or, conversely, overly shy or other forms of self-conscious behaviour, I as a sole researcher simply set up the recording apparatus and tried to leave the room. In this way, the discussion was recorded automatically with minimal departure from

normal procedure.

Video-/audio-recordings were made when teacher/peer feedback activities occurred. The recording time varied with regard to feedback activities. The members of each peer group (pair/three to four students) were provided with room for discussion, with the aim of gathering clearly accessible data. In the event, to get clear sound from two or three peer group feedbacks in a single room was almost impossible, even with a very good quality video recorder with microphones. In contrast to the human ear, machines tend not to capture overlapping sounds clearly. Face-to-face teacher feedback (teacher and student conferences or oral teacher feedback), on the other hand, were held in the teacher's office, or a classroom in a quiet area.

4.2.2.2 Data collection

The data collected was naturally occurring empirical data. As the first step of the present study, two kinds of classroom interaction during writing conferences were collected over a period of approximately six months: i) video- and audio-recordings of interactions; and ii) written materials. Interactions as primary data to be specifically analysed were made so as to record “whatever can be heard or seen by its receptors” (ten Have, 2001) from EAP courses, with special emphasis on different feedback activities:

i) Video- and audio-recordings of interactions

Video-/audio-recordings captured and recorded the natural sequencing:

- Spoken teacher feedback (teacher-student conferences)
- Spoken peer feedback (student-student conferences)

24 non-native students took part in the research and recordings of 32 spoken feedback sessions and 9 peer feedback sessions were made. Some students had spoken teacher feedback twice (see Appendix III: Number of recordings – more details of each session recording time, nationality, topic, draft information). Table 2 shows a brief introduction of data collection.

Table 2: Data collection

Class	Number of spoken teacher feedback sessions (recording time)	Number of peer feedback sessions (recording time)
IFD	10	3
FDLA	11	3
GPD	11	3
Total	32 (10h)	9 (2h 48m)

Each session of spoken teacher/peer feedback (writing conferences) was recorded over a period of approximately six months. The number of spoken teacher feedback sessions for each of the three teachers was similar: 10 sessions for one, and 11 sessions for each of the other two: 32 teachers' spoken feedback sessions in all. Each feedback session between teacher and student in this corpus ranged widely in duration: between 9 minutes and 52 minutes, but the average length of time devoted to this feedback session was around 18 minutes. The length of recordings in teacher-student interaction stood at approximately 10 hours. On the other hand, the number of spoken peer feedback sessions was recorded: 3 from IFD, 3 from FDLA, and 3 from GPD: 9 spoken peer feedback sessions in all. The length of recordings in peer interaction was 2 hours and 48 minutes. Total length of recordings of both feedback sessions was approximately 12 hours 48 minutes. (See Appendix III: Number of recordings).

ii) Written materials

On the other hand, data derived from written work, used as backup data, was comprised of students' first or second draft essays. These were not analysed, but used as evidence for interaction (in recording data, if the participants point to a certain sentence in the student draft essay and say "this", then we may not understand to what "this" refers). As the analysis is dealing with more complex concerns, it was difficult to map behaviours solely by looking at interaction data. Unlike interaction data, written work will not be treated as primary data in this study, but it enables us to gain a better understanding of the feedback interaction, as participant talks were based on students' draft essays.

The data was collected mainly during the second semester because the syllabus of the three courses was similar, in that they tended to focus on research skills and to lead to students' producing an essay on their own. However, as can be seen, each course had its own educational context with different study interests for each student participant. Therefore, each student's essay topic was different, making the act of sharing issues quite significant in terms of information exchange.

4.2.2.3 Data transcription and other preparation of records of interaction

Transcription of video/audio

During repeated and intensive listening to my recorded data, I took large quantities of notes,

under the rubrics of: “how might students explore or articulate their ideas through talk”, and “what strategies or approaches teachers used might support students’ learning opportunities?” After careful scrutiny of my notes, I noted acts of co-construction of meaning between teacher and student during conferences. These acts were composed of an array of interaction strategies, employed by the teacher right from the initiation of the sessions, responding to students and problems encountered in their studies, through a series of incisive and highly strategic questions. What stood out most to me was how there seemed to be two different styles of problem-solving strategies: the teachers alternated between periods of allowing the student to talk freely about their studies and encouraging them to participate in the conference, and then spurning conversation in favour of delivering important information required by the student. I noticed, through very close analyses, the use of verbal and non-verbal expressions and scaffolding strategies in order to engage the students. This noticeable area gave rise to salient points for this study.

It was noted that the area where learning specifically occurred was the time span starting from the beginning of the conferences to around the 5-minute mark, which usually signalled a change of topic. In order to observe crucial points in the teachers’ talk (although, it is indeed possible to observe many occasions in the dialogue that could pertain as salient points for this research), I decided to provide transcriptions of each teacher-student writing conference that covered the opening up to the 5-minute mark, with provision for extension if there were more areas that proved important to this research in the interaction. The aims of the transcriptions were to provide illustrations of the singularity of those moments, the specificity of my research and the importance of the areas in teacher-student writing conferences attended to by my research. I transcribed the sessions, each between five to 10 minutes in duration, all of which amounted to 2 hours 38 minutes’ worth of transcriptions. This equated to around 26% of the total recorded amount—some 10 hours, and can be found in Appendix V-A.

Regarding student-student interaction in writing conferences, while reviewing all data, I became interested in the ways of construction and management of the roles of peer tutor and peer tutee, and how, despite peers inevitably encountering different learning through talk, they display insecurity and instability in viewpoints when negotiating. This encouraged me to transcribe specific areas where peers select the role of peer tutor in order to provide feedback and to share views. I transcribed only specific segments for each session in student-student writing conferences that pertained to areas of peers’ role construction and viewpoint

negotiation. 23 minutes of transcriptions were made, which can be found in Appendix V-B. This represented 14% of the total of 2 hours 48 minutes collected.

A total of 3 hours 1 minute of transcriptions were made out of a total of 12 hours 48 minutes. The transcripts amount to around 23.5% of the total. Decisions regarding the areas selected for transcription depended entirely on the researcher's deliberate, interpretative and analytic strategies. No other data are transcribed except the raw data collected.

Selecting the samples

I carefully reviewed all the transcriptions I made, selecting samples for closer analysis and for extracts to be presented in these chapters. Selected samples were re-transcribed carefully, including all non-verbal expressions represented by CA symbols (Appendix IV), all of which were derived from Atkinson and Heritage (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Heritage, 2005) (see Appendix IV: CA symbols). The CA symbols highlight salient points in linear representations of data. I checked them carefully against the recordings, so that anyone could easily understand the samples and be satisfied that the transcriptions were faithful (Schegloff, 2007). All selections of data are intended as idealised examples, in order to explain and bolster salient points to the research.

Regarding the research, for question 1.1, which considers the ways in which teachers' questions support student learning opportunities, I selected three examples of joint activities between teacher and student, and presented these in Chapter 5-5.1, 5.2 and 5.3. Regarding research question 1.2, which focuses on the different ways of interactive teaching approach in supporting student learning opportunities, I reviewed the data carefully and selected two examples for comparison on how the two approaches function differently. Findings for these were presented in Chapter 5-5.4 and 5.5. Regarding research question 1.3, on the ways of shaping students' participation in terms of learning and entailing change, negotiation and differences in participation statuses, I selected one example, presented in Chapter 5.5. Regarding question 1.4, the ways of scaffolding technique, I also focused on relationships between teachers' scaffolding strategies and student learning, participation and identity through mediated action in discourse, exploring this further in Chapters 5.6, 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5. Question 2, focusing on role construction and negotiation with the viewpoints of others, explores four selected examples in order to show the workings of the scaffolding technique; presented as extracts in Chapter 7-7.1, 7.2, 7.3, and 7.4. Points salient to the research

were analysed in these selected samples, presented as extracts. I also discussed and referenced other examples in Appendix V-A-B, if the need arose.

Particular features of the analytic approach

There are four particular features of the analytic approach which should be highlighted (see Chapter 3.3 for more details):

First, turn-taking is considered to be the understanding of the teacher and student/student and student over the cadences of turns. It allows cues indicating when the teacher and student, or one student to another student, is signalled to talk: e.g. a single word, phrase, sentence, interruption, hold, pass, etc., and how this affects the construction and understanding of their turns in writing conferences.

Second, turn-design allows the discernment of any personal or identity connection between groups' identity through the use of the language; for example, choice of lexis, appearing to observe particular strategies in individuals and groups that are associated with construction, and negotiation in roles of teacher-student/student-student writing conferences through examining elicitation, repair and speech modification, lexical choice, gestures, facial expression, timing, stress, volume, etc.

Third, although social actions are varied in interaction, any utterances—including non-verbal behaviours—are considered as performative, in terms of particular social actions, and are associated with writing conferencing, such as in ways of supporting student learning opportunities; for example, questioning (inviting, agreeing, requesting, rejecting, etc); using different teaching approaches between dialogic and authoritative (control of the interaction); various other interactional strategies (including non-verbal expressions, scaffolding technique); the ways of peer role construction and view negotiation (accepting, challenging, rejecting, agreeing, etc.). Politeness strategies are also considered here.

Fourth, utterances/actions are connected in sequences of actions or moves that are organised sequentially with “special relatedness” (Schegloff, 2007); such that, what the teacher (one participant) says and does is generated by, and dependent on, what the student (the other) has already said and done. In this study, though the sequences of teacher and student dialogue in writing conferences appear to have stable patterns or characteristics—like question-answer

exchanges—more extensions of the turns are focused in terms of goal-oriented activity (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990). In addition, it also considers teaching exchanges, though the study does not restrict itself to the use of DA, to see how teachers and students negotiate views with each other, and/or how teachers develop students' meaningful contributions.

Characteristics of the episodes

The answering of research questions can be drawn through examination of selected data that considers identities, roles and relationships among and between the participants, and the characteristics of both teachers' and learners' interactional strategies. Regarding interaction between teacher and student, how does the teacher use questions to ensure the promotion of the students' participation in their own learning? How does the teacher engage in different types of interactive teaching approach, interweaving authoritative and dialogic methodologies, with their students; and how do they influence student participation or contribution? How does teacher talk shape students' contributions through this variety of interactional strategies, including scaffolding strategies? These questions are all related to ways of learning and interaction to showcase participants' co-construction of knowledge. Regarding peer interaction, I characterise how peers construct their roles. How do peers take on each others' views, or share their own views? And how do they negotiate with each others' views?

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodological background of the present study. In the two major sections of the chapter, research context and a selected method have been presented. The data analysis regarding research question 1 will be carried out in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5 INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES ON TEACHER-STUDENT WRITING CONFERENCES

In this chapter, I examine how teachers can use talk to aid their students' understanding in relation to their academic writing. To do so, I draw on the findings from face-to-face and spoken feedback interaction between a teacher and a student in writing conferences of EAP writing classes. To gain a deep understanding of what happens in a particular feedback interaction, it is important to observe how noticeable procedures and interactional strategies are in teacher-student interaction and student understanding. Although there can be a number of interactional strategies which might demonstrate learning and learning opportunity; for example, observation of "Classroom Interactional Competence" (CIC) in Walsh's (2011) study (see Chapter 2), in my study, I demonstrate characteristics of behaviour which teachers may more consciously take into account in their interaction with their students, focusing particularly on teachers' questions, different teaching approaches between the authoritative and the dialogic approach, and other interactional strategies, including verbal and non-verbal expressions, which may facilitate student participation or involvement in discussion (for exploring the association between specific strategies, i.e. scaffolding strategies and student involvement and development of their understanding, I will reserve this observation in Chapter 6). In particular, I investigate these at the specific point where teachers open the writing conferences, which can show teachers' specific behaviours regarding how to start the feedback activity. Here, I attempt to investigate how teachers jointly construct knowledge in relation to student understanding, looking at turn-taking, turn design, social actions, sequential order of interaction and teaching exchanges (see Chapter 3), and to discuss what implications this has for teaching and learning in EAP writing context. Although the methodology for this study allows for the collection of a large volume of audio-/video-recorded interactional data, this chapter considers only the short extract of teacher-student dialogue which is believed to show the important interactional features in relation to student learning. These extracts allow us to apply an intensive bottom-up analytic consideration of my discussion, and also offer us rich possibilities for systematic analyses (ten Have, 1999; Wei, 2002). It is hoped that these findings will provide us with a closer understanding of the nature of teacher-student/student-student(s') interaction during teacher-student writing conferences of EAP in a UK university.

I address the following research questions:

1. How do teachers in teacher-student writing conferences support student learning opportunities through talk?

1.1 What happens in the EAP writing classroom, especially in terms of how the teacher uses questions to support student learning in teacher-student writing conferences? That is, can we characterise these functions when teachers are trying to construct joint and shared knowledge with their students?

1.2. How does the teacher engage in different types of interactive teaching approach between authoritative and dialogic with their students, and how do the two teaching approaches manifest in the interaction and influence of student contributions?

1.3. How does the teacher shape student contributions through the various interactional strategies that enable students to express their understanding, articulate ideas and reveal the problems that they are encountering?

This chapter consists of four major sections. Section 5.1 explores teacher talk according to interactional features or strategies in the opening of the activity. I discuss how different questions function and influence L2 student learning and teaching. Section 5.2 explores two different types of interactive teaching approaches between authoritative and dialogic teaching. Section 5.3 explores the ways of shaping student contributions. Sections 5.4 and 5.5 summarise and conclude this chapter.

5.1 The use of teacher questions

I will describe how teachers' questions serve functions in the development of student understanding and students' meaningful contributions, and how these functions are characterised. It is stressed that the context I observe is teacher-student writing conferences in an EAP classroom discussion when the teachers initiate or open the activity. As noted earlier, the first draft essays that EAP students produced were read by the teacher, who expects to provide oral feedback to their students. In most cases, teachers made written comments on the student essay on which their conferences are then based, although some did not for several reasons; e.g. a student had not finished the draft essay. The following extract from the start of the writing conference between a teacher and a student in the UK EAP classroom shows how each person takes it in turns to talk. Extract 5.1 is taken from the start of a writing conference between a native English teacher and a student from Mexico. They sit next to each other in the teacher's office, as shown in picture 1. On a desk, the teacher (who is smiling) sets out the

student's first draft essay on which she has already made some written comments.



Picture 1. The teacher's opening up of the talk with a smile.

Extract 5.1: Encourage student participation by the questions

TT4-MF1 (00:00-1:06) T: teacher-Tania S: student-Christine

The whole interaction length was 9.19 minutes. The student's essay topic was: "What would be the socio-political implications if the wall between the USA and the Mexican border is built".

1T	((looking at Sofia's face)) SO↑: um: °you've <u>CHANGED</u> your subjects (.) after after a while↑°= ((smiling))
2S	=YEA H[::] ((smiling))
3T	[°O]ka:y (.)° an:: d °you've come up with a <u>subject</u> you feel quite happy about↑°=
4S	=YEA H[::]
5T	[Yes] (.) a:nd (h.) °How↑ do you feel about your <u>first</u> draft (.) yourself ?° (.) ((smiling))
6S	Um: (2.0) I think the <u>ONLY</u> thing is um: (1.5) coz I did it (1.0) ur (.) quite: <u>qui</u> ↑ckly=
7T	=Mm hm↑ ((nodding))
8S	>so (.) I don't think my grammar is (.) ve↑:ry ve↑:ry good an:d I think it's very informal<=
9T	=Okay
10S	um: I wer: I only wrote two thousand six hundred words (.) so I need to write a little bit <u>more</u> (.) and probably my
11S	CONCLU↑SION (.) I am not very happy with it (.) I think it should be more strong (.)
12T	So you could make [it xxx]((trails off))
13S	[YEAH] a bit more mm (2.0)
14T	So that is what you are planning (.) to do <u>Yeah</u> ↑=
15S	=YEAH (2.0)
16T	Did you feel (.) you need to do anymore research↑(.) or: did you feel (.) you've done enough research as you need?°=
17S	=I THI↑NK:::(.) mm: (0.4) I have enough actually coz I didn't write complete bibliography (.) error's only reference [actually](.)
18T	[about it] (.)
19T	Yes (.) Okay (.) [mm: (.)] which is [xxx] [yes yes] ((looking at Sofia's paper))
20S	[YEAH:] [error's only reference list]: [that I used:] inside into
21T	Okay (.) you will put the reference list (.) [and then](.) you got the bibliographies (XXX)
22S	[u-hm Yes]

23S	Bibliographies (.) well YEAH (0.5) ((pointing her paper)) I need to write this again in the bibliography or not?
24T	um:: (2.0) ((looking at student's paper)) yes (.) you <u>should</u>
25S	So (.) this ones I have five more (.)
26T	Right (.) and so:: you feel you've got quite a: wide range of opinions and backgrounds?
27S	Yeah (.) I think so Yeah:

Extract 5.1 appears to be the very beginning of the writing conference. I will divide this extract into three parts regarding different formats of the teacher's questions. In the first part, lines 1-15, for example, the teacher constructs her turns, which in some respects are similar: in line 1 she asks the student if she is happy with the changed subject: "...you feel quite happy about↑"; and then, in line 5, she asks: "How do you feel about your first draft (.) yourself?". The slight difference in turn construction (checking in the first, genuine enquiry in the second) respects the different actions. The first consists of open-ended social enquiries, but the second is of open, interested genuine enquiries that contain the words "how", "feel", "first draft". The construction used in line 5 is a genuine focus within a particular framework; i.e. the student's draft essay, whatever problems there might be regarding the student's personal experience. The teacher already knows the student's previous concerns with the new subject, and asks about her feelings regarding the draft essay. This kind of interaction can also be seen in a doctor-patient interaction, when the doctor checks the patient's progress and response to treatment in the interim, etc; e.g. "How are you feeling?" (Robinson, in press). As Robinson argues, turns in institutional interaction are designed differently to mundane conversation. For example, the teacher's question: "How do you feel about your draft?", with special enquiry about problems known by the teacher, contrasts with mundane conversation. Asking "how are you feeling" makes enquiries into personal states, while questions such as "How are you" do not presume a problem.

The problems become explicit after the teacher's enquiries in line 5. In line 5, the question seems to allow the student to go straight into her problem diagnosis: "*Um: (2.0) I think the ONLY thing is um: (1.5) coz I did it (1.0) ur (.) qu:ite: qui↑ckly...*". Notice that during the student's description, the teacher uses a number of response tokens with verbal and non-verbal expressions: verbal – "*Yes, Okay, Mm hm↑, Mm, u-hm, right*"; non-verbal – "*((nodding)), ([smiling]), ([looking at Sofia's face])*". As Farr (2003) has suggested, these kinds of verbal or non-verbal expressions from the teacher play a vital role in reinforcement; e.g. "Mm", as a minimal response token, is used to acknowledge student talk, or to encourage continuing the

student's talk. This teacher reinforcement seems to invite the student to talk more elaborately. For example, the student's speaking turn in this extract stretches from line 6 to line 11. She particularly elaborates her opinions using hedges, e.g. "*I think...*" and "*I don't think...*"; and using modal verbs, e.g. "It *should* be more strong" and "I *need*...". Through this process, the student is able not only to reflect on her errors by herself, but has an opportunity to explain what she has already done, and what she needs to do further in general. What is more, in lines 12-15 there is an overlapping joint construction between the teacher and the student and a signalling "agreement". The teacher does not complete her turns and asks the student to confirm: "*So you could make [it]...*" in line 12, and "*So that is what you are planning (.) to do* Yeah" in line 14, which reaches a joint agreement: "[YEAH] a bit more use of the expression 'mm' (2.0)" in line 13, "=YEAH (2.0)" in line 15. In this instance, in the very first opening sequence in the interaction, the teacher's encouragement through the use of an open question, with verbal or non-verbal reinforcement, appears to guide the student's reflective procedure in order to encourage her to be an active participant in the discussion. In addition, the teacher's and the student's joint construction seems to lead to an agreement in the end.

In the second part, lines 16-20 focus on the student's problem: the teacher asks whether the student needs to do more research, in particular in line 16, where we find a narrowing down of the subject. In this way, the student is able to focus on her problem. The teacher may want the student to explore further, as there is a pause "(2.0)" in the student's turn in line 15, which is a cue for the teacher to start speaking. This more focused line of questioning allows the student to articulate her perceived errors in full. Her response is at first somewhat hesitant: "*mm: (0.4)*", but she then elaborates her opinion by using more emphatic lexical items in line 17; i.e. "actually" and "only": "*I have enough actually coz I didn't write complete bibliography (.) error's only reference actually (.)*". The student tries to show that she has done some work, but is ready to identify gaps in her knowledge.

In the final part, lines 21-7, the teacher provides explicit instruction. This part of the extract shows collaborative activity between the teacher and the student: the teacher is jointly involved in the learning activity with the student. Up to line 21, the teacher allows the student to articulate her opinions, using questions that lead to the sharing of previous experience; this time, however, the teacher tries to address the issue of the student's writing, e.g. reference, using the example of the error that the student pointed out during the interaction (line 17). This activity reflects the teacher's professional responsibility in helping the learner to acquire new

knowledge, based on her previous knowledge. This helps the student to see a logical link between what she has already learnt and what she needs to do next. Throughout the process the writing teacher alternates between the roles of *listener/reader and speaker* (Yngve, 1970) in spoken feedback. The teacher's role extends from listener, to counsellor, to reader, to speaker and to a joint constructor of text. While the first and second part sequences show her readiness to engage with the student's difficulty, e.g. sharing knowledge and narrowing the focus, the final part exemplifies the teacher's extended contextual framework for developing student understanding.

This interaction seems to have been constructed with the willing collaboration of both teacher and student, and the "question-answer" basic form was used to discover the initial level of the student's understanding and to develop from more open, interested and genuine questions to more precise questions, to ensure the student's full understanding. The questions that the teacher used do not require right or wrong answers; rather they allow the student to participate actively in the interaction.

The result of the above extract is related to Mercer's comment, that "for a teacher to teach and learner to learn, they must use talk and joint activity to create a shared communicative space" (Mercer, 2003:141) – probably the concept of the Intermental Development Zone, which can be seen as a continuing process of guided development in a collective environment. Through discussion in the teacher-student conference, the student is offered a range of interactional strategies to establish and maintain a collective IDZ. For example, the student is given a series of questions for sharing relevant information, eliciting her opinions, expressing ideas and explaining reasons clearly, using reasoning words such as "because" and "so", which is similar to "exploratory talk" (Mercer & Littleton, 2007). In addition, the teacher and student reached an agreement at the end of the discussion, as the student has a clear idea of what should be done for the next activity.

Extract 5.2 identifies and describes another example of teachers conducting writing conferences. In this extract, the teacher, Tania, initiates the reflection of the student's (Salvia from Latvia) previous experience. When they talk, they look at the comment sheets that the teacher has already made, as shown in picture 2.



Picture 2: The teacher and the student look at the comment sheets.

Extract 5.2: Student contributions

TT3-LF1 (00:00 - 00:50) T: teacher-Tania S: student- Salvia

The whole interaction length was 10.21 minutes. The student's topic was: "Analyse the reasons for Ikea's success in the international furniture market".

1T	So↑ °How did you feel about this↑(.) um: after you had your (friends') feedback (xxx) °
2S	Ahh::hh. As I say that I feel quite happy but I now have some er mistakes which I should improve and then if I want to
3S	get a good mark ((smiling))
4T	°what sort of mark you are expecting to be thinking of ° ((smiling))
5S	I want to get an <u>A OF COURSE</u> HE[hehehehe] ((smiling))
6T	[Okay he. Hh]. Okay what (.) what do you think you can improve on it?
7S	ur I need to put (.) ur put more information about (company X) and a little bit more analysing
8T	Ok (.) ok I I agree with that (0.2) Yes (.)
9T	I made some comments for you (.)

In this example, the teacher seems to provide the student with opportunities to talk about her feelings in line 1, her point of view in line 4, and to provide thoughtful answers in line 6. The teacher's three questions constructed with her student seem to lead the student into a position where she contributes as an active learner.

The teacher's first question, "How did you feel..." (line 1), is concerned with the previous experience of the student, which is similar to the example in extract 5.1. This open question seems to create meaningful links with the student's continuing work of the writing process, e.g. the peer feedback which she had. After the student answers, the teacher's second question in line 4, "what sort of mark ...?", suggests that she picks up on what the student has said, i.e. "to get a good mark", to guide her thinking forward. It is noted that the teacher does not make a

critical evaluation of the student's idea; rather, she allows the student to talk freely. The teacher's third question in line 6, "*what do you think you can improve on it?*", requests building up of the student's own thinking further. This enables the student to identify her problem and build her future plan (i.e. what she needs to do next). If we look at the student responses, the student's talk contains present time, such as "*now*", which establishes a reference time for a plan in relation to the time of the student's utterance (Schiffrin, 1987: 245). The student gives an explanation of her feelings in line 2, "*feel quite happy*", and evaluates her present situation using *now*, "*but I now have some mistakes*". The student then shifts to future actions using modal verbs, e.g. *should*, *need*, and strong willingness, e.g. *want* "*I should improve...if I want to*", in lines 2-3, "*I need to put...*". The student may use such markers that are associated with obligation or requirement in her course, but she actually points to her own individual framework, e.g. a good mark or get an A, e.g. "*I need to put more...*".

It is noted that some of words used by the teacher show social relationships between teacher and student. For instance, when the teacher develops her talk, the teacher uses tiny words, e.g. "*so*", "*ok*", "*yes*", called discourse markers, which signpost the structure of the interaction to help the student's understanding (Schiffrin, 1987). By prefacing the teacher question with the words, she develops her turns. For example, "*so*"(line 1) is used for giving student attention so that she can start her talk; "*okay*"(lines 6, 8) is used for closing off the student talk; and "*Yes*" (line 8) is also used for closing off her talk, or to restart her talk with a new topic in line 8. Thus, the teacher's choice to use questions with some words reflects the student understanding of prior talk and can shape the student's participation. On the other hand, it also shows that the teacher is in the position of interactional controller and has the power to (re)direct interaction or to change the topic. In line 9, the teacher re-initiates a new topic, "*I made some comments for you*", which can appear whenever deemed appropriate (I will discuss this in more detail in section 5.4).

In extract 5.3, we see how a different teacher incorporates questions with variations in EAP writing context. A teacher and a student, Amy and Min from China, are sitting next to each other in a small conference room. Many students in the class have finished their first draft, but Min has not yet started it. Instead, she has an outline of her research.

Extract 5.3: Creating learning environment and maintaining professional help

AT4-CF1 (00:00-3:23) T: teacher-Amy S: student-Min

The whole interaction length was 17.07 minutes. The student's topic was "Google"

1T	um: °Most important thing for <u>YOU</u> :↑ is (.) if you've got a <u>research</u> question° ((looking at Min's face and smiling))
2S	ur:: NOT↑ QUESTIONS (1.0) ((smiling))
3T	((nodding)) (4.0) °°ok°°
4S	and er (0.4) I, I read a lot of A↑rticles (.) and er some of books>=
5T	= <u>Goo</u> ::d= ((her face goes red))
6S	but ur (0.4) <I found some information er not useful> [er HA:] ((smiling)) [My] reading (.) is too slowly (.) I think=
7T	[Of co]urse [Ye]((smiling))
8T	= <u>WELL</u> :: YES
9S	and but (.) I found the er Google (.) promoted a lot of new services this year (.)
10T	YEAH (.)
11S	like um:: cooperated with BT phone em Podapong (1.0)
12T	with what↑
13S	Podapongs (1.0) Podapong=
14T	= <u>VO</u> ↑:DAFONE ((looking at her lips)) =
15S	=Yeah (.) VOdafone
16T	Yeah (.) good (.) sorry (.) Yeah Yep
17S	and the um: it is er planning to put er data bases and (.) like online supermarket for Europeans' retailers
18T	Really?
19S	Yeah (.) [Cause] Google base
20T	[Yes] (.)
21S	That's right
22T	ok
23S	Also want em promoted online with frequency search[xx] entertaining programme
24T	[ok]
25T	Yes (.) ok right (.) That's (.) THAT'S the some FACTS on this about Google =
26S	=Yeah
27T	What can you DO: with them? (2.0)
28S	mm:: (3.0)
29T	THIS IS (.) THIS IS um (2.0) okay CAN I just have (.) Can you just have a pen↑ (.hhh) (5.0) NOW (.) This kind of thing (3.0)
30T	This is dangerous (.)
31S	mm::
32T	((Underlining a section in Min's paper)) because this is the man who works for Google (.) who says we're living in a Google world (.)
33T	Do you see how it's the dangerous↑
34S	((nodding)) because it's er not the reality but ur the someone who works for Google (.) ((nodding and smiling))
35T	<u>SO</u> so for (.) that is not um: (3.0) It's not academic (.) because if you if you write it down (.) you need to either say <u>prog</u> ::f!
36T	or you need to say (1.0) this shows how strongly people want us to believe (.)
37S	Yeah yeah and the Google's ambition ((nodding))

In this sequence, the teacher's first turn does not refer to asking about the student's feelings regarding the draft essay, "*How do you feel about your first draft?*", as seen in both extracts 5.1 and 5.2. Instead, the teacher checks whether the student has a research question (line 1). When the teacher has learnt that the student has not yet arrived at a research question in line 2, "*ur:: NOT↑ QUESTIONS (1.0) ((smiling))*", and she silences for a while "(4.0)" in line 3. It is assumed from the teacher's silence in line 3, and from her facial appearance, i.e. her face reddening in line 5, that she is not happy with the student's failure at not having a research question. However, she seems ready to support the student's talk using backchannels; e.g. "*good*", "*yes*", "*right*". But, the student's turn at this point is blocked by a pronunciation problem, "*Podapong*" (Vodafone), in line 11. This is resolved as the teacher seeks and establishes clarification, "*with what ↑*", in line 12, after which she repairs the student's pronunciation. Picture 3 below shows that the teacher is trying to fix the student's problem by looking at the student's mouth.



Picture 3. The teacher's repair for the student's pronunciation problem.

When the student only explains some facts about Google (which she got directly from the Google online site), the teacher asks a quite direct question, "*What can you DO: with them?(2.0)*" in line 27. Initially, the student is not able to formulate an answer, as there is a pause "*mm::(3.0)*" in line 28. Perhaps the student's reaction supports Dashwood's (2005) view that when the teacher poses direct questions, students tend not to develop their ideas clearly and not to produce elaborate answers. At this point, the teacher's question may have resulted in the student's failure to continue to expand on the meanings of the text, and generally to make her own contribution. However, when the teacher's talk includes 'reasoning words', such as "*because*", "*how*" in lines 29-33, the student's talk shows that her understanding is reached.

The key feature of the teacher's talk is that the teacher makes explicit explanation why the student's information is invalid in lines 32-3 and lines 35-6. Eventually, the student shows her understanding with some elaboration of her point of view as to the reason why her information is not valuable in lines 34 and 37; "*because*" and "*nodding*". In addition, it can also be essential for the teacher to maintain a professional and authoritative stance to guide student problems in this institutional context (we can see more teacher-student conferences for Min in Appendix V-A28) AT7-second time and 30) AT9-third time).

In the three extracts above, in the openings of the teacher-student conferences, through understanding of the students' specific concepts, the teachers focus on and address the problems that the students are encountering. As can be seen in the extracts, teacher questions, for example, "*How do you feel about first draft?*", seem to be designed to invite students to evaluate their own writing, in particular in relation to their ongoing writing process (i.e. writing problems). When the students are invited to reflect on their work, they are likely to be involved with self-evaluation, asking questions and articulating their points of view as a result of developing their understanding (see more examples of these features, including self-evaluation and their variations, in Appendix V-A: (e.g. 11)-lines 1-21; 12)-lines1-8; 16)-lines 1-21; 17)-lines1-13, etc. It is interesting to note in developing student understanding that the teachers in this study intertwine different interactive teaching approaches, between authoritative and dialogic, in the interaction as appropriate; for example, the extract in 5.3, where the teacher's talk describes her point, clearly interrupting the student's talk, from line 27. In the next section we focus on these two kinds of interactive teaching approaches and how they influence development of student understanding.

5.2 The use of the interactive teaching approach: authoritative and dialogic

We now focus on a study which has revealed more about different teaching approaches for helping students' understanding. I will make some comparisons between the ways two teachers interacted with their student. How does the teacher engage in different types of teaching approach between authoritative and dialogic with their student, and how do these approaches manifest and influence the student's contribution? Mortimer and Scott (2003) divide different interactive teaching approaches, such as interactive/dialogic and interactive/authoritative approaches, and point out that teachers might ask for students' ideas or topics and take student

contributions into account in developing their lessons; but the talk becomes authoritative when teachers direct the new knowledge clearly in the interaction. The study suggests these different types of teaching approach do not mean one approach is better or worse. The important point is the quality of dialogue: whether teachers choose the right one for their students to support student understanding.

In extracts 5.4 and 5.5 below, two teachers, whom I have called A and B, are trying to help the students to reach an understanding or the making of a decision in the writing conference. The extracts are taken from recordings at new starting points of discussion in the writing conferences where the student seems to “*struggle*” and is unable to find answers, or when a student needs clearer information. Although they are from different contexts, I chose them as I believe that they represent different teaching approaches clearly in the teacher-student interaction. Teacher A is talking with a female French student, while teacher B is talking with a male from South Africa.

Extract 5.4: Teacher A

RT5-FF1 (00:19-1:45) T: teacher-Rose S: student-Jolie

The whole interaction length was 15.30 minutes. The student’s topic was “Terrorism, the force behind a new law in the United Kingdom”.

5T	((looking at Jolie’s essay and seeing her face)) °°Okay um: wo-were my comments understandable↑°°=
6S	Yes (.) °I think (.) I’ve got ALL the bibliographies° WR↑ONG ((smiling))=
7T	=° DID you↑° = ((looking at Jolie’s eyes))
8S	=YE::S(.hh) ((smiling)) in the (0.3) but I can <u>change</u> it (0.3) I just have to <u>change</u> it (.) but
9T	>Ha-How did you make those mistakes↑<
10S	I don’t KN↑ow: but (.) I don’t KN↑ow: (.) I, I looked the (.) in how to (.) I had the paper how to <u>cite</u> (.hh)
11S	but (.) I don’t kn↑ow (.hh) WHY I did it WR↑ONG (.h) ((smiling))
12T	>you(.) you know what did I (0.5) why I (0.5) where is it? where is the bibliography? (1.0) ye(.) the <u>problem</u> is that the
13T	date ((pointing at Jolie’s paper)) HERE! (1.0) and the date (.) here (.) Nicholson (.) here (.) it says nineteen ninety eight
14T	(.) and here ((looking at the bibliography)) it says two thousand two (.hh)
15S	WOO↑:: (1.0) I must have got it wrong (.)

Extract 5.5: Teacher B

TT7-SM1 (2:48- 3:40) T: teacher-Tania S: student-Alan

The whole interaction length was 18.31 minutes. The topic was “About crime in South Africa”.

72T	RI↑GHT (.) You've got <u>TWO</u> : QUO:TES(.) ((pointing at Alan's paper)) remember what we talked last week?
73S	YEAH (.)
74T	You've GO↑T: defini↑tion(.) and then you've got a <u>Quote</u>
75S	Yeah (.)
76T	Um:: I don't think you need TWO(.) two quotes here[(.)](looking at Alan's face)) otherwise you're destroying two=
77S	[ok]
78S	=Yeah (.)
79T	I think (.) how how would you change that↑
80S	um:: I thi↑nk (1.0) I could probably: take: law's quote ((pointing at his paper)) and: <<put: that: through into my essay>>=
81T	U-hm
82S	<because um:: there were where I put down bullet points>=
83T	=U-hm=
84S	<which explain um the difference law systems all the countries (.) and then being limiting affect on crime (.) I think I can
85S	put them possibly in this>
86T	Ok uhm
87S	<and then I can just leave a crime quote at the beginning>
88T	Yes (.) because that's Actually a slightly more:: reliable source isn't it ?
89S	Yeah (.)

In extract 5.4 we see teacher A engaging in an interactive/dialogic approach, but she becomes used to the interactive/authoritative teaching approach. At first, teacher A attempts to set up the discussion by connecting it with the written comments which she had provided a week previously. She checks the student's understanding of the written comments on the draft: “*Okay um: wo-were my comments understandable*↑” (line 5). This question seems to motivate the student to raise the issue of her bibliography herself. She answers the teacher's question literally, “*Yes*”, and then explains her problematic issue, which she probably took from the teacher's written comments on her essay (line 6): “*I think (.) I've got ALL the bibliographies*• WRONG...”. An interesting point to note here is that the task or topic for which the teacher provided the student with explicit explanation is raised by the student, not by the teacher. The students are engaged in a feedback activity context that provides an authentic invitation for reflection on their writing process and, possibly, their own thinking processes (Drew's & Heritage's point, 1992). For example, the student's request in line 11, “*I looked ... (.) I had the paper how to cite (.) ... I don't know (hh) WHY I did it WRONG*...”, suggests

that the student has already done a significant amount of reflection on the problem, but has not found the solution and has recognised it as problematic.

When the teacher sees that the student lacks understanding of the particular problem, including the student's enquiry in lines 8, 10 and 11 (even though she provided written comments a week previously), her talk becomes more authoritative. The teacher informs and instructs the student in lines 12-14. The instruction is related to specific content associated with the teacher's expertise as an academic writing instructor. In order to solve the problem, the teacher provides evidence with more explanation, stimulated by the errors that her student has made. In other words, she chooses contextual data from the text in front of them both to offer examples of how the student has made errors, rather than simply telling the student that errors exist, or instructing her on how to correct them. For example, the teacher compares the cited references in the body of the student's essay and the bibliography at the end of the essay, "*Where is the bibliography?*" (line 12), as shown in picture 4. Her spoken elaboration, more than the teacher's written comments, possibly allows the student to better understand why she made her errors, which she appears not to have fully understood. So, she finally understands why she was wrong, "*WOO□: (1.0) I must have got it wrong*", in line 15. In this interaction, though she already "knows" that she has done something "wrong", she does not know the reasons for this. However, here is the point that she is "voicing" her understanding: the "WOO" is in reaction to "seeing" the problem and having it pointed out, therefore a "response" is called for in the interaction. That in itself constructs the joint understanding that the teacher-student conference is designed to enable. In relation to Laurillard's (2002) point, we can see that the student in a one-to-one conference is given opportunities to make knowledge explicit and to confirm their understandings clearly; the teacher provides such an example or guidance which ensures the student's understanding. Throughout the interaction, the teacher acts interactively/dialogically in offering the student's contribution, e.g. asking the student a series of questions, the teacher's talk becomes more authoritative from line 12 (Scott and Mortimer, 2003), because the teacher acts as an expert on more elaborate necessary information (see more extended interaction in Appendix V-A-5) RT5.



Picture 4. The teacher acts as an expert to explain the student's problem.

In extract 5.5, teacher B chooses two approaches that offer necessary information and also possibilities for the student's contribution. If we scan over extract 5.5, it is apparent that, once the teacher positions herself as an "expert" and tells him what to do, she also offers an opportunity for him to pursue the ideas himself; later the teacher's question is designed to support the student's thoughtful answer, rather than simply telling them the answer.

The teacher deliberately gives the student information which helps the student to apply existing knowledge and to understand the present situation; the discourse marker "*Right*" signals the teacher's talk, and the teacher simply identifies the student's writing problem by saying "*You've got ...*" in line 72. The teacher explains further that the student should reflect on what was being taught last week: "*...remember what we talked last week?*"; the teacher specifically uses a "*we*" statement to framework the present activity. This means that the teacher, as a reader, also takes responsibility and helps the student to perceive dealing with her difficulty. The teacher then draws attention to the student's problem by suggesting "*I don't think you need TWO (.) two quotes here*" in line 76. Until line 78, the teacher justifies the student's problem, i.e. two quotes, and seems uninterested in exploring the student's point of view.

However, the teacher carefully offers possibilities for the student's idea, requesting the student to choose one, "*how would you change that↑*", in line 79. When the teacher passes the choice to the student, she appears to be somewhat hesitant or tense about doing so, i.e. pause "*I think (.)*", and then begins with a repetition of "how", e.g. "*how how would you change that↑*". The teacher possibly knows which quote should be removed, but the choice between the two quotes

is left to the student. After the teacher's request, the teacher does not dominate the interaction; rather, the student produces longer stretches of discourse in lines 80 to 87.

Through the teacher's questioning, the student chooses one quote and gives an explanation of the reason for this choice. The student's talk includes hesitations, pauses and very slow talk; e.g. um::, (1.0), << ... >>, but they clearly explain why they chose one logically, using "because..." (line 82).

In this interaction, the teacher's response to the student's contribution is vital. She gives support, "u-hm" (lines 81, 83 and 86), without interrupting, to show that she is listening. She then finishes off her talk as an agreement with the student, "Yes", and evaluates their answer as a valid contribution, by saying "because that's actually a slightly more:: reliable source isn't it?" (line 88). The teacher's final evaluation seems to sum up both the teacher's and the student's opinions and shows closeness of the topic (see more relevant interaction in Appendix V-A-17) TT7).



Picture 5: The student is given the opportunity to talk.

On the whole, both extracts 5.4 and 5.5 contain two types of different discourse between interactive/dialogic and interactive/authoritative discourse, and both extracts show that meaning is jointly constructed. Teachers sometimes position themselves as "expert", but sometimes act as a "collaborator" and an active "listener" to consider students' points of view. On the one hand, the teachers as experts clearly provide necessary information for students, so that there can be no more confusion about the problem. On the other hand, the teacher as collaborator reminds the student of previous learning, which helps him to recognise his

problematic issue in the text, and to find logical reasoning to solve the problem. Also, the teacher as an active listener helps in the student's decision-making. The student hesitates to start talking and talks very slowly, but the teacher allows him sufficient time to think and waits until he has finished without interrupting.

In evaluating the two teachers' strategies in extracts 5.4 and 5.5, it is important to provide necessary information without causing students confusion, and also to consider the student's point of view. In both cases, the students were given the opportunity to develop their understanding of meaning, whether they use interactive/authoritative or interactive/dialogic talk. It seems, therefore, that developing students' understanding or decision-making depends on the teacher's choice of what kind of talk is best for the student in the specific context. This implies that the role of a good teacher requires giving the students an "intellectual guide" (Mercer, 2007: 55). As shown above, an "intellectual guide" involves not only considering instructions alongside the student's own voice or ideas, but providing necessary information without causing student confusion.

5.3 The use of various interactional strategies

As discussed in Chapter 2, interactional strategies refer to the strategies whereby the teacher and students, or the student and the student, negotiate intended meaning in a spoken interaction, thereby bringing about mutual understanding for both parties (Dornyei and Scott, 1995a). It can be a challenge especially for EAP writing teachers to use appropriate interactional strategies to provide constructive feedback on student text, including request for information, clarification of intended meaning, making constructive responses, expressing their understanding, showing their interest, and so on. These strategies are intended to maximise a student's learning opportunities, although they are not always successful. In this section, through the example of extract 5.6, I illustrate how teachers facilitate interactional space for learning and shape students' meaningful contributions. In this longer extract, we see how the teacher supports a student to make more extended contributions through various interactional strategies. The extract is taken from an upper intermediate English class' writing conference between a female teacher, Tania, and a female Latvian student, Salvia, who are talking about a content problem in Salvia's first draft essay. The extract extends from extract 5.2 and the discussion is presented from 4 minutes and 31 seconds (we can see more relevant information in lines 1-81 in Appendix V-A-13) TT3-LF1).

Extract 5.6: The use of a number of interactional strategies

TT3--LT1 (4:31-6:59) T: teacher-Tania S: student- Salvia

The whole interaction length was 10.21 minutes. Her topic was: “Analyse the reasons for Ikea’s success in the international furniture market”.

82T	SO:: your job was to <u>ANALYSE</u> : reasons for IKEA’s success in the international furniture market and you have done that
83T	(.) but I still (.) I agree with you that you haven’t really said enough about the other companies and=
84S	=um
85T	perhaps what their market strategy is (.) I mean of course (.) the IKEA is (.) more multinational °you know° (=
86S	=Yeah er so (.) ur ur I am thinking (.) maybe ur ur I have an idea maybe I should er I could ur compare with <u>ANOTHER</u>
87S	ur I don’t know (glossary) or something about (glossary) (.) but the for the company which is multi-national .hh
88T	um:
89S	because there is not another furniture company (.) [who is multi-nati]onal so it’s ur maybe with ur who offers different kind
90T	[°um: that’s right°]
91S	of ur stuff (.)
92T	YES (.) I think <u>THAT</u> ’s <u>US</u> (.) As long as that’s not going to make you too much more <u>WO:RK</u> at this stage (.)
93T	but um: Are there other sort of .hh cause you (.) I mean from this it sounds as if though the IKEA is very <u>Ethical</u> (.)
94T	and it’s very <u>good</u> to its <u>wor:kers</u> . <Can you think of a comparable um (.) company in food distribution that (.)
95T	looks like that>↑
96S	huhehe no hehehe ((shaking her head))
97T	°no: it’s it’s difficult isn’t it?°
98S	U-hm
99T	Um (.) How about Body Shop?
100S	Mm
101T	Do you know Body Shop↑
102S	Yeah I know ((nodding her head))
103T	Yes (.) is that: in many countries >do you know↑
104S	Yeah I (do know) (.) £It’s also in Latvia and <u>HERE I KNOW</u> (I think so) ((smiling))
105T	That might be something to look at that=
106S	=mm=
107T	=Yes look at there (.) the way they work=
108S	=um
109T	Um: the um <their sour:cing (0.5) their: the way they treat their employees and all of those things and see if .hh >you
110T	know that’s probably ur a good way of making business (.) because they do make a lot of money (.)
111S	Yeah (.)
112T	so that’s=
113S	=Very good (.) thank you hehe ((smiling))
114T	Ok that’s a possibility (.) I was trying to think of what (.) the <u>food</u> is more difficult because it’s a .hhh more localised in
115T	the market and your sources=
116S	= <u>YEAH:: YEAH::</u> it’s <u>REALLY</u> it’s ur <u>REALLY</u> I also think about maybe something from Coca Cola .hh because it’s ur
117S	ur you can compare ur for example <u>IKEAs</u> are the same in <u>ALL</u> in <u>ALL</u> over the Countries and ur: is it: is it helping
118S	them↑ ur: for example: ur the coca cola it it have difference in the tasting [in the] different countries so (.) [maybe]e (.)
119T	[u-hm] [u-hm]
120T	Yes that would be (an initial) comparison yes .hhhh
121S	Um maybe I can (look at) in the in the Body Shop
122T	YES (.) YES (.) We’ll just see um I mean it’s you know if you want to keep this (.) the reasons for their success (.)

In extract 5.6, a student's contributions are shaped by a teacher using a number of interactional strategies, including reformulation, providing examples, scaffolding and mitigating. We could divide the extract into three parts, in terms of how the student's understanding has been developed or reached due to the influence of the teacher's strategies: the first part, lines 82 to 92; the second part, lines 93 to 98; and the final part, lines 99 to 122.

In the first part, the student's understandings are developed and reached by the teacher's reformulation of her issue regarding what the student has already said (in extract 5.2, the student prompts her content problem relating further improvement: i.e. "*ur I need to put (.) ur put more information about (company X) and a little bit more analysing*" in line 7). The teacher signals her new topic using a discourse marker, "so"; she then comments on the student's essay, which appears to be a positive evaluation: "...*you have done that*" (82). She then uses "but", which is a sign that she is going to contradict some point, and then agrees with what the student has said earlier in extract 5.2: "*but I still (.) I agree with you that you haven't really said enough about the other companies*" in line 83. The teacher's further comment, "*perhaps what their market strategy is ...*", in line 85 seems to offer a possible solution for the student. After her suggestion, she uses "*you know*", checking that the student understands what she is talking about.

The student's contribution appears to be active and confident. She confirms her understanding of the teacher's suggestion immediately after the teacher's talk: "*=Yeah er so (.) ur ur I am thinking (.)...*" (line 86). The student begins to articulate her idea: "*ur ur I have an idea maybe I should er I could ur compare with ANOTHER*" in line 86, and her ideas develop to lines 87 to 91. Although the student participation includes a lot of voice pauses, "*ur or er or um*", implying hesitation or thinking time, this shows a genuine desire to express and to understand what the teacher has suggested. Clear articulation of her idea and stretching her turns noticeably in the interaction show her real awareness of what the teacher is saying. This eventually brings about the teacher's evaluation: "*YES (.) I think THAT's US (.); as long as ...*", in line 92. The evaluation offered here by the teacher is positive and supportive, through using a louder voice to show her interest; changing the personal pronoun from "I" to "US", showing her involvement in the task; showing they have the same values, which protects the student's positive face; the use of hedges or provisional language, such as "*As long as that's not going to make you too much more WO:RK ...*"; and showing the teacher as co-constructor, agreeing

with what the student has said, which also implies that negotiation is possible.

In this part, reformulation of the student's problem or issue, i.e. "*You haven't really said enough about the other companies*" (line 83), and opening for the possibility of negotiation, appear as important strategies in the interaction, "*perhaps what their market strategies*" (line 85). The teacher makes the student problem explicit, which enables the student to be aware of the problem and helps her to find a possible solution. This is described as consciousness (Schmidt, 1994) that teacher attention and awareness seem to allow the student to be also conscious, "having knowledge of" the process, in the sense of meta-cognition. Also, the teacher as co-constructor still opens up the possibility for the negotiation.

In the second part (lines 93 to 98), we see that the student's understanding seems to be struggling due to her lack of ideas. The teacher's use of the second "*but*" appears in line 93, to modify or contradict what has been said before: "*but um: Are there other sort of .hh ...*". The teacher wants a more detailed idea and she clearly states her question, "*Can you think of a comparable um (.) company in food distribution that (.) looks like that>↑*", in lines 94 and 95. This question is designed for the student to develop more detailed ideas. However, the student's response, "*huhehe no hehehe ((shaking her head))*", in line 96 implies that she has no idea how to develop her ideas. When the teacher perceives the student's cognitive difficulty, the teacher does not make a critical judgement and uses hedges, "*no: it's it's difficult isn't it? °*", to show that she agrees with the difficulty of the task, which saves the student's face.

In the third part (lines 99 to 122), the student's understanding has been developed and reached by a given possible example or necessary information.

The teacher's suggestion is presented as questions, "*How about Body Shop?*", in line 99; "*How about*" implies that the student has a choice. When "*Mm*" is uttered during the student's turn, there is ambiguity about whether the student accepts the teacher's suggestion; the teacher checks for student understanding repeatedly, "*Do you know Body Shop↑*", "*Yes (.) is that: in many countries >do you know↑*", in lines 101 and 103. This repetition implies uncertainty regarding the teacher's example, so they want to challenge the student to check whether there is acceptance of the suggestion. When the student clearly admits awareness of the possible example, "*Yeah I (do know)...*" in line 104, the teacher explains with a more detailed

elaboration of how she might develop her ideas in lines 105 to 114.

After the student is given specific information about how to expand ideas, she appreciates the teacher's information, "*=Very good (.) thank you hehe*", in line 113, as shown in picture 6, and starts to explain her own idea, "*=YEAH:: YEAH:: it's REALLY it's ur REALLY I also think about maybe something from Coca Cola .hh ...*", in line 116. She chooses a comparable company, i.e. Coca Cola, and explains how to make a comparison between IKEA and the chosen example. Unlike earlier turns, where her turns are mostly passive, such as "*mm*" and "*yeah*" in lines 96 to 111, she goes on here to speak out confidently and enthusiastically, as her voice gets louder and her discourse stretches from line 116 to 120. In fact, she avoids answering "*no*" to the teacher's possible suggestion, i.e. Body Shop; instead, she shows her appreciation of the information first; she then chooses an example of her own, i.e. Coca Cola, with detailed explanation; and finally she tries to negotiate with the teacher: "*um maybe I can (look at) in the in the Body Shop*". She knows the politeness strategy of negotiation, which saves the teacher's face, when she shows her own example idea using her appreciation, such as "*Very good thank you*", and hedges such as "*I think*", "*maybe*", "*can*" "*could*".



Picture 6: The student appreciates the teacher's information.

Throughout the interaction in extract 5.5, a lot of mitigations and hedging are used in the teacher's discourse that tentatively lead the student towards decision-making, such as the vague language "*kind of, sort of, looks like*"; hedges "*can you, that might be, that would be, you know, that's a possibility, I mean, if you want to*". The teacher's criticisms seem to be modified as the student appreciates the information given (in line 113) and accepts it as a possible example for future development in line 121. The use of this kind of language reflects

the teacher’s awareness of the importance of politeness and the need for the student’s face-saving strategies when she makes a criticism. At the end of the discussion, the teacher has filled up the ‘information gap’, needed by the student for future development of the paper, without appearing over-directive.

In extract 5.6 above, throughout the whole interaction the teacher uses scaffolding strategies in attempting to develop the student idea. The table below shows the scaffolding instruction that starts when the teacher identifies the student’s problem and wants to develop the idea further. This instruction seems to create learning space and builds up the student’s contribution, or helps the student’s decision-making.

Table 3: Scaffolding Instructions

See extract 5.6 TT3--LT1 (lines 94-122)

Teacher’s words	Student’s words	Commentary
<Can you think of a comparable um (.) company in food distribution that (.) looks like that>↑		T’s possible suggestion: open question: Teacher suggests student to find out comparable company
	Huhehe no hehehe ((shaking her head))	S’s lack of knowledge: student hasn’t got an idea about that (lower voice)
How about body shop↑		T’s second possible suggestion: open question (Follow-up question)
	Um	S’s minimal response
Do you know body shop↑		T’s closed question
	Yeah I know ((nodding her head))	S’s acknowledgement
Yes (.) is that: in many countries >do you know↑		T’s more informed closed question
	Yeah I (do know) (.) £It’s also in Latvia and HERE I KNOW (I think so) ((smiling))	S’s acknowledgement: student probably uses that source
That might be something to look at that yes look at there (.) the way they work Um: the um <their sourcing (0.5) their: the way they		T’s explicit instruction: teacher provides more clear and explicit information but leaves decision making to the student

treat their employees and all of those things and see if .hh		
	Very good thank you	S's appreciation: Student are pleased to get some ideas from the teacher
ok that's a possibility (.) I was trying to think of what (.) the <u>food</u> is more difficult because it's a .hhh more localised in the market and your sources=		T's explanation for the possibility: Teacher still leaves decision making to the student
	YEAH:: YEAH:: it's <u>REALLY</u> it's ur <u>REALLY</u> I also think about maybe something from Coca Cola .hh because	S's development of her own ideas: student explains her own idea enthusiastically (louder voice)
Yes that would be (an initial) comparison yes .hhhh		T's acceptance: teacher accepts student's idea (negotiation)
	maybe I can (look at) in the in the body shop	S's acceptance: student possibly accepts teacher's suggestion
YES (.) YES (.) We'll just see um I mean it's you know if you want to keep this (.) the reasons for their success (.)		T's summarising: Teacher summarises what the student probably do

Note that when the teacher is trying to initiate or extend discussion, she tries to invite elaboration with the use of questions and necessary information: *Can you think of a comparable um (.) company in food distribution that (.) looks like that*>↑' (first suggestion: open question) → *How about Body Shop?* (second suggestion: open question) → *Do you know Body Shop?* (Closed question) → *is that, in many countries do you know?* (more informed closed question) → *look at there (.) the way they work, their sourcing...* (more clear explicit instruction) → *Yes that would be* (an initial) comparison (agreement). The use of elucidative language begins with an open question, then narrows down the topic and finally provides information explicitly, so that the student can focus on her needs in full.

With regard to the teacher's scaffolding features described above, there is plenty of teacher support talk in the "Feedback" (F) move (See IRF move in Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). The teacher's F-move has primarily an evaluation function, e.g. explicit acceptance or rejection, "good, yes, no", that co-occurs with the display question in Initiation move. However, it also

plays a discursual role in supporting learning, depending on how teachers can use it. This is aimed at picking up the student's contributions and incorporating them into the interaction. For example, when the teacher learns about the student's current understanding of her problem, e.g. lack of her knowledge and difficulty in developing her idea, the teacher does not make any judgemental evaluation and provides necessary information for developing the student's idea. This allows continuous student dialogue that leads to active student participation, as can be seen from the student's self-selected turn in line 116, and the longer turn in lines 116 to 118, and line 121. In other words, with the discursual role, the student is actively involved in instructing her learning and becomes able to make significant decisions about how to develop her idea in terms of her essay. During the student's contribution, the teacher gives constant speaker support, saying "u-hm" or "Yes", to show her interest in her idea and involvement in the discussion, rather than evaluation of the student's talk. At the end of the discussion, she agrees with what the student has said with the utterance "YES YES", and closes up by clearly showing future actions for her and the student.

5.4 Summary

This chapter described and explored the teacher-student interaction, aimed at understanding EAP writing teachers' talk with their students during writing conferences. With the descriptive framework, the chapter is concerned with "what happens" as representative, rather than "why it happens" as comprehensive. In this chapter, it is clear, I believe, from these extracts that a teacher can use various interactional features or strategies to facilitate a space for learning and shaping students' meaningful contributions. From the six extracts above, when inviting a student into joint action, the teachers use a number of interactional strategies, which are as follows:

i) The teacher questions are designed to create and maintain a shared and open environment with their students:

- To reflect the students' experience, e.g. "How do you feel about your first draft yourself?" – the questions seem to be designed to discover the students' initial understanding of the potential problems, as the students engage in the interaction within an appropriate frame of reference to be given opportunity to explicitly evaluate their writing problem themselves, e.g. the self-evaluation shown in extracts 5.1, 5.2, 5.3. The student writing problem then becomes personalised and noticeable or visible, as the teachers can adopt or reformulate the topic or the

issues that arise in the students' talk and guide them to ensure their understanding (Laurillard, 2002).

- To explore student ideas using why, what and how questions; e.g. *"What do you think you can improve on it?"* (line 6 in extract 5.2). These questions invite the students' explanation of their thoughts or an exploratory talk; e.g. the use of reasoning words, *"because"*, *"so"*, *"if"*, *"for example"*. The teacher expects the students to arrive at a realisation and understanding of their essay problems themselves. However, if the students show difficulty in solving the problem, the teacher provides explicit explanations or possible suggestions, as can be seen in extracts 5.1, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6.

- To scaffold student ideas using various question forms that provide suggestions, checking and asking, such as *"can you think..."*, *"how about"*, *"do you know?"*, *"do you think?"*. The scaffolding instruction appears to enable students to explore their thinking continuously within the contextual framework that they are encountering. This enables the shaping of learner contribution, resulting in the student *"fulfilling the gap"* (Walsh, 2003).

ii) The teachers can use a different interactive approach between authoritative and dialogic to meet the goal of the pedagogy. On the one hand, an authoritative approach appears when the student asks about missing information directly or indirectly, e.g. *"I don't know (hh) WHY ..."* (line 11 in extract 5.4), or when the teacher intends to provide necessary information or professional help as an expert, or to close the topic, or to close the student's talk forcefully. On the other hand, the dialogic teaching approach emerges when the teacher explores or supports the students towards extending their turns; including articulating their point of view, explaining ideas, evaluating ideas, etc. A key issue is the quality of the talk in terms of the teacher's decision-making on what is the best for the student in that moment.

iii) The teachers use a number of interactional strategies which are positive and supportive in a way that:

- The use of various discourse markers seem to be designed to help and shape the student understanding, e.g. *ok*, *right*, *well* (opening of the conversation), *so* (closing off by summarising), *but* (modify or contradict what has been on before), *and if*, *because* (cause and effect), etc. These markers signpost or signal to the student that the students can be more aware of the structure.

- The use of a louder voice by showing her interest, changing the personal pronoun from “I” to “US”, showing her involvement in the task.

- The use of a lot of mitigation and hedges, such as “*kind of*”, “*sort of*”, “*looks like*”, “*can you*”, “*that might be*”, “*that would be*”, “*you know*”, “*that’s a possibility*”, “*I mean*”, “*if you want to*”, showing that they have the same values, which protects the student’s positive face, or the use of provisional language, such as “*As long as that’s not going to make you too much more WO:RK ...*”, showing the teacher as a co-constructor, agreeing with what the student has said, which also implies that negotiation is possible.

- The use of sufficient “wait time”, where the teacher maintains pauses or silences or backchannels, allowing the students to think more carefully about the issue that they are encountering. We can see these when providing an opportunity to express the student’s initial ideas or knowledge, e.g. lines 86 to 89 in extract 5.6, and developing her own ideas clearly, e.g. lines 116 to 118 in extract 5.6. This also enables the student’s own turn completion, which is a much greater portion of the discourse without teacher intervention, as the student uses these stretches of the discourse to elaborate on her own idea. The student has the benefit of sufficient wait time for increasing confidence and enthusiasm for the topic and increasing appropriate responses, as shown in extract 5.6 (see also Edward, 1992; Nunan, 1991).

- Little intention to repair the student’s error; rather, the teacher concentrates on the content problem that the student is encountering. For example, in extract 5.6, though there are a lot of voiced phrases (ur or er) in line 86; repetition (*maybe*) in line 86; rephrasing (I *should er I could*) in line 86; and missing words (*it’s ur maybe with ur who offers*), the teacher does not interrupt the student’s talk, but allows the student to complete her talk. However, if the teacher does not understand the student talk, she repairs it e.g. “=VO $\hat{\uparrow}$:DAFONE”, as shown in extract 5.3.

- Through the use of non-verbal expressions, such as smiling, nodding, maintaining eye contact, pointing at the paper, hand gestures, and looking at the student’s lips to repair the student’s pronunciation problem, and so on, which are shown in pictures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6; the teachers try to establish and maintain warmth and a rapport with their students.

5.5 Conclusion

As shown above, teachers use a number of interactional strategies for joint action with students in teacher-student conferences; for example, questioning, providing information, reformulation, scaffolding, rephrasing, sign-posting and mitigating. In doing so, the teachers use strategies related to establishing resources of common knowledge to build a shared contextual frame of reference; e.g. their writing problem. Through the use of appropriate interactional strategies, this personalised shared problem or error is treated as a conversational resource, which raises an important issue where the students are given opportunities to explore and articulate their ideas for developing their understanding, or the expertise of the teachers provides relevant information or suggestions as a form of feedback. These two ways of helping are sometimes intertwined; coming backward and forward with a personalised focus may be related to establishing and maintaining the learner in the “IDZ” (Mercer, 2002) where available, to collect necessary information and to negotiate each other’s view. Eventually, all teachers in this study are involved in joint activity, which encourages student participation to develop their understanding using a number of interactional strategies. As Swain (1995) suggests, the language learning/writing classroom may need to create its own context where there are sufficient opportunities for second language learners to be guided to produce extended stretches of discourse, which leads to students’ meaningful contributions. Students cannot expect to acquire second language competence automatically. In the language classroom, adequate teacher talk is of crucial importance and is especially needed for success. In the next chapter, I will explore the scaffolding technique further.

CHAPTER 6 THE SCAFFOLDING TECHNIQUE IN TEACHER-STUDENT WRITING CONFERENCES

As observed in Chapter 5, one of my interests has been how teachers can jointly construct knowledge with their students. Teachers can use a number of interactional strategies to encourage their students to reflect on what they have been doing; to make explicit their own thoughts; and to help clarify understanding through questioning, the use of different discourse approaches, and a number of other interactional strategies. These strategies are key to Alexander's (2000) dialogic teaching, in that the students jointly and actively construct understanding through interactions with their teachers, although, in some ways, the students still need interaction with the teacher, as an "expert knower", leading to students' understanding. In this chapter, I explore further the processes of teacher and student interaction, and the extent to which the teacher's use of scaffolding strategies are taken in terms of active roles in the supporting and shaping of students' contributions, rather than only using the principle of the handover strategy (van Lier, 1996). More specifically, in what ways do teachers support students' extended dialogues and guide their learning as a part of the feedback on the student writing process? How can learning activities for academic literacy development be mediated or negotiated through discussions between teachers and students? The extracts have been selected to illustrate the importance of dialogic teaching on how teachers scaffold students' ideas and help students make substantial and thoughtful contributions, and in which teachers and students jointly construct meaning in the EAP writing conferences.

6.1 Scaffolding technique

The most striking feature of dialogic teaching is how it encourages both teacher and student to engage in interaction that is principally aimed at achieving common understanding, through structured, cumulative questioning and discussion (Alexander, 2000). However, much research claims that there is little scaffolding dialogue in the learning activity, although it is key in enabling students to voice their thoughts and views, and potentially increase the student's engagement with problems at a deeper level (Alexander, 2008c; Gibbons, 2002; van Lier 1996; Walsh, 2008; Mercer, 2000). I illustrate some scaffolding techniques used by the teacher in the teacher-student interaction in writing conferences through examples, starting with extract 6.1.

In the extract below, the teacher is talking with a student from Brazil about how to change her

essay.

Extract 6.1: Inviting student elaboration

TT5-BF1 (1.30-4.32) T: teacher S: student

The whole interaction length was 13.32 minutes. Her topic was: “Is it possible to reduce our use of fossil fuel?”

5T	What would you change?
6S	I don't know the references
7T	Um::
8S	Um: maybe the title (.)
9T	The <u>Title</u> (.) ok (.) How would you (.) what you gonna change with the title?
10S	No idea ((smiling))
11T	Ok humhuhu.hh um:: in what way do you want to change then?
12S	YEP ↑because I am talking about Kyoto protocol
13T	Yes (.) Your title is (.) is it possible to reduce the use of fossil plants
14S	Yeah
15T	Um (5.0) and you feel that perhaps it's not? (1.0)
16S	YEAH:: it is not trendy (.) I don't want to do that (.)
17T	WELL: I think it's a good title but I think you need to be clear what you are focusing on (.) [(You search)]
18S	[Like <u>assessing</u>] or
19T	something like focusing on the Kyoto protocol (.)
20S	Um:: or in what ways does the Kyoto protocol help us to think about the use of fossil fuel or something like that?
21S	Yeah ((nodding))

In the above example, we see a number of questions voiced by the teacher until the student finally makes explicit their thoughts and reasoning in lines 12 and 16; e.g. “Because it's not trendy”. The teacher keeps asking for the student's ideas, in terms of changes to the title and using different questions (lines 5, 7, 9, 11, 13 and 15). The teacher's questions function in two ways: on the one hand, she refers back to the student's question (line 9) and reformulates it (line 11). As this teacher's interest gives the student a bigger voice (Cazden, 2001), the student seems to give her opinion or idea (e.g. “YEP↑because I am talking...”, “YEAH:: it is not trendy (.) I don't want to do that”). On the other hand, when the talk contains the teacher's viewpoints, including evaluation of her talk, explicit elaboration and possible suggestions (e.g. “Well: I think it's a good title”, “I think you need to be clear ...”, “in what way...”), it is likely to be considered by the student. What is notable about this interaction is that, through cumulative questions and elaborate instruction to the student, the student is given the opportunity to engage with problems that she has encountered, to make explicit her own ideas with reasons, and to better understand her problem.

In this interaction, the teacher's talk employs a mostly authoritative function related to politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987), which seem to invite the student's active contributions. While she uses the conditional tense ("would"), low modality ("perhaps", "think") and hesitation ("um", pausing) to mitigate her authority, which seem to be negotiatory, she also uses high modality ("need to") and second person singular ("you") to make her voice sound more authoritative, especially when summarising her own advice. In addition, the teacher's invitation includes "what" (5), "how" (9) and "in what way" (11), seemingly to facilitate the student's ability to find some reasoning in her extended contributions. Through the teacher's scaffolding talk, which involves encouraging student participation and explicit instruction, the student is able to express her ideas and to give reasons for them, so as to arrive at an understanding of her problem.

In interactive teacher-student writing conferences, where students engage in joint learning activity, the students' own ideas certainly develop and, through the teacher's cumulative questions and clear instruction, as seen above, students improve their understanding in relation to their essay. Yet there are frequent problems in getting clarification on any comments that teachers have made, and there is little opportunity for clarification whenever there are unclear points or potential misunderstandings (Ferris, 2003). Students may leave problems and misunderstandings unvoiced and may not take an active role, or will just act passively. Under this view, there is an argument that the teacher must be certain that they are providing sufficient opportunity for the student to ask questions regarding any unclear points and avoid potential misunderstandings.

The following example offers a brief view of different levels of dialogic talk. When the teacher creates mutual engagement for learning, the student seems to be able to take an active role, which shows a more balanced nature of talk in the end. Starting from no or few student ideas, the teacher tries to explore student ideas in full and negotiate them. The teacher is talking with a Brazilian student, who has encountered a serious problem in his writing.

Extract 6.2: Creating mutual engagement-building from previous experience (against plagiarism)

TT2-BM1 (01:23-2:31) T: teacher-Tania S: student-Jeremy

The whole interaction length was 14.26 minutes. The topic was: "What will happen, if we ran out of petrol?"

1T	((looking at S's paper)) NOW (.) The FIRST part (.) is ENTI↑RELY plagiarized from this source =
2S	=um u-hum ((rubbing his face))
3T	=Okay (.) That's not accept↑able (1.0) because you've used=
4S	=>but I put <u>THIS</u> here ((pointing his paper))<=
5T	Yeah (.) You've used exactly same words (.)= ((looking at S's paper))
6S	=So::
7T	>You are< <u>NOT</u> allowed to do that (.)
8S	U-hum
9T	If you're going to quote [(.)] then you put quotation marks [(.)] but this would be much too long [(.)]
10S	[u-hum] [u-hum] [u-hum]
11T	to quote[(.)] and you wouldn't start an essay [with a long quote] like that [(.)]
12S	[u-hum] [u-hum u-hum] [u-hum]
13T	Okay (.) You know (.) it's not appropriate anyway=
14S	==u-hum
15T	We Americans ((underlining in his paper)) You are <u>Not</u> an American ((seeing his face))
16T	I am not American ((smiling)) okay [(.) um::]so really (.) that's a <u>Really Really</u> bad start=
17S	[u-hum u-hum yeah]
18S	=u-hum
19T	Okay (.hh) um: You <u>MUSN</u> 'T do it (.) Did you <u>Miss</u> the lecture on plagiarism↑
20S	No (.) I w↑as there=
21T	=You were <u>th</u> ere (.) so (.) they explained quite carefully what you can do[(.)]and what you can't do (.)
22S	[u-hum]
23S	> But I thought < <u>Maybe</u> if I will like copy (.) so I figured to er: the reference in it's okay?
24T	No (.) >that sort of things< You <u>CAN</u> 'T do (.) .hhh um: You can <u>pa</u> ↑raphrase (.) that means you can say the same thing in
25T	your <u>OWN</u> words (.)[.hh] That's good [(.)] I want <u>you</u> to do that [(.)]if you're going to use somebody's words=
26S	[um] [um]
27S	=u-hm u-hm
28T	Um: you must either quote (.) quotation marks (1.0) or <u>inde</u> :nt (.) that means you put it in so it's very clear that it's not your
29T	Words
30S	Then if I will changed the words (.) inside
31T	Ye:s(.)
32S	But the point will be still the same (.)
33T	Ye:s
34S	Should I be rephrasing?
35T	Then oh <u>yes</u> !(.) you must(. yes you put (X thousand) ok(. so this direct quotation ok(. is no more plagiarism(. ok so
36T	You mustn't do that [(.)] It's very obvious when students do it [(.)]
37S	[u-hm u-hm] [u-hm u-hm]
38T	So you get picked up right away (.) it's very very clear (.)

Note that the teacher is trying to set up a mutual engagement and inter-subjectivity of attention to make the student aware of the issue, i.e. plagiarism, in line 19: “Did you Miss the lecture on plagiarism[↑]”. Until then, there is mostly only the teacher’s authoritative talk in the first half of the interaction. The teacher begins with evaluative comments, in which she takes a role as an expert or evaluator of the student’s writing. She uses language with strict judgments because she may believe that the student’s problem is serious: she signals the start of her comments with a high-pitched and louder voice, “The FIRST part (.) is ENTI[↑]RELY plagiarized” (line 1), and she explains why plagiarism is a problem, “That’s not accept[↑]able” (line 3), “>You are < NOT allowed to do that” (line 7), “it’s not appropriate anyway” (line 13); and then summarises her talk: “so really (.) that’s a Really Really bad start” (line 16), “You MUSN’T do it” (line 18). Overall, the teacher’s turns come continuously in the interaction. These interactions are judgemental and dominant; there are no negotiating or mitigating signs, such as smiling, a softer voice or laughter. Although the student tries once to mention a reference in line 4, “but I put THIS here ((pointing his paper))”, there is no further opportunity for student participation and most of his turns remain “*u-hum*” – a total of 13 times until line 18.

However, from line 19, the level of contributions is balanced between the teacher and the student. The teacher is trying to focus on what the student has learnt in his earlier lesson, e.g. the lecture on plagiarism, “Did you Miss the lecture on plagiarism[↑]” in line 19, so as to set up mutual engagement. This teacher’s setting makes the student focus on the present issue, with the teacher seeming to lead the student participation. Although the student has attended the training lecture on plagiarism, and had already been given valuable information about the importance of authorship –“a voice” – which is the main source of power in writing (Elbow, 1973), he was left unaffected by it. We can see his misunderstanding of the issue of plagiarism in line 23: “> But I thought < Maybe if I will like copy (.) so I figured to er: the reference in it’s okay?”

Through the teacher’s scaffolding dialogue, the student is able to clarify what was wrong and how to solve the problem, so that he can clearly establish the rules on plagiarism; e.g. “Then if I will changed the words (.) inside ... Should I be rephrasing?” The student takes up a role as an active learner to clarify his understanding, while the teacher listens carefully, providing the student with an opportunity to clarify his problem. In addition, he is given sufficient individual support with clear explanations by the teacher: “you put (X thousand) ok (.) so this direct

quotation ok (.) is no more plagiarism (.)”, in line 35.

In extract 6.2, the level of dialogic support is different, which somewhat echoes different teaching approaches between authoritative and dialogic, as discussed in Chapter 5.2. On the one hand, for the first half the teacher takes the role as dominant, as she critically judges the student’s work on the issue of plagiarism with great authority. In the interaction, while the teacher mostly dominates through monologue, the student is able to understand his problem, though he merely has an opportunity to articulate his opinions, so there is little negotiation in process (see more examples of the teacher as expert to provide necessary information in Appendix V-A-14)TT4 lines 102-115). On the other hand, from the second half the teacher takes a more prominent role, as she tries to share previous experience on what he has learnt in an earlier lesson, so as to build the student’s mutual understanding and to focus his attention on the actual issue. In this way, when the student engages with the common topic, e.g. previous experience, he is able to become a joint speaker or active learner in order to clarify what he does not understand (see more examples of the student as active learner to clarify unclear points in Appendix V-A-13)TT3 lines 68-81). Through scaffolded guidance, both teacher and student have a chance to share their opinions, or have to seek a mutually acceptable explanation, which leads to the student’s fuller understanding of potential misunderstandings.

However, teacher-student discussion does not always reach a joint agreement or joint decision with smooth transaction; rather it is sometimes threatened by the role or status of individuals in the education community, where authoritative individuals often speak out to protect their intended interests (Mercer, 2000:118). In addition, the student may also exercise control over the structure of the talk by resisting dynamic situations (Benwell and Stokoe, 2002). For example, the teacher may not be interested in the student’s own views. Rather, their talk may involve strong judgemental evaluations of the student’s opinions or essay. In some cases, the resistance from the student seems to be strong and the student might be willing to take responsibility for the co-construction of knowledge. Nevertheless, control always goes back to the teacher in the end. The following short extract demonstrates the tactical use of institutional power by the teacher to achieve a specific end: in this case, the teacher’s purpose is to have her advice accepted after an argument lasting 39 minutes.

Extract 6.3: Institutional power

RT3-IM1 (39.58-40.42) T: teacher-Rose S: student-Steve

The whole interaction length was 42.26 minutes. The topic was: “A discussion about structuralism and Existentialism”

1T	I am afraid it will fail (.)
2S	uhm=
3T	=It won't (0.2) because it won't be academic ok? You you've got to back it up (.) say you've got things wrong (.) alright↑
4S	=°It's ok°
5T	It: I mean you know your stuff so well so it shouldn't be that difficult
6S	°Ok ok° Haaa hhh. ((sighs))
7T	OK(.) so(.)I am sorry to be a little bit um::depressing(.)I mean I actually thought it was very good(.) ur what you've done (.)
8T	I just want to make sure that you'll pa:ss (.) Two big things you've got to do (.) you've got to make your text academic (.)
9T	You've got more readable (.) ok there are ur two things work on (.) you know you've already done bulk of the work (.)
10S	°Alright (.) that's ok°

Although the sample does not show the full story of the participants' arguments, it does enable us to see that the agreement has been reached forcefully by the teacher's warning. However, there is some mitigation of power, which shows some sense of alignment by the teacher in lines 5, and 7 to 9. The teacher creates a sense of alignment in telling the truth about the student's current reality, so that the student can revise the essay based on the teacher's advice. In fact, the teacher's advice was not based on knowledge of academic subjects, which could have led to the student's acceptance or agreement much earlier than the current agreement. The teacher's advice may not be always accepted, but it cannot be ignored if there is an institutional power relationship; e.g. scoring or grading.

Apart from power relationships, many scholars (Leki, 1990; Conrad and Goldstein, 1999) argue that student writers must consider the expectations of the readers, so writers' textual intentions and ownership must be balanced by the increasing knowledge of the readers. When the teacher-expert shares their responsibilities with students in the communicative negotiation process, the student writers may help their intentions or meanings to be clear. This can encourage students to find their own voice and to take responsibility for their work; hence it fosters learner autonomy.

The next example portrays how a student from Ukraine develops his own voice through the teacher's counter question.

Extract 6.4: Sharing learning responsibility with student – a counter question to the student

RT8-UM2 (7:58-9:37) T: teacher-Rose S: student- Kay

The whole interaction length was 16.48 minutes. The topic was: “Poverty on Africa”

1T	eh::(1.0) eh:: and I I think (.) perhaps if you bring er looking for solutions you should have to think about um: would
2T	it be talking about solutions for: countries in general (.) African countries in general? or would you .hh say that what
3T	Kenya needs to do is .hh what UGANDA needs to do is? =
4S	=um:[: er: er: no]<I don't think er I would (1.0) er choose er and talk about the each country(1.0) so:: try (not) to
5T	[°something else°]
6S	find solutions for each country? er I think I I =
7T	= but HOW can you find solutions for Africa if you don't find solutions for the countries in
8T	Africa .hh
9S	because em I (.) I'll (.) er I'll try to:: like to talk about possible solutions for ur the ORIGIN=
10T	=right
11S	not not for not for each country=
12T	=right (.) and and to to some of those solutions involve the rest of the world like (.) ur giving aids and::
13S	YEAH: YEAH: OF COURSE
14T	Alright (.) ok (.)

In the extract above, the teacher first draws attention to the solutions as a problematic content issue in the Ukraine student’s draft, and asks about further development: whether the student would deal with solutions for African countries in general, or for each country in Africa, in lines 1 to 3. Although the student confirms and elaborates his intention, that he wouldn’t deal with each country individually, “um:: er: er: no<I don’t think er I would (1.0) er choose er and talk about the each country (1.0)” (line 5), the teacher interrupts the student’s turn, as we see the student signalling his talk: “er I think I I =” (line 6). The teacher asks the counter question, “=but HOW can you find solutions for Africa...”, in lines 7 and 8. This counter question seems to challenge the student to seek a logical reason, as he begins with “because...”, rather than “I think”. Such a question seems to help the student to make meaning clear. The counter question is used as a follow-up instead of the teacher providing evaluation. Markee’s (2004:585) study also shows that such challenges can be made either by learners or by teachers, and can encourage students’ contributions in a logical manner. As the teacher raises the issue of the logical solutions using a question in line 7, the student is able to explain it more logically in line 9. So they both reach an agreement in the end in lines 12 and 13.

In this extract, the register of the teacher’s language is similar to other extracts: the teacher often uses hedges when she is trying to mitigate her talk, e.g. “I think”, “perhaps”, “if”, “would it be possible”, “would you say”. This indicates how the teacher creates an opportunity for the

student, who often lacks confidence in his ability to express himself in his second language. Such students also facing a new discourse community will be relieved that there is an opportunity to revisit and reinterpret that talk. This kind of mitigation by the teacher may, therefore, encourage student contribution. The results in extract 6.4 suggest that, when the teachers are trying to share their responsibility with students, learners can be invited into the discussion, where they will have a chance to clarify information and so fully understand its real meaning.

6.2 Summary

My observation in Chapter 6 provides explicit recognition of the role of dialogic teachers that used scaffolding techniques during the teacher-student writing conferences. The question is how best to enable learners' joint endeavours. The scaffolding techniques available to teachers as a range of interactional strategies (which can lead to the joint achievement of meaningful activity with the student) can be distinguished by the following characteristics:

1. The teacher invited the students to talk, not just to ask the student for their opinions, but to elaborate on the information that the student provided. The teacher often used cumulative questions and explicit elaborations to enable the student to articulate their opinions and provide explicit reasoning. More importantly, at the end, both teacher and student reached an agreement (e.g. see extract 6.1).
2. The teacher created a mutual engagement to connect new and old knowledge, e.g. previous lessons or the student's own experience. The teacher often made a bridge to link the subject matter with the student's real-life situation or own experience to encourage the student to ask questions on any unclear points or potential misunderstandings. This seems to create opportunities for the student's further clarification or contributions (e.g. see extract 6.2).
3. The teacher shared their expertise and responsibilities for their learning with the students. The teacher does not seem simply to provide an answer to the student, rather they offer a counter argument for the student to think about their own ideas critically. This seems to change the student's attitude from passive to active participation; it seems to stimulate the student's thinking to argue against a particular point that the teacher had made (e.g. see extract 6.4).

6.3 Conclusion

The scaffolding techniques used by the teachers in Chapter 5 would seem to link to an “Intermental Development Zone” (Mercer, 2000), where teachers and learners use talk and joint activities to create a shared communicative space on the contextual foundation of “their common knowledge and aims” (p. 141). As Mercer (2000:141) points out:

the quality of teaching and learning may come from joint contributions between learner and teacher, rather than coming from only the expert side. If the teacher is able to maintain the “intermental development zone” (IDZ) or “inter thinking” process, a learner [is able]...to operate just beyond their established capabilities, and to consolidate this experience as new abilities and understanding.

This implies a dynamic and interactive development through dialogue, and is clearly related to the contributions of both teacher and learner. The assumption is that, if there is a teacher with appropriate scaffolding technique in an interactional activity, the student will be invited to explore or pursue their understanding of ideas or issues that arise in the writing process. Throughout my study, though I have discussed some features of interactional strategies in Chapter 5, this chapter has focused more on the scaffolding techniques used by teachers in teacher-student writing conferences in order to illustrate a new level of understanding of joint activity. In the next chapter, I will look at a quite different type of student learning through peer writing conference, wherein students play the role of peer tutor and negotiate their views with each other. I will examine how peer members manage their roles and negotiate each others’ views.

CHAPTER 7 TAKING OTHERS' VIEWS IN PEER WRITING CONFERENCES

As mentioned in the earlier chapters, while a number of studies are focused on peer collaborative learning, there is limited observation of peers' actual interaction within empirical evidence in L2 contexts. Such empirical studies can improve the understanding of potential benefits in the use of quality talk in peer collaborative learning (Mercer and Littleton, 2007). In this chapter, with regard to the importance of student-student writing conferences on the process of EAP student writers' collaborative learning, interactions are analysed on what discourse roles are adopted by peers in writing conferences, how they negotiate through sessions of talk, and how peers negotiate comments on each others' writing. I use the terms "peer tutor" and "peer tutee" because, during whole-class discussion time (training sessions), before they start the writing conferences, the teachers briefly mention the format of the role of "peer tutor" and "peer tutee", and discuss how peer tutors provide comments on student writing.

This chapter consists of four major sections. Section 7.1 explores peer tutors' role construction, where they engage in the peer writing conference for academic literacy development. Section 7.2 discusses peer tutees' rejection and its negotiation process. Section 7.3 discusses peer tutees' counter challenges and its negotiation, section 7.4 discusses dynamic role changes, and section 7.5 summarises peer role construction and negotiation of peer views. Section 7.6 concludes this chapter.

7.1 Construction of the role of peer tutor

In the first extract below, two female student writers and one male student writer, Ann, Sofia and Dane, from Cyprus, Mexico and South Africa, are sitting in a triangle in a classroom in which the teacher, Tania, has arranged a group activity. They have evaluation sheets with them. I have selected this extract at the beginning point, where one student, Ann, nominates herself for the role of "peer tutor" to explore how peers construct their talk. At this point, peers have been engaged in the peer feedback activity for about 5 minutes and Ann is beginning her feedback on Sofia's essay.

Extract 7.1 Peer's role construction

TP2-SMC (5:55-7.40) A: Ann, S: Sofia D: Dane

The whole interaction length was 8.26 minutes.

1A	((looking at S's face)) °You know as Dane said (.) I don't know (.) I found it easy to read°=
2S	HEHe::=
3A	=AND: hehe And °arguments are really strong (.) you know your supporting stuff and I mean (XXX)°
4S	Ah? Hihi
5A	°I didn't find (what was wrong)° your grammar [haha £ (xxx)] because) I am not <u>good</u> at this [haha]=
6S	[A-HAHAHA] [HAHA]HAHAHAHA
7D	There's one you keep repeating=
8S	Like WHAT?
9D	You know another word more over?
10S	Yeah more over (.)
11D	You said over more (.)
12S	Over more (.) oh.hh no:!! ((looking at her paper)) <u>YES!</u>
13A	YEAH Hihihih
14D	£ Whole entry I've been thinking what [was she trying to say (xxx)]=
15S	[hehehe [he .hhhhh]] £ over <u>More</u> (.) more over HAahahah
16A	[hehehehe]((drinking her water))
17S	.hh Excuse me (.) my boy friend didn't check it this time
18D	(XX) You've got a potential (.) that's really good so (.)Yeah
19S	I think I need more references (.) I only had SIX references (.) and I find if I like um::
20D	Um: I don't know um:: I don't know if you could probably add references now (.) coz that would be adding more
21D	writing isn't it
22S	Yeah (.) Well: I mean=
23D	= You've got six references (.) it doesn't matter (.) I mean that's how much you used (.) and you supported what I
24D	want (.) you used six (.) good references that's fine (.)=
25S	=(nodding)=
26D	=I think I only use five or six references from the online (.) but um:: the thing is that all these website are
27D	actually put references for individual places on the website so (xxxxxxxxxx)
28S	O::kay (xxx)

In this extract, we see three student writers talking through their draft essays. Ann starts to take the role of peer tutor (self-selection: Sacks et al. 1974). Ann looks at Sofia's face and attempts to give her feedback by making a connection between Dane's feedback provided earlier and her current feedback: "*You know as Dane said*" (meta-discourse, see Hyland, 2000). In fact, Dane has already given feedback to Sofia that her paper was very good for arguments, but she needed to change her grammar: "*Your grammar and stuff like um I think it was difficult to read because... but I think...everything was very good like contents your arguments...*" (see

Appendix V-B-6)TP2 lines 4-7). However, Ann's role construction as peer tutor seems not as straightforward and appears to be rather complex.

Ann shows her hesitation over the role of talking with authority, explicitly and implicitly. She signals it herself, saying "*I don't know*" (line 1), and states it explicitly in her later turn, "*I didn't find (what was wrong) ° your grammar ...I am not good at this*" (line 5), with implicit compounds of laughter "[*haha*]=" (line 5). (Students' hesitation over the peer tutor role is also found in Appendix V-B-9, student-student writing conferences. We also see two student writers talking through their draft essays in Appendix V-B-9. Before S1 begins evaluation of S2's essay, S1 was about to start providing comments by self-election (Sacks et al. 1974) of the peer tutor role, but shows his hesitation in taking on the role of authority, using phrases like "*in My opinion*" (line 1), "*Ur:: The:: Ur:: Literature review I think (2.0)*"(line 3). He uses a lot of hedges e.g. "*just*", "*you know*", "*I think*", "*maybe*" and the high modality "*should*".)

On the other hand, Ann nominates herself as peer tutor and is able to provide positive comments, which are extended to more precise evaluation: "*I found it easy to read...arguments are really strong (.) you know your supporting stuff ...*" (lines 1 and 3). However, compared to Ann, Dane takes on the role of peer tutor directly. Dane provides a notification of Sofia's error first: "*There's one you keep repeating*" (line 7). Sofia does not know about her error; she requests for identification of her error, asking "*Like WHAT?*" (line 8). Dane then seeks her confirmation that Sofia could identify the error: "*You know another word more over?*" (line 9). When she confirms the understanding of the words, he identifies her error: "*You said over more (.)*". Although Dane identifies the error, Sofia clarifies it by repeating it and looking at her paper with short exclamations: "*Over more (.) oh.hh no:!(looking at her paper)) YES !?*". Sofia's error identification is related to preference action, supported by Schegloff et al's. (1977) study that people tend to prefer to repair their action or their behaviour by themselves, not from others. Direct correction of the error in front of the group can cause loss of face for Sofia. Indirect ways of correction, using questions and sufficient time for self-correction, could possibly reduce Sofia's embarrassment and further the promotion of social cohesion, as we can see in Sofia's question in the next turn.

Following Dane's comments, Sofia asks whether she could find more references in line 19; however, she did not receive any answer in request for clarification of her question: "*Well: I mean*" in line 22. This is due to her hesitance in line 19, "*like um:::*" , or Dane's interruption

“=” in line 23 . When Sofia listens for her answer from Dane (“*but the things is that all these websites are actually put references for individual place on the websites so...*”) in lines 26-7, she seems to agree and to respect Dane’s opinion, showing some signs of agreement, e.g. ((nodding)), “O::kay” (lines 25 and 28).

Regarding Dane’s attitude towards taking the role of peer tutor, he does leave space for Sofia to give her own answer to the problem, “*if you could probably...*” (line 20), “*good references that’s fine*”, although he interrupts Sofia’s talk twice in lines 19 and 22. In other words, Dane does not provide the answer straightaway; instead, he tries to help Sofia to decide whether she used only six references herself, using his experience later (lines 26 and 27): “*I only use five or six references ...*”.

It seems that laughter is an important sign of emotion in relation to particular environments. In this extract, laughter seems to be used to cover a form of embarrassment or insecurity about the role taking as “peer tutor”. As can be seen, Ann produces laughter without exchanging jokes or funny stories; rather, she laughs when she cannot deal with a grammatical error. This reflects her tension in her role of peer tutor, in which she is unfamiliar or inexperienced. However, more interesting with regard to the burst of laughter is that it is jointly constructed. Here laughter seems to create and to maintain group solidarity, with all members being equals. Ann, with Sofia, shows that Ann strengthens the sense of equality with the laughter, indicating an undermining of the role of peer tutor, in that she is actually only self-nominated as peer tutor, and for Sofia to support this as an equal. In addition, two students, Ann and Sofia, echo the laughter, showing that they too are equal; for example, “*HEhe*”-“*hehe*” (lines 2 and 3); “*haha*”-“*A-HAHAHAHAHAHA*” (lines 5 and 6); “*hehehehe*”- “*hehehehehe*” (lines 15 and 16). This also shows the role management of each peer group member, in that the peer tutee, Sofia, may want to show her acknowledgement of an issue (line 2), or to preserve the peer tutor’s face (in this case, Ann’s face) (line 5) (Brown & Levinson, 1987), or to allow the main channel to remain open (lines 2 and 6), so that the speakers can speak continuously without hurting each others’ feelings. The following picture shows peers’ laughter.



Picture 7: Peers' laughter

The analysis of extract 7.1 shows the three peers clearly enjoy working together, wherein equality is emphasised and the peers engage in sharing and cooperation. They self-initiate their talk and actively participate in discussion (lines 1, 7 and 19). They also attempt to make their points clearly with sufficient interactional space, which enables them to maintain and to negotiate their current roles in the interaction (lines 1, 7, 19). As collaborators in the interaction, they seem to know how to convey information to others and to share their views. One even makes a joke, "*Whole entry I've been thinking what was she trying to say*", which makes the others laugh and encourages a smooth flow to their interaction (line 14). This may also allow the other students to ask questions (line 19).

The role of peer tutor seems open to anyone who can provide input into the learning of his/her peers. Ann starts to take the role of peer tutor, but she later remains a listener or agrees with the others' views as she cannot deal with grammatical errors. Instead, Dane joins the discussion and shares his views. This kind of knowledge sharing from Dane during the interaction certainly helps Sofia's knowledge construction and extension of her ideas, as she is able to acknowledge her error, "*Over more (.) oh.hh no:!! ((looking at her paper)) YES!*" (line 12), and is willing to ask Dane: "*I think I need more references (.)*" (line 19). So, finally, this brings Sofia's acceptance: "*O::kay (xxx)*" (line 28). Such evidence suggests that each member appears to have different degrees of dominance and has opportunities to give their own opinions and ask questions through collaborative activity, finally reaching mutual agreement.

Despite focusing on the peer tutor's role, in some cases mutual acceptance is not carried out by

group members. The greatest complexity in role negotiation arises when the group members are unwilling to accept the first peer's proposed role. The next extract shows how peers negotiate the roles of the peer tutor and the peer tutee when the role is not accepted easily.

7.2 Rejection of the role and its negotiation

In this section, I provide an example of role rejection and the negotiation of peers' roles in EAP student-student writing conferences. The second extract is taken from peer conferences in which two female and one male EAP student writers, Samira from Jordan, Paul and Jorja from Brazil, are about to provide their feedback. Their role rejection is not a straightforward exchange and has great complexity.

Extract 7.2 Rejection of the role

TP3-BBJ (0:00-2:55) Samira: S Paul: P Jorja: J

The whole interaction length was 5.48 minutes.

1S	(25.0) First of all I will comment both of you and then you (pointing Paul and Jorja) comment me um:
2P	Hello? (.) ((smiling and putting his hands to Samira))
3S	Hi ((shaking hands with Paul))
4P	How are you? ((putting his hand to Jorja))
5J	I'm very good hihihhi ((laughing and shaking hands with Paul))=
6S	=Ok Paul (.) My comments are er:: you have some er: interesting things but er:: you have some er:: grammatical
7S	mistakes (.) very silly ones (.) but they have to be fixed because I didn't understand some of them (.)
8P	Yeah: I understand that
9S	And em (2.0) er what else nothing I think small things you've done (.) you know
10P	It's like me (.) I am writing when I write I don't (xxx)=
11S	Because it's first draft haha Yeah
12P	er:: what I think is (.) I have to improve my conclusion (.)
13S	Your conclusion is too short maybe (.)
14P	Yeah (.)=
15J	=Yeah=
16P	= I know I know (.) that's why I had two thousand seven hundred (.) so three hundred more to do (.) I think (.) I also
17P	think=
18J	=It's a bit like (.) it's more (.)
19S	More a bit [(xxx)]
20P	[(xxx)]=
21J	=YEAH YEAH then you can try to make make it more (.)=
22S	=What is your opinion you know? ((looking at Jorja))
23J	All of them (.) just two different things (.)
24P	Because I was trying to concentrate on things like (xxx) alternative for solutions for fuels (xxx)
25J	Make it more like you are giving like more solution because you're talking about=
26S	=You are trying what is problem [and what their] alternatives
27J	[(xxxxxxxxxx)] problems
28P	Yeah <u>and</u> ?
29J	And CONCLUSION!
30P	<u>Yeah</u> :: hehe
31S	And er future hehe
32P	What's the better idea? ((looking at Jorja's face)) let me have the idea huh? .hh
33J	Let's see (.) there are some alternatives that there are too expensive (.) or it's too difficult (.) or (.) I don't know
34J	there must have some problems (.)
35P	Um:
36P	Yes (.) maybe I should put ok there are some problems blah blah blah
37J	Yeah (.) there are some problems bra blah bla bla(.) and according to someone the problem is
38P	Bla bla bla
39S	Ok now it's me
40P	You're like awesome ((looking at jorja))
41J	Thank you hihi
42P	Haha I feel like all together haha

In the interaction shown in extract 7.2, we see specific features of negotiation, peer role proposal, role rejection and role re-proposal in the exchanges among group members. It is Samira who initiates her role as peer tutor: *“First of all I will comment both of you ...”* (line 1). However, Paul counter-initiates and establishes the greetings (lines 2 and 4), although Paul knows other members and greetings are not needed; they have probably already greeted each other in class. The following picture shows them shaking hands with each other.



Picture 8: Shaking hands with each other.

This is not normal at this point and there is laughter (line 5), indicating that the greeting seems a joke. However, Samira re-proposes the peer tutor’s role in trying to evaluate Paul’s essay precisely: initiating *“ok”* as a marker for a starting point (an orientation device in Sinclair’s and Coulthard’s study in 1975), and calls on the student named *Paul* to clarify the proceedings. She begins to evaluate with a positive comment, *“you have some er: interesting things”*, and then provides a negative comment with the reason why the errors should be fixed: *“but er:: you have some er:: grammatical mistakes (.) ... they have to be fixed because I didn’t understand...”*.

This sample shows the question of roles and authority: who bids for it, who tries to undermine who, and who controls the interaction. Samira’s re-proposal seems to be accepted by Paul and Jorja initially as there is no overlapping, but Paul does not show his acceptance. From Paul’s response, we see him evaluating his essay for himself and expecting more from Samira: *“I know I know (.) that’s why I had two thousand seven hundred (.) so ...”* (line 16). This may lead the other student, Jorja, to think more about Paul’s text and to join in with the discussion. Samira and Paul seem to control the interaction through asking for different ideas from Jorja: while Samira still wants to take charge as a peer tutor and asks Jorja to provide her opinions,

“what is your opinion you know?” (line 22), Paul asks Jorja the same question as Samira, but in a different format, *“what’s the better idea?”* (line 32), ignoring Samira’s question. This process allows for Jorja’s elaboration or comments on Paul’s text. Paul’s attitude towards Jorja’s comments is very different from Samira’s: he rejects Samira’s role through the greeting (lines 2 and 4) and does not seem to appreciate her comments, *“= I know I know (.)...”* (line 16); and, instead, nominates another member, Jorja, to speak: *“what’s the better idea?”* (line 32).

On the other hand, Paul treats Jorja’s comments as valid statements and praises her comments, *“You’re like awesome”* (line 40), *“Haha I feel like all together haha”* (line 42), as he eventually resolves his problem though talking with Jorja: *“Yes (.) maybe I should put ok there are some problems blah blah blah”* (line 36).

On the other hand, Samira, who seems unaccepted by Paul, tries to control and to recreate her space in the interaction in a way most typical of the roles of authoritative teachers in teacher-student conferences: she initiates or nominates herself as peer tutor (line 1), reinitiates or re-proposes the role of peer tutor (line 6), provides comments (lines 6, 7, 9, 11 and 13), asks Jorja’s opinion (line 22) and re-proposes her role again with the utterance *“ok now it’s me”* (line 39). However, from line 23, Samira’s opinion does not seem to be taken seriously by the other two members, as Paul seems to reject Samira’s role and prefers comments from Jorja *“(looking at Jorja) let me have the idea”* (line 32). Over the whole session, there is only mutual agreement between Paul and Jorja. Samira is marginalised.

This interaction suggests that peers can create their learning environment from the very start, as nobody asks any one person in particular to take the peer tutor role, and none are selected or nominated by the teacher; but the self-nominated role can be ignored or rejected by the other group members. This sample implies that, unlike teacher-student interactions, the relationships among the group members are not based on who has knowledge and power; there is more equality and less power (McCarthy & McMahon, 1992). The role of peer tutor may not always be accepted automatically by the group members for achieving mutual understanding. There may be some relation to the peer tutor’s lack of ability, or the tutee’s preference. Samira’s feedback, *“...what else nothing I think small things...”* (lines 6, 7 and 9), is not satisfactory to Paul, who identifies his problem himself (line 12) and, while talking with Jorja, finally gets a meaningful answer in relation to his problem.

The next extract is another example of the peer role negotiation that shows how peers face challenges and how they negotiate in the interaction.

7.3 Counter challenge of the role and its negotiation

The extract below, 7.3, shows a pair of EAP student writers, a French female, Jolie, and a Pakistani male, Hassan, beginning their peer feedback activity. In this extract, they try to deal with some problems related to linguistics and text organisation. The following extract somewhat differs from its process, extract 7.2, in that until line 10 there is no interruption when providing feedback.

Extract 7.3 Counter arguments

RP1-FP (00:15-2:10) Jolie:J Hassan:H

The whole interaction length was 33.09 minutes.

1J	((looking at Hassan's essay)) Ok >to first in the introduction< (.) you used <u>I</u> and we <u>C↑AN</u> :?T! ((smiling))=
2H	((smiling))
3H	=°All right° ((nodding with smiling)) .hh
4J	>We have to use it (.) the passive way< [(.)er] this is a <u>WILL</u> (0.5) you know (0.6)[ok↑.h]
5H	[(nodding)] [(nodding)]
6J	(0.5) and then: <u>after</u> you did it right (.) you know this report will be analysed ((pointing Hassan's sentence)) you
7J	have to (.) you can't do (.) I <u>WILL</u> .h
8H	((nodding))
9J	(0.5) an:d <u>AFTER</u> ↑(.) I <u>CAN</u> ?Tt()hehehe((laughing)).hhh I know .hh
10H	((smiling))
11J	I am not sure about ((drawing a line on the heading)) (.) Do you think (.) you gonna leave them?
12H	Ke: KeK:: um (.) Ke ((coughing))
13H	Headings Ć
14J	Yeah =
15H	=Like um you know (.) <u>PLENARY</u> ?
16J	Did he say you can do it? [.hh] Oh <u>YEAH</u> ↑[.hhhh]
17H	[<u>YEAH</u> :] (.) [He said] we have to write headings (.)
18J	<u>REALLY</u> ↑=
19H	= <u>YEAH</u> (.) I've still got his <u>NOTES</u> (.) So you know we have to write headings (.)
20J	<u>Ow</u> :: <u>kay</u> and[and um:]
21H	[and::] he said we have to write a report=
22J	=in the report=
23H	=in the plenary (.) he said (.) he said we have to write headings and::
24J	and <u>THING</u> is:: in the end .h I didn't understand ((looking at H's paper))

In this extract, Jolie self-nominates herself from the pair as peer tutor to provide her comments to Hassan. She uses a “focusing” or a “framing” move (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992), which is signified by “*Ok >to first in the introduction< (.)*”. Such a move, called a “meta statement” (Hyland, 2000), has the aim of drawing the peer tutee’s attention to the task to make it become more visible. She not only uses a focusing move, she also uses an initiation move, showing her identification of Hassan’s problematic item, i.e. the use of “I”: she uses the pronoun *we* rather than *you*: “*you used I and we CAN:’T!*” (line 1).

This suggests that Jolie adapts the “teacher” exchange move to focus on Hassan’s problematic item (line 1), but Jolie uses the pronoun “*we*” (lines 1 and 4), showing that they are still engaged in an equal relationship during this activity. She also mitigates the dominance of her talk by smiling, which is related to a face-saving act (Brown and Levinson, 1987): while Jolie identifies Hassan’s error in a loud voice, she is also concerned to preserve his face in their interaction using a smile. The use of smiling may reflect the tension between the “teacher” move and the use of the “*we*” pronoun. Nevertheless, she moves into more detailed feedback and explains to Hassan what the rule is, “*>We have to use it (.) the passive way<*”, and extends this by providing an example of the error using his essay: “*this is a WILL*” (line 4). Furthermore, Jolie provides a possible correct version, again using his essay: “*after you did it right (.) you know this report will be analysed ((pointing Hassan’s sentence))...*”. Then, she emphasises, again, why correction is necessary: “*you can’t do (.) I WILL .h*” (line 7). The use of the peer tutee’s essay seems to allow him to acknowledge his error so as to support Jolie’s evaluation, to give it more authority, and it makes the peer tutee more interested or focused on his own task.

This extract suggests that Jolie, as peer tutor, is likely to adopt the traditional teacher role, as can be seen with the use of the teacher’s move, and she tries to evaluate the peer tutee’s draft essay, highlighting her talk with precise and explicit reasoning on the basis of his essay. However, the use of the “*we*” pronoun indicates that she is still in equal relationship with the peer tutee.

Until line 8, as a peer tutee, Hassan, on the other hand, seems to acknowledge Jolie’s feedback with minimal expressions: with a soft voice, uttering “*°All right°*”, along with non-verbal expressions of nodding and smiling. Especially when gestures support the message, they may enhance participants’ communication (Schegloff et al., 1977), and Hassan’s head gestures, i.e. “nodding”, may be an agreement. However, there seems to be almost no interaction here, apart

from accepting the dependent role from the peer tutee.

However, from line 9 in the extract above, the role of peer tutor faces challenges. In line 9, we see how the peer tutor gets into difficulty with her roleplay. When Jolie is about to provide another feedback, she seems to be struggling to carry out her role as peer tutor, evidenced by her sudden exclamation of “*I CAN’T”* in a loud voice and producing some words with laughter, “*(xxx)hehehe*”, which we were unable to understand through the laughter. As mentioned earlier, the pair did not have any previous experience of peer feedback, and they only had 10 minutes discussion time with the teacher on how to provide peer feedback prior to this activity. Jolie’s utterance “*I CAN’T”* seems to represent her nervousness or tension in taking a traditional teacher’s role in terms of prescriptive feedback; her laughter perhaps released her tension, as her language changes from a statement using modal verbs “*can’t*”, “*have to*” (lines 1 and 4) to mitigated indirect question using hedges: “*I am not sure about ... Do you think (.) you gonna leave them?*” (line 11).

While hedging can be used to reduce the strength or force of the speaker’s spoken words (Holmes, 1995), questions are interactionally powerful devices (Fishman, 1983). Jolie uses both techniques. First, she hedges her feedback, “*You have to change (leave) headings*”, by means of the pragmatic particle “*Do you think (.)*” (line 11). In addition, Jolie’s question makes Hassan engage with her by provoking the next utterance from him, “*Headings?*” (line 13), and he actively contributes in later turns. It is observed that, before her question, Hassan shows a lack of engagement; his reactions are mostly nodding and smiling. Perhaps using hedging and indirect questioning is the key to change in inviting the responder to contribute to the discourse.

There is another interesting feature in this extract, in that the peer tutee tries to make a counter account by using an authoritative source. Hassan’s response, “*Like um you know (.) PLENARY?”* (line 15), can be described as resistance or rejection, or a counter account to Jolie’s suggestion. Jolie constructs her own idea, “*I am not sure*”, in which she uses the first pronoun “*I*” and attempts to offer a suggestion using a question: “*you gonna leave them?*”. The advice may strengthen the speaker’s suggestion by providing further support/accounts (Schegloff et al. 1977); but Jolie does not provide further support, which causes Hassan to launch a counter argument. He tries to connect the idea from the plenary session, which they have already shared. His counter argument becomes his challenge and he tries to convince her of his points by repeating an utterance four times, “*He said we have to write headings*”, which

contains the teacher’s authority: “*he said*”; all class members’ obligation: “*we have to*”; and the action: “*write headings*”. The following picture shows Hassan as peer tutee trying to convince Jolie as peer tutor, using hand gestures.



Picture 9: Hand gestures

Other studies also show this result; most notably Waring’s study (2005), which also observed this kind of feature in peer tutoring at a graduate writing centre: the L2 peer tutee uses the teacher’s name to bolster her argument.

*** The uses of teacher’s name**

(9) (Waring, 2005:157)

Lium: peer tutor Priya: peer tutee

1Lium	> I don- < does he want you to do it like this? Or just
2Priya	Yeah this <u>has</u> to be like [that it’s Janine McCarthy’s ()
3Lium	[<u>A</u> ll right a`right a`right
4	That’s the way she does it?=-
5 Priya	=Yea:h this is a straight-forward ().

In the above exchange, Lium as a peer tutor refers to the teacher as “he” to inquire as to whether Priya’s work was being done according to the ideas of the teacher (line 1). Then Priya as peer tutee supports her argument using the professor’s name, “*Janine McCarthy*”, and mentioning what she had previously said (line 2), so their arguments reach an agreement in the end. The use of the student’s name or “teacher” seems to be a powerful means to getting the peer’s argument acknowledged or accepted.

Returning to extract 7.2, the evidence suggests that Hassan demonstrates how he manages the challenge when his overlaps occur. The first overlap occurs in line 17, where the “explainer”, Hassan, expresses his counter argument. As an overlap cannot be independent of the character and detail of the in-coming talk (Schegloff, 2007), it affects Jolie’s reaction. After the overlap, Jolie seems to be shocked, as we can see by her surprised reaction in line 17: she starts a turn with a sort of question or exclamation, “REALLY↑”, which is a very high-pitched indication of sudden shock. The second overlap appears in line 21, where the “challenger”, Hassan, provides a supporting idea about what students should include in their report. Although Jolie acknowledges his idea, saying “Ow:: kay” (line 20), Hassan seems to be still maintaining the challenge, as if Jolie has not accepted his counter argument, perhaps. This is because Jolie’s answer, “Ow:: kay”, does not extend explicitly. Instead, she tries to propose her new comments, “and/ and um:” (line 20). The third overlap occurs in line 23, where Hassan wants to complete his argument, as Jolie takes a turn immediately after he has finished his turn. The evidence suggests that Hassan, who rejects Jolie’s peer tutor comments, is more likely to try to provide evidence and to convince Jolie. To the end, he tends to interrupt Jolie’s turns in their interaction. In fact, Jolie takes the role of peer tutor initially, but she does not continue in this role as it needs collaboration, due to the lack of information available. Instead, she seems to learn from Hassan, who disagrees with Jolie’s comments and provides evidence. Although she tries to regain her role by signalling “and...” in line 20, she was able to retrieve her role in the end: “and THING is:: in the end .h I didn’t understand ((looking at H’s paper))” (line 24). The next extract shows discussion between four peers, illustrating how the interaction develops in a collaborative learning environment, in terms of dynamic role exchanges among them.

7.4 Dynamic role changes

In the following extract, a group of four student writers are involved in arguments: two male Chinese students, Dani and Zang, and one Japanese male and one female, Ata and Niky, are working together. At the point where the extract begins, they have been engaged in peer feedback activity for about 8 minutes, talking about self-evaluation of their own essays. Dani initiates his role as peer tutor and starts talking about Ata’s essay.

Extract 7.4 Dynamic engagement

AP3-CCJJ (00:00-3:22) Dani: D, Ata: A, Zang: Z, Niky: N

The whole interaction length was 18.34 minutes.

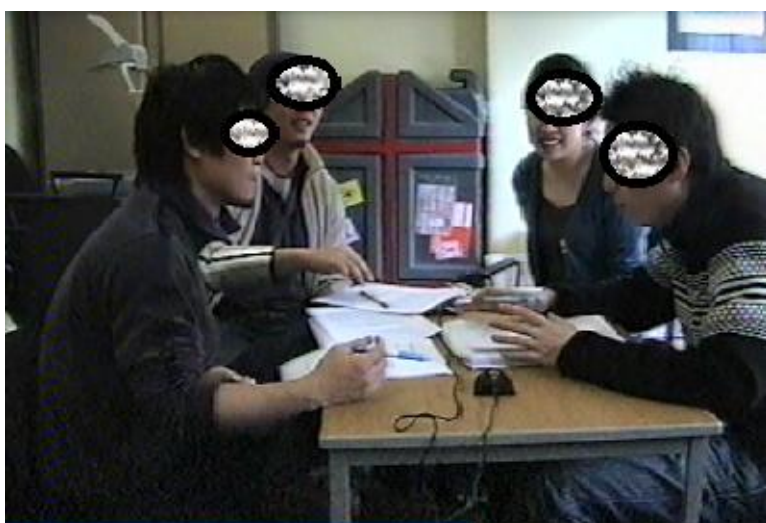
1D	SO:↑(.) yeah Ata first (.) um: Ata↑
2A	Yes (.) Kehk:
3D	<°Your point being (2.0) you think you nearly> (2.0) >find a wrong topic? °<↑=
4Z	[= Ha:::] NOT the WRONG topic ur (2.5)
5N	[= Hahaha]
6D	°Maybe°
7A	er: (3.0) no: not (1.0) I think it's WR↑ONG topic (.) but=
8D	((smiling))
9N	==Hahaha
10Z	WHAT'S THE <u>PROBLEM</u> NOW (.)WHAT'S [THE PROBLEM NOW] (.)
11A	[The basic problem is] finding sources (.)
12Z	<You can <u>ha:rdly</u> find> [or: (xxx)]
13A	[Yeah:(.)] I found some but it's REALLY useless (.) it's VE:;RY specific or VE::RY specialised
14A	like=
15D	=Uh hu↑h
16A	using to theories of economics and it's too difficult to use
17D	Oka:y (.) I am <u>pretty</u> sure (.) A's gonna ask you like (.) if you're really difficult to define (.) or you don't know
18D	what you don't (.) WHAT you're gonna use (.) A gonna ask you that (.) she's gonna check out with you (.) I mean=
19A	=I think there's::
20D	there=
21A	=there are Both (kind of) (0.5)
22D	ER YEAH (.) YEAH (.) YEAH (.)
23Z	<I think if you can (.) you print out all your sources (.) you you think it's useful↑ (.) then give to A (.) maybe A((tutor's name))
24Z	will check it and then tell you =
25N	=Yeah
26Z	er <u>this</u> is useful (.) <u>this</u> is useless (1.0) Maybe>(.)
27A	U-hm
28D	Yeah (.) it's annoying [(.)]annoying[(xx)]
29N	[um] [um]
30Z	and then when she when she check (.) check (.) er finish to check (.) and you will find it easy to find which is useful
31D	But which mean (.) which mean (.) A decide where you gonna go [(.) I mean (.) I mean]
32N	[oh: that's not gonna happen] I think=
33D	=Yeah yeah .hh because because .hh as long as you've got a lot of data
34N	U-hm
35D	You've got a lot of sources (.) as I say this like you already know where you gonna go (.) You can choose the data
36D	(.) you can choose what you need and what you can define which is useful which is useless (.) but if you don't really
37D	know what do you want to get=
38N	=Yeah
39D	You can't define it=
40A	=No

41D	You give all the data all the source to the tutor and definitely they will choose for you (.) but they are already decide
42D	where you're gonna go=
43A	=um yeah
44N	Yeah (.)
45D	Ya:
46Z	No (.) I just (.) to me (.) and first check is is by yourself (.) right?
47D	Yeah yeah yeah yeah
48Z	You choose the er right sources [(.)] You choose right so[urc]es (.) You think it is useful for articles[(.)]
49D	[Ya] [Ya] [Ya]
50Z	Um: and er maybe maybe <I think it is important for oh no to know (.) it is impossible for you to you read it all the articles right?
51Z	so you can go go to your tutor (.) she will help you and to find it which em which paragraph is is maybe it's available to read>
52D	U-hm
53A	The problem is I am not reaching that stage=
54N	=Hehehe
55A	Mine is (.) my sources are really completely useless so=
56N	=So so you can ask A to find which >I don't know< database or [WHERE You can] [xxx]
57A	[I asked them] er:: [she told me] Yeah

In this group activity, though Dani initiates the comment to Ata, all group members try to deal with Ata's problem jointly. They argue about how to find useful sources, sometimes trying to justify each others' views. As a whole, there is a lot of peer discussion related to exchange of views. But this extract should be considered as a piece of collaborative learning, and especially one in which views or experiences can be shared to help with the problems of all the participants. In this extract, Dani self-nominates himself for the role as peer tutor, "SO:↑(.) yeah Ata first (.) um: Ata"↑ in line 1, states he is going to identify Ata's problem, "Your point being (2.0) you think you nearly> (2.0) >find a wrong topic?" in line 3, which he may have picked up from Ata's verbal expression in a previous discussion. Dani's comment seems rather indirect and careful. His turn involves many aspects: he uses a question form: "?"; soft voice: "°...°"; slower tempo: "<...>"; long pauses: "(2.0)"; and hedging or mitigating: "you think you nearly". Instead of Ata as peer tutee, Zang and Niky respond to Dani's identification. Zang strongly disputes Dani's comments, with "Ha: NOT the WRONG topic ur (2.5)", while Niky is laughing. When Ata admits his problem, i.e. a wrong topic, and provides a reason why it is the problem, Zang tries to provide some suggestions: "I think if you can (.) you print out all your sources (.) you you think its useful↑ (.) then give to A (tutor)... A will check it..." (lines 23, 24, 26, 30). Dani, however, soon challenges Zang: "but which mean ..." (line 31). Dani questions Zang's suggestions and explains that they need to select sources by themselves: "You can choose the data" (line 35). Niky seems to play as a listener in the first half, e.g. laughing:

“hahaha” (lines 5,9); and listening: “Yeah”, “um” (25, 29), but later on she partly joins the discussion, cumulatively provides her opinions and participates in the discussion; e.g. “oh: that’s not gonna happen I think=” “So you can ask A” (lines 32, 56). (See more cumulative talk in Appendix V-B-10).

This extract shows four peers participating dynamically in the activity. The peer tutor’s role seems open to any group member, which allows everyone to help the other members to deal with the specific problem that they observe. Although their English is sometimes shortened, slow-paced and ungrammatical, they all seem to be aware of how to collaborate actively.



Picture 10: The group members exchange their ideas dynamically.

The students’ comments are indirect or direct at different times. Unlike the tutors, Samira and Jolie in extracts 7.2 and 7.3, Dani does not seem to carry out the role of peer tutor as an authority acting like a teacher providing comments; rather, he mitigates his role of authority through hedges and encourages the peer tutee’s talk by repeating it, “there=” (line 20), and acknowledging him: “ER YEAH (.) YEAH (.) YEAH(.)” (line 22). Dani acts like one of the participants in his group, in which he leads his group members to talk more freely or actively.

7.5 Summary

In this section, I summarise and discuss the findings in extracts 7.1, 7.2, 7.3 and 7.4, regarding the ways of peer role construction and negotiation of each others’ views in student-student interaction in writing conference formats. Note that, as we have seen, as each extract has its own pedagogical focus and its own situation, the corresponding talk is complex, unique and cannot be generalised. However, on the basis of what has been discovered from the above extracts, there seems to be some features of the construction of the role and negotiation of each

others' views; there is much variation in how this role is constructed by the peer tutor in groups, and also how this is accepted, challenged, rejected or negotiated by the peer tutee in groups.

Regarding peer role construction, in this EAP student-student writing conference, in which individuals are seen constructing or adopting a potential peer tutor's role, this is the first step in establishing interaction. Such adaptation into the tutor role involves three actions. First, it signals their talk; second, it identifies someone who is a potential peer tutee; and third, it attracts and focuses the peer tutee's attention. However, interaction cannot begin until one of the group members self-selects the role of peer tutor and is aware of the potential peer tutees. That is, the potential peer tutor produces "framing" and "focusing" moves in the interaction.

Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) argue that, due to extreme dynamics of classroom interaction, "a variety of things can interfere in the working-out of the teacher's plan in actual discourse" (p. 59). However, framing and focusing moves are commonly used by teachers who initiate their talk and control over the interaction. In similar ways to the lesson, with peer conferences, and in many cases, peers use "frame" moves, and when peers adopt the role of peer tutor, it signals their talk in the interaction: "so" (line 1 in extract 7.4); "yeah" (line 1 in extract 7.4); "ok" (line 1 in extract 7.3); "First of all" (line 1 in extract 7.2); identifying the tutee's name: e.g. "Ata first" (line 1 in extract 7.4), "I will comment both of you then ..." (line 1 in extract 7.2). Frame moves also attract and focus peer tutees' attention to problems: "to first in the introduction" (line 1 in extract 7.3); "You know as Dane said" (line 1 in extract 7.1).

In addition, the study shows that after framing peers talk, their focus seems to move to commenting on student writing. Their feedback includes making statements and/or elaborations of statements, asking questions and making suggestions or recommendations. Providing feedback includes both negative and positive comments: "you have some er: interesting things but er:: you have some er:: grammatical mistakes (.)" (lines 6-7 in extract, 7.2); making statements: "you used I and we C↑AN: 'T!" (line 1 in extract 7.3); or question forms: "<°your point being (2.0) you think you nearly> (2.0) >find a wrong topic? °<↑" (line 3 in extract 7.4). Some add elicit elaboration to their statements, making arguments stronger: "We have to use it (.) the passive way< (.) er this is a WILL(0.5) you know (0.6) ok ↑" (line 4 in extract 7.3); "good reference that's fine I think..." (lines 23-7 in extract 7.1); "Make it more like you are giving like more solution because ..." (line 25 in extract 7.2). This kind of

exploratory talk encourages the tutee to be more interested in his/her own errors, and the comments are then more authoritative as a result. The group engaged with the problem and created opportunities to share opinions with each other. Asking questions includes attempts to seek more information from others; e.g. “*What is your opinion you know?*” (line 22 in extract 7.2). Recommendations include sharing views: “*...You can choose data...*” (lines 35-42 in extract 7.4); or asking tutors for help: “*<I think if you can (.) you print out all your sources...then give to A (.) maybe A will check it*” (line 23 in extract 7.4). During the interaction, the peer tutor uses backchannels to encourage the peer tutee or other group members’ talk; for example, it shows up several times in Dani’s turns in extract 7.4, such as, “*U-hm*”, “*Ow kay*” and “*yeah*”. This signifies the peer tutor’s act of listening to the peer tutee’s talk, allowing peer tutees a full turn.

When adopting the role of peer tutor, the group members (including the peer tutee) show a number of strategies through which to accept their comments. These talks include overt acceptance of the comments, which include acknowledgement: “*All right*” (line 3 in extract 7.3); “*oh.hh no: ((looking at her paper)) YES*” (line 12 in extract 7.1); “*Yeah I understand that*” (line 8 in extract 7.2); “*er: (3.0) no: not (1.0) I think it’s WR↑ONG topic*” (line 7 in extract 7.4); and non-verbal expression, e.g. “*nodding*” (lines 3, 5 and 8 in extract 7.3; line 25 in extract 7.1). The acceptance of any given matter is either more likely to be delayed, or else immediately accepted. Delays are due to the time taken to check for the problem in their essays, or thoughts about the matter in hand. Also, non-verbal expression can be seen as acceptance; e.g. “*nodding*” (lines 3, 5 and 8 in extract 7.3; line 25 in extract 7.1).

However, there is a scenario detailed above whereby a member of the group (including peer tutor) reacts to comments made by the peer tutor through rejection and challenges. The dialogue in these exchanges is much more complex than merely accepting the comments. These kinds of disputational dialogue include asking questions, assertions of knowledge, self-evaluation or self-correction of the problem by the tutee, overt rejection and unmarked acknowledgments. The asking of questions includes indirect questioning; for example, “*Like um you know (.) plenary?*” (line 15) in extract 7.3. Assertions of knowledge can be seen in utterances like “*I know I know*” (line 16) in extract 7.2; includes information which is only known to the peer tutee: “*The problem is I am not reaching that stage*” (line 53) in extract 7.4; or the inclusion of the irrelevance of the problem, in utterances like “*Well: I mean*” (line 22) in extract 7.1. Their responses indicate that they are already aware of the given problem and/or they have already

dealt with it. Self-evaluation of the problem includes: “*er:: what I think is (.) I have to improve my conclusion*” (line 12 in extract 7.2). Overt rejection is rare, which includes “*Not the WRONG topic ur*”. Unmarked acknowledgement, such as “*yeah*” or “*Well*”, sometimes functions as a rejection of the passive peer comment: “*Yeah Well:*” (line 22 in extract 7.1), “*Yeah*” (line 28) in extract 7.4. Interesting features are seen in extract 7.2. Though the interaction that shows Samira’s role rejection by the peer tutee as Paul, two peers ‘Paul and Jorja’ discuss and share opinions between each other, finally reaching a mutual understanding through an exploratory nature of dialogue; for example, Jorja’s joining into the discussion: “*=It’s a bit like (.) it’s more (.)*” (line 16), showing both contributions “*Let’s see (.) there are some alternatives that there are too expensive (.) or it’s too difficult (.) or ...*” (Jorja’s turn in line 33). Paul finally evaluates his problem: “*Yes (.) maybe I should put ok there are some problems blah blah blah*” (Paul’s turn in line 36). Then Jorja joins the discussion again: “*Yeah (.) there are some problems bra blah bla bla*” (Jorja’s turn” in line 37). Through this exploratory talk, Paul does get appreciation in the end: “*Haha I feel like all together haha*” (line 42).

On the other hand, talk can be cumulatively constructed by the group members and it does not always make for meaningful outcomes. For example, in extract 7.4 Niky cumulatively provides her opinions and participates in the discussion. Niky seems to play as a listener in the first half, e.g. laughing ‘*Hahaha*’ (lines 5,9) and listening “*Yeah*”, “*um*” (25, 29), but later she partly joins the discussion into which she cumulatively provides her opinions and participates—“*oh: that’s not gonna happen I think=*”, “*So you can ask A*” (lines 32, 56), which actually does not seem to make for constructive interaction; in fact, they talk about the same problem continuously without resolution.

Peer talk in writing conferences often includes personalised individual thoughts, feelings and emotions. Peers may experience fear, confusion and anxiety, uncertainties about not knowing what to do in their specialised role in performing in peer feedback. This kind of personalised talk seems to minimise anxiety and enhance personal security regarding whole-person involvement in the learning activity. Such talk is characterised by hedges, mitigation, laughter and praise, which seem to encourage self-evaluation and to minimise criticism. Examples of hedging and mitigating are: “*you think*”, “*I think*”, “*maybe*”, “*I mean*”, “*um*”, “*well*”, “*I don’t know*”, “*I am not sure*”, “*Do you think*”, “*um*”, “*er*”, “*Like, you know*”. They signal uncertainty or doubt. This seems to allow students self-correction, understanding of their

problems, or development of their ability to identify their own errors. Laughter encompasses responses to comments that convey feelings of anxiety or nervousness during the conferences; for example, embarrassment or face-saving: “*haha*”, “*hehehe*” (line 5 in extract 7.1; lines 9 and 54 in extract 7.4); feeling anxious or nervous: suddenly exclaiming “*I CAN’T*” with a loud voice and producing words with laughter: “*£ (xxx) hehehe*” (line 1 in extract 7.3); and responding to jokes “*hehe*” (lines 15-16 in extract 7.1). Laughter is possibly related to the role of peer tutor or peer tutee as inexperienced novices. Praise and appreciation can be seen in both turns of peer tutor and tutee; such as “*you’ve got potential (.) that’s really good*”, “*You’re like awesome*”, and “*I feel like all together haha*”: this account indicates praise of another’s paper, or an appreciation of sharing opinions with others. The ways of talking for peers’ role construction and the negotiation of each others’ views in student-student writing conferences, however, can be seen as complex as they contain “both social and individual” functions (Well, 1999).

7.6 Conclusion

So far, we have analysed peer tutors’ role construction and negotiation views, where peers accept, reject and challenge each others’ views, in sections 7.1, 7.2, 7.3 and 7.4, and in the overall summary of this chapter in section 7.5. The findings in this study have presented collaborative or cooperative learning from the perspective of equally knowledgeable student writers interacting with each other. This is one of the scaffolding ideas extended from expert and novice relationships (teacher and student). In this chapter, the analyses of extracts presented so far have suggested that some kinds of dialogue are organised by student writers working in a group through creating their own engagement. Their comments are not always mutually accepted; rather, they negotiate through counter arguments or rejection of the comments, and this allows other peers to join the discussion, to reflect on the errors and try to share their opinions.

We see peers all interacting to assist or to advise jointly on the peer tutee’s problems. At the starting point, in this account, peers who take the role of the peer tutor sought to convince peer tutees of examples of the errors in his/her essay, and authoritative resources are also cited; for example, lecture notes, or what the teacher has said. Sometimes, peer talk involves ideas for development of their essay writing and the clarification of comments that other peer members have made. However the role-taking and management is problematic, so it creates complex

features in this dynamic talk. That peers get challenged or made subject to counter argument is inevitable, but, in this account, there is little debate among group members. Rather, peers concentrate on one problem and how to solve it, as with extract 7.4, in which cumulative talk is seen (Mercer, 2000). In the interactions, the talk opens out to every individual learner and they articulate their opinions confidently. They also change the role frequently from peer tutor to peer tutee, so learning is constructed together. On the other hand, some talk is not organised and so the thoughts expressed are confused or incomplete. Some peers struggle, unable to finish because they cannot find the evidence necessary to support their idea. Sometimes their talk and sharing of ideas does not meet what the peer tutee expects, and so does not satisfy him/her. From these results, student writers appear no longer to be traditional listeners during the feedback process and can become supportive leaders aware of how to provide challenges, and active participants who can make some suggestions and debate the opinions of others.

So far, I have concentrated on how peers work together, without the control of a teacher, and have identified particular ways of talking in peer feedback interaction. In the next chapter, I will discuss further two kinds of teacher/peer feedback interaction, and I will further argue some of the issues which arise from the findings.

CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study, as outlined in Chapter 1, was to explore the nature of teacher/peer spoken feedback interactions on student writing, in order to provide insights into knowledge construction in academic literacy development for L2 students; especially in cases of EAP student writers, who need to meet the expectations and competences of their readership (Hyland, 2000). Throughout much research on writing processes, in both L1 and L2 contexts, teachers' written feedback has received much more attention than spoken feedback. However, written feedback is more concerned with one-sided knowledge transmission. The criticism of written feedback is that there is a gap or mismatch between the teachers' expectations and the students' understanding of the teacher's commentary; especially if the student has no opportunity to discuss the feedback with the teacher afterwards (there can be no interpretation without interaction) (Hounsell, 1984; Leki, 1990; Ferris, 2003; Lillis, 2001; Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Research that has focused on the nature of interaction and its effect on L2 writing conferences or oral feedback has found some specific ways of interaction that will enable students to achieve a clearer understanding of the issues of effective negotiation on students' revision, and encourages them to take responsibility for making improvements themselves (Williams, 2004; Goldstein & Conrad 1990; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Walsh, 2003; Weissberg, 2006). The problem, however, is that the evidence is still insufficient to demonstrate how one-to-one writing conferences can facilitate a clear understanding of student texts. Thus, so far, I have attempted to investigate the ways that teachers create joint construction of knowledge, through questions and different teaching approaches, various interactional strategies in teacher-student conferences, and peer role construction and its negotiation in collaborative learning in student-student writing conference, using institutional conversation analyses.

My aim in this chapter is to discuss the substantive findings in relation to each research question. I highlight some practical and research issues relevant to interactive or communicative learning activities; especially feedback on student writing tasks and students' development of thinking. The discussion is made up of the following three sections: sections 8.1 and 8.2 develop a theoretical framework, both of which reflect teachers' joint construction of knowledge with their students throughout, looking at a range of interactional strategies, such as the use of questions, different discourse approaches between authoritative and other

interactional strategies—including non-verbal expression and scaffolding in teacher-student conferences—as addressed in Chapters 5 and 6, and peer collaborative learning in student-student conferences, as addressed in Chapter 7. Section 8.1 discusses “how do teachers in teacher-student writing conferences support students’ learning opportunities through talk?” Section 8.2 discusses “how do peers in student-student writing conferences negotiate with each other’s views”. This is followed by a summary of the chapter in section 8.3 (I will conclude this chapter and suggest further research in Chapter 9).

8.1 How do teachers in teacher-student writing conferences support students’ learning opportunities through talk?

This issue has been addressed, through four foundational questions, of the use of questions, different discourse approaches and other interactional strategies; including non-verbal and scaffolding strategies. I will discuss this through each question below.

8.1.1 How does the teacher use questions to support student learning in teacher-student writing conferences?

In Chapter 5.1, I illustrated the use of teachers’ questions at the beginning of the teacher-student conferences. To illustrate these, I did not focus on what types of questions teachers ask most or least, or count the use of different types of teacher questions; rather, I identified for what teachers’ questions are used, and how they are used to engage in a joint solution of a problem. In sum, the use of questions by teachers played an essential role in getting the conference started and engaging students actively in the conference. I discuss the findings of Chapter 5.1 regarding several issues.

8.1.1.1 Student engagement

Teachers asked questions in teacher-student writing conferences that centred on joint development of the topic, and students are offered more opportunities to determine topic focus and initiate topic shift (Freedman, 1987), through reflecting student experience, exploring student ideas further and helping students’ understanding. Teachers’ questions played an important role in this study, which is similar to some cases of teacher questions in other contexts (Benwell and Stokoe, 2002; Nystrand et al., 2003). For example, in the study of Benwell and Stokoe (2002), the teachers’ opening of the tutorial sessions primarily focused on orientating and projecting the task or topic. The teacher and student talk was neither in

recitation nor of the IRE circle; rather, the teachers' questions provoked students' answers in order to orient a topic. Consequently, students took an active role in engaging in the topic under discussion in a complete reversal of the normally hierarchical relationship between teacher and student in higher education. Their study shows the teacher's role as the "control and authority" (Elbow, 1973) that may be replaced by assuming a new role in academic discourse that is more of a dynamic and interactive process in a new academic discourse community, in relation to joint construction of knowledge and social relations.

This study provides a similar perspective to the study of Nystrand et al. (2003), in which students assumed an active role to reflect, articulate and modify their understanding. In teacher-student writing conference in this study, shown in 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3, the teachers' questions are designed to create and maintain a shared and open environment with their students. For example, they asked questions about students' previous experience relating to their writing problems; e.g. "*How do you feel about your first draft?*" (Extract 5.1). This seems to encourage students' reflection on their essay problem, i.e. self-evaluation of their essay. Then, teachers took student issues into consideration in the discussion to solve the problem jointly, using various strategies. These strategies include clarifying students' enquiries, asking follow-up questions, and providing information explicitly. As a result, their discussion involved the identifying of knowledge gaps and the developing of students' understanding of their problems. Nystrand et al. (2003) characterised patterns of interaction between teacher and student in which they might act to foster dialogic discourse in USA secondary school English classrooms. One of the closest similarities between this study to my own study was how, in teachers' authentic questions (a teacher has not pre-specified an answer and, for example, he/she requests information as well as open-ended questions), this allowed students to articulate their own ideas and to ask questions that students were able to "uptake" (occurring when one conversant, e.g. a student, asks about something a teacher previously said), as opposed to recitation (or known information) questions, which are often seen in monologic teacher talk in the classroom. The key was that teachers' authentic questions signalled to students how teachers showed interest in what the students think. Then, the students' role underwent a shift from taking a passive role in recitation patterns towards an active role with a range of responses in discussion. They called the moments of interaction shift from monologic to dialogic "dialogic spells". They argued that student-centred questions by a range of teachers' strategies are an important source of dialogic potential in classroom discourse. The findings of two studies suggest that teachers take into account what the students think; e.g. open or

unknown information or referential questions rather than questioning, to test student knowledge (or closed or known information or display questions). As shown in this study, perhaps teachers need questioning by the students when opening the writing conferences, in terms of co-constructing a more opened up style of learning environment. This may encourage students to engage in discussion, as this kind of referential question requires personal involvement (Nunan, 1991). After spotting students' problems, teachers may take student problems into consideration as a topic or specific task within the writing conference framework, as Drew and Heritage (1992) point out. This not only allows the students to identify their own problems, or to reflect on their own progress during the writing process, it also allows the teachers to recognise what difficulties the students encounter and to adapt their instruction suitably in response.

8.1.1.2 Questions and responses

Writing teachers in this study supported students' understanding in two ways of action: questions and responses. On the one hand, teachers helped students to develop their ideas and understanding through questions of reframing, clarifying and elaboration. The teachers' questions referenced students' original ideas from self-evaluation, e.g. "What do you think you can improve on it?"; "How did you make all the mistakes?" Such questions supported students' engagement in the articulation of their ideas through the use of reasoning words (e.g. because, if, so). Studies on classroom interaction observed that asking for the exploration of student ideas played a crucial role, in that students were encouraged to find their own voice, developing expressivity (Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Nystrand et al., 2003; Boyd & Rubin, 2006). This study showed that, when teachers consider these kinds of questions in the interaction, students were invited to find their voice and develop their thinking.

On the other hand, the teachers in this study also helped students to think through their responses. Teacher-student interaction in this study was organised topically and teachers rarely used judgmental evaluation in students' talk. This is possibly because teachers used open-ended and referential questions that drew attention to student interest or challenging issues, for which there was not necessarily a correct answer (Nystrand et al, 2003). Instead, teachers referenced or scaffolded students' ideas and asked them to articulate their ideas further, which stimulated a more equal or balanced student participation in the interaction.

With regard to the use of teacher questions in this study, there is no answer to the question of “what is the best question teachers can use?”, because different types of teacher questions have different functions. For example, teacher questions that reflect on the student’s previous experience are a form of open question, which helped to get teacher-student discussions started. Teacher questions of relevant ideas, for example, reframing or clarifying from self-evaluation or self-diagnosis of students’ essay problem (which is a form of referential question), helped both teachers and students to engage in co-construction of problem-solving discussion. Teacher questions that elaborate students’ thinking helped students to engage in more exploratory answers. As a result, perhaps the quality of talk depends on how teacher questions are used to develop student thinking. This study suggests that teachers in teacher-student conferences can jointly construct knowledge with their students through the use of different types of questions. These include awareness of students’ initial ideas, through asking students to reflect on their previous experiences; eliciting relevant ideas by asking them to articulate ideas; and developing student thinking further by asking them to elaborate ideas. However, if students struggle to find answers, teachers scaffold student ideas through various kinds of interactional strategies along with questioning. I will discuss this in section 8.1.4.

8.1.2 How does the teacher engage in different types of interactive teaching approach between authoritative and dialogic with their students, and how do two teaching approaches manifest in the interaction and influence of student contribution?

In this study, I described two different teaching approaches of authoritative and dialogic discourse in teacher-student interaction during writing conferences, using two examples. In sum, teachers used two types of approach throughout the activity; however, they cannot be performed separately, as teachers oscillate constantly between the two approaches, depending on the demands and intentions of teaching. I will discuss the two types of approach in relation to students’ learning.

8.1.2.1 Two ways of developing student understanding

In using teachers’ authoritative and dialogic approaches, each seemed to have unique strengths. When teachers deal with student problems, teachers can choose how to develop student thinking, whether they are open to students’ differing points of view, or they provide necessary information. Authoritative discourse in this study contained teachers’ explanations of

information with little or no student contributions; mostly only acknowledgements. It is apparent that this type of discourse seems beneficial to students who do not contribute to the development of the idea, or who do need necessary information. This trait was associated with the teacher's expertise as an academic writing instructor and enabled teachers to manage time effectively without students' confusion. Conversely, dialogic discourse contained the teacher's invitation for student contribution and for listening to student talk. This type of discourse seems to help students to pursue their point of view herself/himself, through clarification and elaboration of their thoughts. It is evident that the teachers attended to student ideas and that students had the opportunity to co-construct their ideas or negotiate views with each other.

8.1.2.2 A tension between two discourses

In this study, the teacher's voice sympathetically oscillated between authoritative and dialogic discourse whenever they felt the need arose. The teachers organised authoritative discourse once, only then shifting to dialogic, or vice versa. Classroom research on the two different discourses showed that there is always a tension between authoritative and dialogic (Mortimer and Scott, 2003). This study showed that authoritative discourse was the teaching mode used to provide necessary information for the students when students needed the teacher's initiative (or judgemental talk), while dialogic discourse was used to enable students to develop their ideas through persuading student opinion and thoughts. For example, authoritative discourse was used in the initiation where teachers brought forward student issues with clear evaluation; only after this presentation did the talk shift to dialogic discourse, where the teacher asked students for ideas. After this, the teacher returned to the use of authoritative discourse again at the end of the talk, regarding the student's ideas, where the teacher summarised and evaluated the student's view, shown in extract 5.5 in Chapter 5. However, even if a student was allowed to develop their ideas, the student was not always successful and the teacher controlled the talk again providing clear views, as shown in extract 5.4 in Chapter 5. Perhaps teachers' discourse may tentatively shift bias, depending on whether they may want to provide clear view points, or possibly address particular issues, or to open the space for different ideas to be explored, or even, to some extent, for mutual joint knowledge to evaluate what students thought about their idea themselves.

8.1.2.3 Different voices from the teacher

Dialogic discourse in this study may be appropriated by the student as internal persuasiveness discourse (Bakhtin, 1981), which allows us to understand “sense of ownership” in writing classrooms (Leki, 1990; Conrad and Goldstein, 1999; Hyland and Hyland, 2006). The student writers could later choose to avoid, adopt or transform teacher’s feedback over time. As in this study, the students faced different voices from the teachers; they can decide whether to appropriate or to negotiate, but they still had individual senses of self, or their own voices regarding content-based matters by the teacher’s encouragement. This study implies that perhaps such a “sense of ownership” in students’ own writing would be increased by providing opportunities for students’ active participation, including clarifying their views, articulating their voices and elaborating their ideas with reasoned words, as seen in this study.

8.1.3 How does the teacher shape student contributions by various interactional strategies that enable students to express their understanding, articulate ideas and reveal problems that they are encountering?

Drawing on the idea of “dialogic teaching” (Alexander, 2000), student contributions in this study are shaped by teachers in a number of other interactional strategies (Seedhouse and Walsh, 2010). A teacher was able to carry the attention and helped the articulation of ideas and the development of understandings by a number of interactional strategies, including reformulation of student issues, offering possible solutions, asking for student ideas, checking for student understanding and evaluating student ideas, etc. It is clear that the role of teachers in higher education has undergone a radical shift from the standard transmission model of teaching, to the point where interventions are made (Laurillard, 2002) by students in a more committed and informed engagement in a learning community, and by responding to these student contributions adequately using a number of strategies. Maintaining interventions in a process approach may help students to develop their viewpoints and contribute further in the interaction.

In this study, there were a number of other interactional strategies to promote students’ turn completion and the extending of students’ length of discourse, through the uses of wait time, lack of repair and non-verbal expressions, for instance. The use of extended wait time is especially necessary as it may allow learners the time to think, to formulate and give a response

(Walsh, 2011). This may also promote students' confidence and enthusiasm for the topic and increase appropriate responses, as seen in Chapters 5 and 6 (see also Edward, 1992; Nunan, 1991). In addition, during the conferences, in order to make a learning environment more active, a good relationship between language teachers and their student is crucial. Apart from talking to students about what they feel about writing, another way of achieving this is to help learners to engage with their learning environment, which may be seen through smiling, eye contact, back channels, proper gestures, etc, as shown in Chapter 5.

8.1.4 How do teachers scaffold student development of understandings?

In this study, teachers' use of scaffolding strategies was observed in terms of active participation in the supporting and shaping of students' contributions. More specifically, in what ways do teachers support students' extended dialogues and guide their learning as a part of the feedback on the student writing process? How can learning activities for academic literacy development be mediated or negotiated through discussions between teachers and students? Under social approaches to learning, the analysis of this study observed that there are several reasons for the need of scaffolding in teaching.

8.1.4.1 Maintaining student interest and involvement

The scaffolding technique involves learners in order to maintain their interest and involvement in problem-solving, and the acquiring of student understanding. Scaffolded support is not limited to the expert-novice relationship in learning and teaching. Rather, as seen in this study, scaffolding teachers support invitation or elaboration of the student writer's ideas and conceptions in some specific tasks and help to ensure student understanding. As Laurillard (2002) points out, supporting the learner's ideas or conceptions is seen as an important component of a "good conversational framework" for teaching and learning. Once engaged in learning activity, scaffolding teachers' use a number of strategies to maintain student engagement with problem-solving, and to ensure that their understanding is a joint construction of knowledge. The quality of the interaction can only become available when teachers and students use talk and joint activities to create and negotiate a shared community space, which is closer to the Intermental Development Zone (IDZ) (Mercer, 2000), rather than the original meaning of scaffolding based on a "handover" principle. In other words, with scaffolded support, one-to-one conferences can help to create a supportive learning environment: the IDZ.

Arguably, a supportive learning environment, as maintaining the quality of the zone, depends on the dynamics of development through scaffolded dialogue (Mercer, 1995; Mercer & Littleton 2007; Wells, 1999; Alexander, 2000). It is more attentive to how a learner progresses continuously under a teacher's guided development in a collective environment, rather than how a learner reaches new levels with more knowledgeable support at one time.

8.1.4.2 Changes situational power asymmetry

Scaffolding involves changes to the situational power asymmetry (in turn-taking, amount of talk, questioning, interruptions, and so on), which leads to an increase in the student's responsibility for their learning. For example, in this study, the students manage to overcome the teachers' challenges, and even to modify or counteract the teachers' assertions, by taking evaluative turns that are close to responsive teaching (e.g. extracts 5.6 and 6.4). This turn is typically possessed by a teacher in recitation teaching (Gall more and Tharp, 1983), which places heavy use on IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) exchange or IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) models (Meehan, 1979). Shay (1986) points out that, while recitation teaching involves monologic lecturing (reading prepared speeches, a teaching style related to orders and instructions), responsive teaching involves contingency questioning that can build shared background knowledge. Shay argues that the recitation model of teaching would work better for students with a lesser degree of intelligence and motivation, while the responsive model of teaching is for exceptional students who are ready for challenges in higher thinking. In my case, however, when the student was invited to talk or to extend their ideas through responsive or contingency questioning, e.g. "Did you miss the lecture on plagiarism?", previous lessons or the student's own experience, the student was able to connect old and new knowledge and had an opportunity to clarify unclear points. This question may create a two-way communication mode between both teacher and student, and then change teaching modes from monologue to dialogue; or from authoritative to dialogic. Most important in creating responsive or contingent forms of interaction is for scaffolding teachers to set up a sense of "shared frame". This is important not only when dealing with students who require a greater degree of support from teachers, but for any pedagogical interaction in which teachers and students focus joint attention in reaching mutual goals and engage together in extended student development (van Lire, 1996). In addition, these affect construction of the students' thinking and knowledge and the establishment of their roles as experts or competence participants, who share a learning responsibility with their teacher.

8.1.4.3 Changes student participations to be active

Under the social cultural view, the scaffolded dialogue is essential in order to encourage the student's participation to become more active. To do this, students need to have their interest sustained, they need enthusiasm, a shared frame and a more supportive environment in which they can articulate and extend their ideas or thinking and clarify unclear points. Pathways to making changes towards a more active learning environment are available through a range of interactional strategies; for example, scaffolding strategies, as seen in Chapter 6, when students were invited to give their elaboration or clarification, and maintained mutual engagement and shared responsibilities for learning (extracts 6.1 and 6.2). This is related to a greater emphasis on listening to the student's personal thoughts, with no or few judgmental evaluations and challenges to their thoughts, leading to more openness in student thinking and greater intellectual control handed over to the student. What is more important here is that learning through interaction is part of a shared understanding and collective consciousness of the activity (Mercer, 2008). Though students themselves can contribute to discussion, opportunities for taking turns, more extended talk, clarifications and questions, these can only be available when teachers are aware of how to create or to maintain learning environments, and invite/offer students to join in on the activity. This learning environment requirement is called "dialogic enquiry" (Wells, 1999), in which students can take increased action to develop their ideas.

8.2 How do peers in student-student writing conferences negotiate each other's views?

Peer feedback has been widely acknowledged as an important component in the writing process in L2 contexts (Cotterall & Cohen, 2003; Guerrero & Villamil 1994; F. Hyland 2000), though there are still peers and teachers who are less convinced of its usefulness in their own situation (Sengupta 1998; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Nelson & Murphy, 1993; Lockhart & Ng 1995; Mendonca & Johnson 1994). In all the existing literature, when dealing with collaboration between learners working together, invariably all seem connected to Vygotsky's socio-cultural perspective (Vygotsky, 1978), or Bruner's idea of scaffolding, which concerns itself with learning from the "expert", "more knowledgeable" or "more competent peer", helping peers who are "less knowledgeable" or "less competent". However, these theories do not seem to support the concept of collaborative peer learning. We should ask: what if the two interlocutors are of similar competence? Or what if one is less competent than the other? Do they still need to collaborate with each other? Other researchers have suggested three benefits of collaborative

work in small groups that lead to a “mutual” sense of peer “collective scaffolding” (Donato, 1994). First, what learners hear and what they explain is contextualised. Whatever the learner’s ability, working together is beneficial as their ideas will be more organised and will be used meaningfully for a particular purpose (McGroarty, 1993). Peers who have different opinions can help to extend each other’s ideas regarding their writing. Second, interaction amongst L2 learners can increase their output. Learners are expected to take responsibility for their learning, without teacher interventions, which means developing a more active student-centred approach (Barnes and Todd, 1977; Brown & Atkins, 1988). Thus, they all have more responsibility for clarifying their own meanings, necessitating they take more turns. Third, they also increase the input they receive as they hear a great variety of language from one another. However, it still seems that the existing literature lacks suitable theories for dealing with the negotiation process during collaborative peer learning. I will discuss these issues in the following sub-chapter.

8.2.1 How do peers construct the role of peer tutor and peer tutee?

8.2.1.1 Exploratory talk

In student-student writing conferences, peers in groups appear to be inevitably engaging in a symmetrical learning process that differs from teacher-student writing conferences. Peers nominate themselves as feedback provider or peer tutor and provide their views, ask questions, interrupt or challenge. With regard to the ways of peer role construction in the writing conferences, peer talk involves accepting or agreeing, and rejecting and challenging each others’ views. The ways of peer talk in writing conferences are seen to be the same as Mercer’s three ways of talk: disputational, cumulative and exploratory, which are closely attentive to social modes of thinking (Mercer, 1995).

As Mercer argues, exploratory talk is a situated and contextualised version of the kind of argumentation seen in the dialogue between Dane and Sofia in extract 7.1. In exploratory talk, the peer’s instant responses, “yes” or “no”, do not mean acceptance or rejection of the comments or views claimed. Rather, they mean that the comments are suspended—which can be thought of as a different way of challenging; for example, “*Yeah (.) Well: I mean*” (line 22 in extract 7.1). When the peer tutor faces a challenge, there can be two available actions to reach an agreement in the end: first, “wait time” is offered in order to find evidence for oneself;

second, explicit elaboration and/or alternative ideas are offered. On the one hand, there could be an emotional risk of losing face (Brown & Levinson, 1989) in front of the group members if corrections are made directly, so indirect ways of questioning or “wait time” may allow the peer tutee to see evidence in their writing, which may reduce an embarrassment—as seen in Dane and Sofia’s dialogue. Through self-correction of the error, the peer tutee can admit their error and reduce their embarrassment. On the other hand, peers’ explicit elaboration with more evidence is essential for helping peer tutees’ decision-making or understanding of each others’ views (Wegerif and Dawes, 2004). This is also supported by Barnes (1992): “If it can be shown that groups can *learn* to elaborate, this would be an important educational finding” (p. 66). In this way, peers can promote social cohesion and accept each others’ views.

However, the evidence of exploratory talk in student-student writing conferences amounts to very little. This is because, in exploratory talk, as Barnes states, “the speaker’s attention is primarily focused on adjusting language, content and manner to the needs of an audience, and in exploratory talk the speaker is more concerned with sorting out his or her own thoughts” (Mercer & Hedgkinson, 2008:4).

Exploratory talk may be more useful if there is a degree of trust within the discussion group (Mercer & Hedgkinson, 2008). In writing conferences, individuals have different goals, expectations or cultural background and they may make their own sense of the various external influences and act differently; at the same time, their group actions may be subject to the social situation and contextual influence (William & Burden, 1997). For example, as identified in the issues of peer feedback (see Chapter 1), sometimes students do not trust their peers’ knowledge and do not revise their essay based on their peers’ comments (Sengupta, 1998; Mendonca and Johnson, 1994; Zhang, 1995). Chinese students withhold critical comments due to wishes to maintain group harmony (Nelson & Carson, 2006). Perhaps these reasons resulted in producing disputational and cumulative talk. Cumulative talk can be useful when talking about common problems encountered, as peers can share problems. However, in this context, this manner of talk shows little in the way of meaningfulness. On the other hand, disputational talk—when peers reject comments made by peer tutees—shows a number of variations in student-student writing conferences. When peers face disagreement, the peers tend to do it in a very indirect way; for example, asking questions, assertions of knowledge, self-evaluation or self-correction of the problem by the tutee, instead of saying “no” as overt rejection, including non-verbal expression directly. This way of talk is useful as it leads to other peers’

participation; in particular, when self-evaluation of the writing problem occurs, another group member participates in the discussion and the dialogue turns into exploratory talk, as seen in Paul's and Jorja's dialogue in extract 7.2. Through sharing ideas, suggestions and evaluation, peers finally reach a consensual view with appreciation.

8.2.2 How do peers negotiate each others' views?

The detailed analysis of the negotiation of each others' views in peer conferences in this study has revealed a number of potential issues. It has been found that students "observe each other suspiciously, seizing up one another and trying to find a place in an un-established and unstable hierarchy" (Dörnyei and Murphy, 2003). In other words, although peer group work has been a mainstay of the language classroom, it does not necessarily mean that students are learning from one another. Rather, the group needs to engage in "successful completion of group tasks", or "cooperation in reaching common goals". More importantly, EAP learners face uncertainty about their language proficiency; for example, they are uncertain about their peers' comments and even their own competence (Sengupta, 1998; Mendongca and Jonson, 1994). In this section, I would like to discuss these potential issues of "instability" in hierarchy and "uncertainty" with peers, by looking at L2 learners' interaction.

The peer tutor, such as the one who is charged with providing comments, is also learning English in the classroom. Thus, they neither have "expertise" in the language, nor do they have the "authority" or "power" to grade or score which qualified and skilled teachers do have, so they share the same status as L2 student writers. With peers, each others' views are negotiated in a complex way. This has resulted in some distinctive features, as follows:

Firstly, as can be seen in Chapter 7, the peers engaged in discussion in which one member dominated the discussion to provide comments with an authoritative voice. When they worked together, peer talk appears to adapt the teacher's role of initiation, e.g. self-selection of the role peer tutor, while their talk appeared to be hesitant in providing comments. The peers self-selected the role of peer tutor by signalling, using meta-discourse (framing and focusing moves in Sinclair and Coulthard), and they used this meta-discourse frequently in the opening moves and during the interaction. Meta-discourse is a key rhetorical function that helps to present information in a clear, convincing and interesting way (Hyland, 2000). While peer

frame markers, e.g. “*ok*”, “*so*”, “*first of all*”, “*first introduction*”, serve to guide and to prepare the reader for the subsequent discussion, introduction patterns contain person markers, e.g. “*Ata first*”, “*I will comment both of you and then you (pointing Paul and Jorja) comment me*”, which tend to support the idea that this form of reader-writer solidarity helps comprehensible understanding (Crismore, 1989).

However, in terms of peer interaction, providing feedback does not seem to be very straightforward, as the students show a lot of hesitancy when initiating and mitigating their talk, as shown in Chapter 7. The use of the teacher’s name is important to support the EAP peer’s argument, since the EAP “peer tutor” does not have the range of language knowledge and status to push their arguments to completion, unlike *real* teachers or experts. Also, this authority figure is exhibited in Jolie’s and Hassan’s talk, in extract 7.3, Chapter 7: e.g. “*He said we have to use headings*”, “*Did he say you can do it?*”. An argument or a conflict seems to reach an agreement when peers mention what their teacher has said in the lesson.

Secondly, when negotiating views, the peer tutors themselves admit that they lack specific knowledge, or that they cannot satisfy the recipient’s expectation. For example, peer talk finds that: “*I didn’t find (what was wrong) ° your grammar ...I am not good at this*” (line 5 in extract 7.1). This uncertainty over level of knowledge often leads to participation by the other group members; this results in shifting roles and leads to all other group members seeking explanations from each other. It also encourages the whole group to provide recourses as a source of convincing evidence. In so doing, they use their teacher’s voice or mention the group’s previous experience, e.g. preliminary sessions, as shown in extract 7.3; or other group members join in the discussion, e.g. “*There’s one you keep repeating*” (line 7 in extract 7.1). When peers give their opinions and try to gain support for their arguments, or consider other possibilities, peers constantly try to provide rational arguments. This “continuity” (van Lier, 1991) of connection of knowledge that has already been gained creates a learning environment and fills up knowledge gaps. We see from observation, through the exchange and sharing of opinions among group members, that problems become more visible, which results in the recipient peers’ understanding of his problem, as shown in extracts 7.1 and 7.4. It would seem then that the ways in which peers share opinions is in line with the scaffolding strategies in teacher feedback interaction. In other words, knowledge can be modified or newly constructed by the mutual sharing of existing knowledge.

Thirdly, unlike other tutoring contexts, e.g. teacher-student interaction, one distinctive feature of peer interaction in peer conferences is the freedom to reject the peer tutor's advice (Thonus, 1999b). It is not surprising that, in this context, arguments or conflicting views between peers are frequently observed. This is because, while teacher conferences in the expert-novice role are relatively clear cut, in peer conferences, the peer tutor and peer tutee may carry different perceptions of what knowledge is needed for the particular context (i.e. the conventions of essay writing), as also seen in the example of Waring's study (2005) in Chapter 7.

In this peer interaction, peers sometimes ignore the role of peer tutor, e.g. "*Hello? (. ((smiling and putting his hands to Samira))*" (line 2 in extract 7.2), or the comments are rejected, e.g. "*= I know I know (.)...*" (line 16 in extract 7.2). This results in asking for the participation of other group members, "*what's the better idea?*" (line 32 in extract 7.2), as the peer tutor or tutee requests possible solutions from peers. So, information was shared or exchanged not only between the peer tutor and peer tutee, but among all peer group members. Through a "dialogic"/"dialogical" collaborative activity (Bakhtin, 1981, cited in Barnes & Todd, 1995), peers were able to invite opinions from other peers, ask questions and make suggestions. However, an interesting observation is that peer tutors, in some cases, want to keep or to emphasise their role, as shown in the case of Samira and Jolie in extracts 7.2 and 7.3.

Finally, when they negotiate each others' views, the peers' talk reflects the pressure of the new relationship between the peer tutor and tutee and uneasiness in the tutor role performance. Jolie's laughing, "*I CAN'T*" with laughing "*(xxx) hehehe*" (line 9 in extract 7.3), may show that she is uncomfortable with taking on the role of the tutor, or may reveal that she has a high level of discomfort with the idea of participating in collaborative work; a feature that has been observed in other studies (Young, 1992, cited in Thonus, 1999b; Carson and Nelson, 1996). This uneasiness is exhibited by peers often starting evaluation without caring about student feelings, making a joke, laughing and using informal or casual tones, etc.

Nevertheless, an important benefit of joint decision-making in peer feedback activity is the increased likelihood that all peers will participate in the discussion and articulate their opinions. In particular, less capable peers have opportunities to clarify, request and negotiate meaning in the discussion, while more capable peers rise to the challenge and want to support other peers through logical reasoning. This elaboration with reasoning talk is involved in "exploratory talk" to facilitate or foster their learning (Mercer, 2000).

As can be seen in Chapter 7, once the peer talk moves beyond evaluation or correction, their potential role and relationship seems to shift to collaboration. Peers seem to change in their relationship from teacher-like authoritarian roles to interactive roles as a supporter, as seen in Dani's behaviour in extract 7.4; or as a joint participant to deal with a specific problem, as seen in Dane's behaviour in extract 7.1, which seems to be a key issue in peer collaboration. When group members maintain their role as collaborators, EAP writers are more likely to help each other. The current study would confirm that as well as agreement, challenges or conflicting views between/among peers are also important in keeping participants engaged in knowledge building dynamically (Wells, 1999). With conflict, peers in a small group seem to challenge each other, expose their different views and take criticism from others based on evidence. All peer groups tended to accept a cooperative or collaborative peer relationship rather than an instructor-student model. This dynamic seems to lead to an increase in opportunities for interactional adjustment and learning potential. This result suggests that, without negotiation, such conflicts may not be resolved or may create arguments, resulting in the participant peers feeling dissatisfied. Thus, when peer group members choose cooperative roles, EAP student writers develop their self-management skills, and promote control over learning and cooperation with others (Fantuzzo & Rohrebeck, 1992). Peer tutoring can, then, realise joint success, because the participants can articulate their own opinions or take part in discussion if they work collaboratively. This is the most crucial point for collective thinking, which can be intellectually beneficial for the peer group members.

8.3 Summary

By investigating interaction between teacher and student, and between peers in their writing context, we can see student contributions with their teachers and with peers in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 have been shaped by a range of interactional strategies: questioning, different discourse approaches and other strategies, including scaffolding, for example. During the process, a number of interactional strategies enable the maintaining of student interest and involvement in the activity and establishing mutual engagement of collective zone as Intermental Development Zone (IDZ) (Mercer, 2000) for supporting student understandings. In this way, we see how a number of interactional strategies offer opportunities for meaningful student contributions, and how peers negotiate each others' views. In the next chapter, I will conclude this study and suggest some further research.

CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Research undertaken for this thesis has focused primarily on the nature of teacher-student/student-student writing conferences in the EAP writing classroom. The research explored the ways of talking to support student-learning opportunities employed by teachers in teacher-student writing conferences, and the ways of role construction and negotiation between each others' views in student-student writing conferences. It was observed that, in teacher-student writing conferences, a number of interactional strategies were used to facilitate a space for learning and shaping students' meaningful contributions. In student-student writing conferences scenarios, peers construct the role and negotiate each others' views in complex ways.

This concluding chapter contains four sections: section 9.1 presents conclusive remarks based on findings gleaned from observations of role behaviour in teacher-student and peer interactions within writing conferences. This section includes developments on any existing knowledge and draws attention to evidence gained from observations in the processes of primary research. Section 9.2 considers the contributions and implications made by this research. Section 9.3 reflects on limitations of the study and methodologies used to draw material for research. Section 9.4 provides suggestions for any subsequent or further research.

9.1 Conclusions on the role of interaction in writing conferences

Reflecting on analyses of research questions 1 and 2, Chapter 8 discussed findings in two parts: the first dealt with the study's findings relating to teacher-students interaction and the processes of teaching and learning within writing conferences. It was found that teachers use a combination of strategies—including questioning, different teaching approaches and various interactional strategies, including non-verbal expressions and scaffolding techniques—that support and sustain the potentiality of student learning. However, it is also argued that making claims on such potentiality is very problematic with recourse to empirical investigation that aims to provide evidence that explains “how it works”: on the basis on what we have seen in the data as evidence, the findings directly pertain to educational practice within EAP writing conferences.

Working within the socio-cultural approach to learning and teaching—particularly within contexts of writing conferences—analysing teacher strategies and pinpointing their qualities in engaging the student and fostering developments in student understanding through student contributions would certainly be a useful function to a study. By utilisation of different interactional strategies, these characteristics have been identified as follows.

9.1.1 Characteristics of teacher-student interaction in writing conferences

Characteristics of teacher questions

Teachers use questions in different ways to create and maintain the sense of a shared and open environment with their students. To do this, they ask for responses in terms of the students' feelings about writing; they give opportunities for the students' reflection on experience or self-evaluation; they adopt and take ownership of students' problems as their own task for resolution; they ask relevant questions to students that give opportunities for students to reveal or "flesh out" ideas; they explore, elaborate and extend student ideas by asking "why...what...how" questions.

It is observed how writing teachers, at the beginning of the conferences, exude openness and warm ideal environments in which to ask questions that encourage students to voice their honest feelings on their studies, feelings or reflections on previous experiences, and they then assist the students to overcome problems and inhibitions through engaging them in the problem-solving process. This process of engagement sustains the students' interest in helping them arrive at the recognition of their problems and encourage creative resolutions through creative teaching.

Characteristic of authoritative and dialogic discourse

I provide some means by which distinctions between authoritative and dialogic approaches can be made in terms of their delivery and results. In truth, however, teachers constantly alternate between each approach in a single session. "Authoritative discourse" (or the monologic approach) is devoid of the co-constructive processes between teacher and student; it is composed solely of a monologue from the teachers. There are few, if any, student responses or revelations of student thought through lack of support or invitation for student interaction; however, this form of discourse embodies information needed by students, as well as professional knowledge. "Dialogic discourse", meanwhile, exhibits co-construction activities between teacher and student; it is marked by invitations of student contribution by the teacher

with evaluation and extension of students' points of views. In instances of authoritative approaches, gaps in the understanding of students may occur, but any attempts to fill the gaps by the student appealing to the teacher for clarification are discouraged by the teachers' drive to shape the session in the manner that they wish. However, when teachers shift towards dialogic discourse, there is opportunity for students to clarify and to redress any misunderstandings. It must be stressed that, although authoritative discourse seems to dissuade student contribution or enquiry, we cannot simply dismiss it as a bad and ineffective teaching methodology. It is necessary to introduce new information on which the student can develop a critical understanding through subsequent co-constructive sessions. In conclusion, it is obvious that each discourse has inherent strengths and weaknesses, depending on lesson contexts and the level of education which a teacher may have.

Characteristics of other interactional strategies

Teachers use a number of other interactional strategies to support student learning. These consist of using various discourse markers—for example, opening, closing, modifying, cause, effect—as methods of signposting to aid students' awareness of the environment; use of a louder voice to indicate attention or interest; shifts in the pronoun “*I*” to “*US*” to indicate involvement; uses of mitigation and hedges in order to protect students' positive faces, or for the provision for negotiation; use of sufficient “*wait time*”; no obvious intention to repair student error; and non-verbal expressions—like smiling, nodding, maintaining eye contact, pointing at the paper, hand gestures, looking at a student's lips to correct pronunciation problems: all these actions establish warmth and construct a rapport between teachers and their students.

Characteristics of the scaffolding technique

Not simply limited to expert-and-novice relationships, the scaffolding support technique is also interested in processes of a narrative of a learner's development under teacher guidance in contexts of a collective learning environment; the Intermental Development Zone (IDZ). Scaffolding teachers try to maintain students' interest, enthusiasm and a shared frame through, first, changes in situational power asymmetry, in which the scaffolding technique redistributes the situational power asymmetry, enabling the students to ask questions, articulate thoughts and voice problems—thus increasing the students' share of responsibility for their learning; and second, encouraging a more active level of student participation by not merely providing answers, but also counter-argumentation, to persuade a more critical engagement between

students and their own ideas.

9.1.2 Characteristics of student-student interaction in writing conferences

The second part of Chapter 8 discussed findings in relation to peer role construction, management and negotiation of viewpoints between each individual in peer reviews or peer writing conferences. I also argued how peers experience feelings of instability and uncertainty in the roles of peer tutor performance.

Characteristics of peer negotiation regarding each other's views

Through primary research undertaken through observation, three distinctive manners of peer talk were identified in peers' role construction and management, which were the same as those detailed in Mercer's (1995) three ways of talk: exploratory, cumulative and disputational. Exploratory talk is characterised by asking questions, elaboration, sharing ideas in a critical way, and evaluation of views. This talk promotes learners' supporting arguments in a critical manner as they elaborate reasons which reach an agreement in the end. Cumulative talk is characterised by accepting comments in an uncritical way, and sharing common problems repeatedly or constantly that the group might be encountering. The instances of cumulative talk appear to save the face of the speaker and allow a fuller turn continuously, and facilitate the reaching of an agreement without problems. Disputational talk includes asking questions, making assertions of knowledge, self-evaluation or self-correction of the problem by the tutee, overt rejection and unmarked acknowledgments. In particular, the talk related to asking questions, self-evaluation or self-correction of the problem by the tutor sometimes motivates other peer groups to join the discussion; in these cases, disputational talk can be turned into exploratory talk to reach a consensus at the conclusion. This implies that each member of the peer conference can engage in the discussion, with such formats containing *epistemic authority*—being open to all members, but vulnerable to challenges.

Characteristics of peer negotiation regarding each others' views

Peers negotiate with viewpoints in complex ways. Such tactics include, first, how peers initiate their talk by simultaneously assuming a teacher-like authority, but showing hesitancy when providing comments—presumably still aware they are only L2 students; second, peers admit a lack of specific knowledge, or cannot satisfy the recipient's expectation; third, peers also reject, challenge, or agree with other peers' comments; fourth, almost all observations reflected the

pressure of the new relationship between the peer tutor and tutee and uneasiness in the role—laughter, disregard for peers’ feelings, joking, using informal or casual tones—all such behaviour was symptomatic of some uneasiness with the role.

We can conclude from the findings that peers negotiate each others’ views in more complex ways than may be the case with the teacher-student format. When peers show mutual support of each others’ views, they assume the role of collaborator rather than a teacher-like figure of authority. However, just as with teacher-student interactions, when peers try to gain support for their arguments, or consider other possibilities, they seem to invite other peers’ active participation in small groups.

9.2 Contribution and implications of the research

As discussed in the previous chapter, I addressed a number of issues arising from the findings and arrived at implications for the research. In this section, I will sum up the main contributions of this study and its implications for further research.

9.2.1 The role of interaction in the process of teaching and learning.

To meet with research aims and questions, this study gathered and observed empirical evidence thoroughly from teaching and learning practices, all of which yielded material, enabling a good level of understanding of the role of interaction in the process of teaching and learning. As explained in Chapter 2, there are marked differences in the processes of learning between cognitive and social views of learning theory. While the cognitive learning approach stresses interaction as a source of input with the individual responsive to their own learning (Long & Doughty, 2003), the social approach instead considers interaction as a socially-negotiated event and a collaborative rather than an individual mental phenomenon (Mercer 2000). In order to understand the processes of learning, this study draws more theoretical groundwork from the social aspect of learning; for example, the relationship between the interaction used by teachers and learners and fellow learners—and the correlation between this interaction and learning outcomes. It interrogates the question of how classroom interaction can help learning, and how it extends implications in socio-cultural theories of learning in classroom studies.

Via the provision of strong evidence, this study illustrates how classroom dialogue is used to guide the co-construction of knowledge, particularly within contexts of writing conferences.

Throughout this study on the construction of knowledge, the range of interactional strategies that create and maintain student opportunities for learning—in which students play an active role to reflect their experiences or to reveal their problems—have been discussed. Examples of this lie in the devices that allow self-evaluation of their problems, and the articulation, elaboration and extension of their ideas. In terms of the role of interaction in learning, especially within writing classrooms, there has already been considerable research undertaken on pedagogy in written feedback; little attention, however, has been paid to the dynamic nature of empirical research of writing conferences, or oral feedback in the process of joint construction of knowledge—such as in students’ active participation with teachers and amongst peers (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Williams, 2004). Under the socio-cultural theory, this study concerns itself with contributing to an increased understanding of the nature of interaction in teacher-student/student-student writing conferences; on how teachers and students can jointly construct their knowledge; and how students can develop their understanding with their teachers and with their peers. In contrast to a number of studies on the effectiveness of teacher comments and peer comments, there have been relatively few empirical studies to investigate methods that support EAP students’ knowledge construction in EAP writing classrooms. Based on evidence, EAP student writers could benefit from teacher-student writing conferences or oral feedback in areas of self-evaluation, the extension of their knowledge or ideas, high involvement of their essay problems, asking questions and suggestions, amongst many others. In particular, it is argued that the students who are given structured opportunities in their learning environment can reflect on their problems critically and formulate new ways of tackling their problems. Thus, engaging in self-reflection/self-evaluation at the very early stages of the feedback activity has been shown to develop the students’ thinking processes under the teachers’ guidance. It is suggested that the teachers’ questioning processes—which includes the students’ feelings, experiences, difficulties and improvement—is an essential first step towards encouraging the students’ involvement in the learning activity. The study result arrives at the conclusion that “follow-up” or “evaluation” moves hold potential in promoting extended contributions and developments of students’ thinking. As seen in this study, one important concept for building a theory relating to teacher-student interaction in writing conferences is that of “dialogic teaching” (Alexander, 2004). This concept shows clear links with the engagement and involvement of learners, persuading them into playing more active roles in their education and developing their understanding. As we have seen in this study, teachers that create and maintain opportunities for productive dialogue through using dialogic teaching strategies can

lead students' joint participation in problem resolution.

Nevertheless, as is also derived from this study's findings, and conclusions of the differences in approach between dialogic and authoritative discourses, it is unquestionable that the authoritative discourse approach has validity. The study shows that authoritative discourse can provide the necessary information that students require without confusion. This is seen in the observation where a student is rebuked for plagiarising. For a teacher to raise an issue as serious as plagiarism, employing an authoritative discourse is necessary, as the student seemed not to understand anti-plagiarism policies—despite attending the lectures. However, in other areas of learning environments, authoritative discourse still suffers limitations in terms of encouraging student engagement, or as an educational tool for them to ask questions on any aspect that is not clear to them. The study thus arrives at the conclusion that, without dialogic talk, there is less opportunity for clarification of unclear points and provision for students to gain clear understanding from their teachers of what has been misunderstood. There is, therefore, a requirement that teachers continually shift from authoritative to dialogic discourses, thereby providing students with an active role in the creation of a collective environment, or the Intermental Development Zone (Mercer 2000). We can be certain that both discourse approaches have their own validity, but in terms of joint construction of knowledge and developing understanding, teachers need to take much more care when orchestrating quality talk with creativity and with maintaining students' interest, and developing a communicative zone between two discursual approaches.

An additional important concept that describes the processes of learning in this study is that of “scaffolding”. While in general the metaphor of scaffolding is used to explain the teaching stage, or support the problem-solving process within the expert-novice relationship in classrooms, this study suggests that it can be extended into also explaining and arriving at an understanding of joint and dynamic interactions between a teacher and a student. It is more than simply giving clues or handing over tasks. Rather, teachers adopt a number of spontaneous strategies that maintain students' interest and enthusiasm and result in an increased responsibility of learning, in which students become more critically involved in their own education, engage in problem-solving tasks and shift towards a real active participation in their own education. Although, as Alexander (2004) argues, the empirical evidence for scaffolding teaching is little, the creation and maintenance of dialogic space for students' active participation has effects in terms of teaching agendas and their pedagogical intention at that

given moment. Moreover, the scaffolding processes shown in Chapters 5 and 6 can be extended to collaborative learning between students with similar levels of conceptual understanding. In symmetrical interactions, peers in groups show several functions of the tutor in terms of scaffolding—as mentioned in Wood et al.'s (1976) study (see Chapter 2). First, it is evident that the peers can maintain other peers' interest when relating to their problems by using names, markers and signposting. They can even encourage other peers' views or show appreciation—using utterances like “*What is your opinion?*”, or “*You are like awesome*”. Second, peers, as epistemic figures of authority, share different ideas with group members in trying to resolve problems through providing logical or reasoned answers—all are examples of what Mercer calls “exploratory talk”. Since everyone in the group shared her/his views freely, there is more provision for EAP writers to maximise their requests for clarification, questions and commentaries in terms of their writing problems. Third, peers can make counter arguments, or negotiate with each others' viewpoints in reaching an agreement. This displays some critical features. However, when compared to teacher-student interaction, peer views can be vulnerable; for example, sometimes peers admit a lack of ability in tracing grammatical errors, or place heavy reliance on the teacher's authority, or display ignorance of their peers' comments. However, when peers engage in exploratory talk, they appear enthusiastic in sharing each others' views. All these features imply that scaffolding can also be made useful for understanding learning in symmetrical interactions. The concept of scaffolding should be extended towards an understanding of learning in classroom dialogue, from temporary, stage and expert support for collective thinking (Wood et al, 1976), through to continuous, shared, dialogic and dynamic joint activities. This study suggests that, if teachers or practitioners wish to apply scaffolding in peer interaction, their method of talk may require some degree of training and fine-tuning before they possess adequate experience in peer activity—for example, in how to negotiate with each others' views more intellectually, as seen in examples of exploratory exchanges in peers' writing conferences.

With regard to methodological issues, though there are a number of ways of analysing classroom talk, we as researchers need to develop ways that will enable us a fuller understanding of classroom interaction, in which students jointly construct their knowledge with their teachers and peers. Focusing on interaction, a central argument in this study is the need to understand the student's joint learning process with their teachers and peers in the classroom. This is essential in leading to successful instructions in the dynamic learning process. To this end, as drawn in this study, language and learning need to be investigated

closely. In addition, two kinds of learning perspectives, namely cognitive and social views, may offer understanding of useful insights for learning. In classrooms, interaction between teacher and student and amongst peers is perhaps the most crucial part of learning processes in how it offers optimal evidence for learning through inner speech—this can be equally important as a factor. If we consider students' learning processes, we may consider participation (Sfard, 1998)—in other words, the social view of learning. As mentioned in Chapter 3, each approach possesses unique strengths and weaknesses; it would be wise to adapt or to apply appropriate methods to explore interaction according to research goals, aims and outcomes expected from them. If teachers are looking to gain a closer understanding of classroom interaction, it is arguably important to have empirical evidence as recorded data on which to base improvements to boost the learning process.

9.2.2 Implications for educational practice

How can we support student learning effectively through dialogue in classrooms? Many researchers or practitioners try to understand language and learning through looking at the nature of interaction in many educationally different contexts. In this study, I show how a range of ways of dialogue can shape the nature of student contributions in constructing knowledge. I observed how crucial the quality of teacher talk is, in terms of how it enables students to take part in active roles. I have also shown that peers can engage in autonomous problem-solving—attaining this level of educational maturity through being nurtured into a sense of sharing their knowledge. One key thread of argumentation in this study is that education should be aware of the nature of interaction in order to improve the quality of classroom dialogue. In addition, students should be encouraged to take an active role and engage in appropriate ways of dialogue for any given task. Yet, relations in education are often mired inside institutional constraints between teachers and students, and also between administrators and teachers. Thus, potentially, it is not easy to adopt new measures without controversy. How, then, should we overcome such a deadlock? As I suggested in Chapter 8, dialogues or talk-in-interaction (Drew and Heritage, 1992) with teachers and with students is a way to enable students to develop their understanding and to articulate their ideas or thoughts in more symmetrical ways that are characteristic of a knowledge-sharing environment.

This study has demonstrated the importance of quality dialogue in the support of student learning in environments of both teacher-student and student-student interaction within writing

conferences. It arrives at the following implications:

- 1) It is important that writing teachers create an environment conducive to students' frank discussion and honesty. This must be open, warm and engaged from the very start of the conference. Teachers must make obvious their interest in how to enhance student ownership of learning—continually encouraging students to participate through discussions, choice, responsibility and decision-making; helping them to reflect on previous educational experience and helping the student to arrive at critically-engaged ideas and conclusions through joint construction in learning.
- 2) Teachers must be discerning in terms of which environment they employ certain discourses. They must be able to differentiate between authoritative and dialogic approaches towards their charges and be aware of the implications of both on the student. They should be able to change smoothly between the two approaches to suit instances of student demands—aware of possible power shifts in the interaction; aware that it may be necessary to move away from the recitation model if it benefits students, allowing them to raise their issues. In this way, student enquiries will not be blocked and chances are freely given to them whenever they require.
- 3) Teachers should make full and systematic use of a number of other interactional tools for the support of students during episodes that potentially require negotiation. Examples of these tools are uses of various discourse markers, volume of voice, mitigation and hedges, sufficient wait time, subtle indications of errors in expression or grammar (to allow uninhibited dialogue), and non-verbal expression.
- 4) They should use appropriate scaffolding techniques to enable support of a continual learning narrative in which students can maintain interest, enthusiasm and real involvement in problem-solving. They should be discerning enough to redress situational power asymmetry—shifting to a symmetrical environment that will increase their proportion of responsibility in their learning.
- 5) Teachers must ensure that peers in groups in writing conferences are trained in class discussion before the activity. This training will offer the students a discussion to learn from both teachers' and students' prior experiences with peer response and group work (Hansen & Liu, 2005: 32). More importantly, it will also offer an

awareness of what peer work should entail for those with little or no experience with peer conferences on writing. Thus, the class discussion may serve two functions: first, it may offer the teachers insight into creating a comfortable environment for students to establish peer trust (Hansen & Liu, 2005). This may help peers' willingness to collaborate in peer interaction. Second, it may offer the teachers insights into how to address peer conferences/reviews effectively; including peers' interpersonal social skills, group formation and the ways of pursuing each others' views. Peer groups will then follow suit in pursuing their views using a range of dialogue—including exploratory ways of exchange, for example, with logic and reasoning, self-evaluation or evaluations of others' work, elaborations, challenges or counter arguments, questions for clarification and suggestions regarding each others' essays.

Valuable new insights discovered from this research, observed from the evidence base here, could assist practitioners in the development of instructional techniques on writing classes in terms of student engagement in the activity, the developing of student understanding, scaffolding or peer collaborative learning, specifically for the purposes of English for Academic Purposes. Also, this study could be developed further still as an explanatory account by L2 classroom researchers. These dynamic features of empirical findings are important in attempts to understand student learning in terms of the ways students' co-construct knowledge with their teachers and peers.

9.3 Limitations of the study

As with any research project, there were certain limitations to this study. Acknowledgement of the limitations of the research here may contribute to a more in-depth understanding of the role of both the teacher/peer writing conferences and the use of CA-informed methodology in investigating EAP learning and teaching.

- 1) Different group sizes and various cultural backgrounds of the members in the groups in a particular learning context may be a limitation in generalising the findings. In peer feedback activities, there were different group sizes—ranging from pairs to groups of up to four members. The research involved identifying collaborative features of the group activity, and it is possible that the action or behaviour of group members could

have been affected by group size. Moreover, students had different social and cultural backgrounds, and it is possible that individual student expectations for feedback or group processes may vary according to different cultural backgrounds.

- 2) The investigation of all three levels of English proficiency may limit the generalisability of the findings. Although the classes were all part of pre-sessional courses—all with similar tasks and similar feedback activities in the writing process at a UK university—they were all different in context and situation. Proficiency ranged from intermediate to advanced, and the classes were integrated into the students' own subject areas. The purpose for choosing three different courses was not to compare proficiency levels, but to ensure that sufficient data was obtained. Future research could analyse differences between the three course levels, in terms of role performance and individual differences in similar subject settings. In addition, the samples of teacher feedback interaction varied, and some students had a tutorial twice or more, while others had a tutorial only once. It is quite possible that the feedback on the first draft and the second draft may affect the student's participation or role performance.
- 3) The present study examined only spoken interaction in conferences on the EAP students' draft-writing. It did not attempt to link what we did not see in the interaction. My investigation is based only on what they produced in the feedback activity.
- 4) There were many practical considerations relating to conducting the research, data collection and transcription. For data collection, I recorded teacher/peer activities using video/audio devices. The fact that the student knew that they were being recorded may have affected their behaviour during the recordings, although I tried to reduce possible bias as much as possible. For example, the video was left in an adjacent room while the feedback activity occurred. Also, the data presented in the chapters is only a subset of the total data collected. In terms of transcription, I dealt with only a selection of short extracts from the whole recording of tutorial sessions, or the entirety of peer feedback sessions. Analysing and presenting all of the data would have been a huge task, given such a massive amount of recordings. Under these circumstances, it would have been difficult to demonstrate all features from the opening till the closing of the sessions, and more difficult still to illustrate connections to earlier lessons. I have tried, however, to demonstrate teachers' and peers' ways of talk explicitly, using the sort of language events that can be understood as episodes. Each episode can be understood as an important learning/teaching event.

- 5) One major challenge in this study was to analyse what was taking place in the feedback activity and its connection with a specific context. While I have tried to maximise the benefits of qualitative investigation by the resources of an institutional CA and DA, I also attempted to undertake a systematic observation through looking at the aims of the courses, their goals and tasks—all of which are related to the context. However, I may also have missed certain aspects of the pedagogical context.
- 6) As a whole, the findings of the current study were limited to a particular context with only a few cases of a EAP pre-sessional writing course within a UK higher education climate, and, therefore, the findings of this empirical study may be not be so generalisable. However, it is believed that the findings from the in-depth qualitative investigations may still make an original contribution to the area of teaching English to EAP students. The following section provides some suggestions for future research.

9.4 Suggestions for further research

This thesis has analysed data from three pre-sessional writing courses in a UK higher education context. As described above, there are certain parts of this research that require further study. I would like to close this thesis by making the following three suggestions for research that could potentially improve EAP language learners' academic literacy development.

- 1) Writing is a complex and difficult process. With dialogue, the writing instructors are required to build up supportive environments for EAP student writers. Process writing is a shift away from the philosophy that “learning is being taught” towards “learning is building knowledge with others” (Watkins, 2003). Therefore, the learning activity is not for testing but instead for communication, or the sharing of ideas or concepts, using the target language. Spoken/oral feedback sessions or writing conferences especially have now been widely-accepted in the writing classroom, since they provide good opportunities for student participation. My study covered specific areas of opening sequences and various discursive strategies on how teacher/peer feedback interaction helps EAP students' learning and thinking. It would be useful if the closing sequences were investigated too, as we could then see how participants close talks or change their tasks or topics.
- 2) To learn to think together. There are many ways to guide the development of students' thinking through dialogue. In my data, a disputational talk (Mercer, 1995) between

teacher and student is indeed especially rare or uncommon in the teacher-student writing conferences context; however, there was one such instance presented in Chapter 6. Only a small segment was presented and the student finally agreed with the teacher's advice only after a long discussion, lasting over 47 minutes. Future research could explore argumentation in the teacher-student conferences context when it occurs, since the conflict views were associated with joint reasoning and knowledge construction. It would be worthwhile if this type of talk was compared with peer discussion. The research showed that peers were defensive and overtly competitive, rather than being cooperative and satisfied with the sharing of ideas (e.g. Mercer & Littleton, 2007:59-61).

- 3) Bring methodology and context together. As my main interest was the nature of spoken feedback interaction within communicative language teaching, it is clearly necessary to consider a methodology that simultaneously straddles teaching, learning and specific contexts (Bax, 2003). As Ellis (2001:57) maintains: "there is no one 'best' way to teach a language, but rather options from which teachers must select in accordance with the particular contexts in which they work". However, Mercer (Mercer & Littleton 2007:142) argues that "it is important to recognise and celebrate the diversity of learners' language experience outside school, but it is also crucial to recognise that different social environments will not necessarily provide the same range of language experiences". In short, bringing a more appropriate methodology into teaching/learning activities to specific contexts may be a necessary action to establish an appropriate guidance for language teaching/learning.

Conferences and Publications

I read my paper, "Taking others' views in peer feedback interaction", at the Biennial BALEAP Conference at the University of Reading, UK, on 7 April 2009.

I presented my poster, "Taking others' views in peer interaction", at the Graduate School Poster Competition at Oxford Brookes University, UK, on 28 January 2009.

I read my paper, "The role of peers in peer feedback interaction", at the LAEL Conference at the University of Lancaster, UK, on 2 July 2009.

I read my paper, "The scaffolding technique in interactive spoken feedback on EAP writing", at the LangUE Conference at the University of Essex, UK, on 15 March 2008.

I presented my poster, "Scaffolding Technique for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) Learners", at the Graduate School Poster Competition at Oxford Brookes University, UK, on 30 January 2008 (Awarded First Prize).

I read my paper, "Negotiating meaning in interactive teacher feedback on student draft essays in EAP writing classroom", at Lang UE Conference at the University of Essex, UK, on 13 July 2007.

Published online at:

<http://www.essex.ac.uk/linguistics/department/events/langue/2007/proceedings/pdf/Nam-Hee%20Cho.pdf>.

I published my paper, "Speaking alone in front of the mirror", in The Ideas for Classroom Management, Kyeonggido Ministry Education, Kyeonggido, Republic of Korea, in 1997 (Awarded First Prize).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: A PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Dear Participants

I am going to invite you to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether you want to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

The research will be conducted by Nam Hee Cho (supervised by Dr David Langford, Dr Paul Wickens and Prof John Geake) of Westminster Institute of Education for a research degree programme at Oxford Brookes University.

Study title

An exploration of the nature of teacher/peer feedback interactions on pre-sessional English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses in UK higher education

The purpose of the study

The aim of the investigation will be to develop an understanding of how feedback is given and responded to by EAP students in their performance of writing tasks.

In order to achieve this aim, the following sub-questions will be addressed:

1. What patterns are evident in the focus, linguistic encoding and discourse structure of feedback interactions?
2. How do teacher/student feedback interactions differ from student/student feedback interactions?

An outline of the research design and research procedure

The research will focus on EAP students in a UK University and will comprise of discourse analytic descriptions of feedback interactions in three different EAP classrooms differentiated by level of student learning (MPhil: Stage 1-3/ PhD: Stage 4).

Stage 1: Literature Search and Review 10/04-09/05

The review of literature will seek to establish what is known about classroom generated feedback on writing tasks in the EAP classroom. The review will also focus on the literature relating to the analysis of classroom interaction, and will place particular emphasis on fine-grained analyses of specific forms of interactional event.

Stage 2: Data Collection and Transcription 09/05-02/06

Video-recordings of three different student cohorts will be made. Three 1 hour sessions per cohort will be recorded and transcribed using the conventions that have been evolved for use in the practice of Conversation Analysis (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 1998).

Stage 3: Data Analysis 03/06-09/06

Data analysis will apply the Conversational Analytic methodology and will seek to disclose how participants co-ordinate their discourse behaviours, so as to produce what is recognisable and oriented to by them as feedback in interaction.

Stage 4: Thesis Preparation 09/06-09/07

During this period the final writing up of the thesis will be completed and will be informed by

seminar-based dissemination of student cohort feedback behaviour descriptions within the Institute. This research will enable both teachers and students in EAP contexts to have a systematically described basis for understanding what is happening when feedback is given or received, and to make more informed judgements as to its situational efficacy.

Participation in the research

Taking part in the research is entirely voluntary. If the students do decide to take part they will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If the students decide to take part they are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

Potential risk

Setting video-recording equipment amongst peers or in a teacher-fronted classroom may distract participants' attention and possibly invite untypical behaviour.

Potential benefit

Participants will be encouraged to speak about feedback which they have given or made. Students may reflect on their work more often and they may be motivated to find out their strengths and weaknesses. Also, they may develop a strong social relationship and share their ideas and feelings with their peers.

Confidentiality

Data collected on feedback interaction will be kept strictly confidential and data and all identifying information will be kept in a separate locked filing cabinet. Data will be stored on the researcher's own computer to which only she has access. Files will be password protected. The data generated during the course of the research will be kept securely in paper or electronic form for a period of five years after the completion of the research project.

The results of the research

The result of the study will be published but the participants names will not appear in the publication in any way. The participant can obtain a copy of the published research in the library if they ask.

Review of the study

The research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee, Oxford Brookes University.

Contact for Further Information

If there are any queries or questions concerning the research, please contact the researcher at: namheecho@brookes.ac.uk, or supervisor Dr David Langford at: dlangford@brookes.ac.uk, or Dr Paul Wickins at: pwickens@brookes.ac.uk

If they have any concerns about the way in which the study has been conducted, the participant should contact the Chair of the University Research Ethics Committee at: ethics@brookes.ac.uk.

Thank you very much for taking the time to read the information sheet!

Date: 10. 2005

Yours faithfully,

Nam Hee Cho

APPENDIX II: CONSENT FORM

Full title of project: Exploring the nature of teacher/peer feedback interaction relating to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classroom-based writing tasks.

Name, position and contact address of researcher: Name: Nam Hee Cho

Position: A research degree student in Westminster Institute of Education at Oxford Brookes University. Contact e-mail: namheecho@brookes.ac.uk

Initial Box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason.
3. I agree to take part in the above study.
4. I agree that my behaviour in the classroom can be recorded via video.

5. I agree that my draft essay can be studied.
6. I agree that my internet interaction can be studied.

7. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

Name of Participant	Date	Signature
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Name of Researcher	Date	Signature
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APPENDIX III: NUMBER OF RECORDINGS

A. Teacher-Student Conferences (Spoken Teacher feedback)

Class: i) IFD: International Foundation Diploma, ii) FDLA: Foundation Diploma Liberal of Arts and iii) GPD: Graduation Preparation Diploma

No	Recording numbered	Recording time-minutes	Nationality	Class	About topic	Draft	References
1	RT1-UM1	22.42	Ukraine	IFD	Poverty on Africa	1	AppendixV-A 1)9.57
2	RT2-PM1	24.12	Pakistan	IFD	Is the world bank's role in alleviating poverty adequate?	1	AppendixV-A 2)5.37
3	RT3-IM1	42.26	Italy	IFD	A discussion about structuralism and Existentialism	1	Extract6.3 (1.48) AppendixV-A 3)4.23
4	RT4-CF1	12.28	China	IFD	Where do clothes come from?	1	Extract 5.4 (1.26) AppendixV-A 4)6.05
5	RT5-FF1	15.30	France	IFD	Terrorism, the force behind a new law in the United Kingdom?	1	AppendixV-A 5)2.04
6	RT6-JM2	29.23	Japan	IFD	Understanding future experiences of an ageing Japan from economic point of view	2	AppendixV-A 6)5.52
7	RT7-JM2	26.35	Japan	IFD	Fact of history: what is distortion of history?	2	AppendixV-A 7)5.08
8	RT8-UM2	16.48	Ukraine	IFD	Poverty in Africa	2	Extract6.4 (1.39) AppendixV-A 8)5.20
9	RT9-FF2	29.01	France	IFD	Terrorism, the force behind a new law in the United Kingdom?	2	AppendixV-A 9)4.57
10	RT10-CF2	15.21	China	IFD	Where do clothes come from?	2	AppendixV-A 10)5.11
11	TT1-JF1	17.20	Jordan	FDL A	About Education	1	AppendixV-A 11)5.06
12	TT2-BM1	14.26	Brazil	FDL A	What will happen if we run out of petrol?	1	Extract6.2 (1.08) AppendixV-A 12)5.30
13	TT3-LF1	10.21	Latvia	FDL A	Analyse the reasons for IKEA's success in the international furniture market.	1	Extract5.2(0.50); 5.6 (2.28) Appendix V-A 13) 6.57
14	TT4-MF1	9.19	Mexico	FDL A	What would be the socio-political implications if the wall between the USA and the Mexican border is built?	1	Extract5.1(1.06) AppendixV-A 14)5.12
15	TT5-BF1	13.32	Brazil	FDL A	Is it possible to reduce our use of fossil fuel?	1	Extract6.1 (3.02) AppendixV-A 15)5.00
16	TT6-CyF1	22.28	Cyprus	FDL A	Do you see the body and mind as separate systems?	1	AppendixV-A 16)5.02
17	TT7-SM1	18.31	South Africa	FDL A	About crime in South Africa	1	Extract5.5 (0.52) Appendix V-A 17)4.14
18	TT8-ZF1	22.04	Zimbabwe	FDL A	Evaluate the impact of AIDS and HIV in South Africa	1	AppendixV-A 18)1.23
19	TT9-JoF1	16.22	Jordan	FDL A	Mass Media Corruption	1	AppendixV-A 19)5.02
20	TT10-BM2	12.27	Brazil	FDL A	What will happen if we run out of petrol?	2	AppendixV-A 20)5.40
21	TT11-LF2	9.01	Latvia	FDL A	Analyse the reasons for IKEA's success in the international furniture market.	2	AppendixV-A 21)5.24
22	AT1-CF1	15.25	China	GPD	To what extent can a "third party	1	AppendixV-A

					logistics service provider” help UK companies in cutting costs over the next 10 years?		22)5.09
23	AT2-KF1	30.23	Korea	GPD	Is the US hegemony reified through international institutions?	1	AppendixV-A 23)5.01
24	AT3-CF2	1.13	China	GPD	Analyse safety in Oxford	1	AppendixV-A 24)1.13
25	AT4-CF1	17.07	China	GPD	Can Google grow successfully?	1	Extract5.3 (3.23) AppendixV-A 25)5.04
26	AT5-KF1	29.58	Korea	GPD	Is the US hegemony reified through international institutions?	2	AppendixV-A 26)5.02
27	AT6-CM2	24.56	China	GPD	The relationships between supermarkets in UK and suppliers	1	AppendixV-A 27)5.02
28	AT7-CF2	20.55	China	GPD	Can Google grow successfully?	2	AppendixV-A 28)5.20
29	AT8-CM1	22.57	China	GPD	Can local automobile manufacturers develop well with the global and global company in the glowing Chinese car market?	1	AppendixV-A 29)5.43
30	AT9-CF3	13.22	China	GPD	Can Google grow successfully?	3	AppendixV-A 30)5.17
31	AT10-JF1	9.18	Japan	GPD	Are there any particular differences between the British and the American surrealist movements in visual art?	1	AppendixV-A 31)5.02
32	AT11-JF2	19.16	Japan	GPD	UK and Japanese immigration policies	2	AppendixV-A 32)5.02
	IFD: 10 FDLA:11 GPD: 11	599.47 (10h)				1st-2 1 2nd- 10 3 rd -1	Chapters5 and 6 (8.85;6.97) Total(15.82) Appendix V-A(158.03-2hour3 8minute) Total(2h 38m) 26% used

B. Student-Student Conferences (Spoken Peer feedback)

Regarding recording numbered: RP: peer groups in IFD class; TP: peer groups in FDLA class; AP: peer groups in GPD class

Regarding a group: F-female M-male No: number of students, e.g. 1F&1M –1 female and 1 male

No	Recording Numbered	Recording time	Class/Group	Reference
1	RP1-FP	33.09	IFD/1F&1M	Extract 7.3(1.55) Appendix V-B1)1.17
2	RP2-JJ	19.26	IFD/2M	Appendix V-B2)3.2
3	RP3-ICU	32.57	IFD/2M&1F	Appendix V-B3)2.06
4	TP1-LZ	15.14	FDLA/2F	Appendix V-B4)1.3
5	TP2-SMC	8.26	FDLA/1M&2F	Extract 7.1(2.45) Appendix V-B5)0.5; 6)1.15; 7)1.3
6	TP3-BBJ	5.48	FDLA/1M&2F	Extract 7.2 (2.55) Appendix V-B8)1.3
7	AP1-CC	23.11	GPD/2M	Appendix V-B9)(1..17)
8	AP2-KC	13.21	GPD/2F	Appendix V-B11)0.52
9	AP3-CCJ	18.34	GPD/1F&3M	Extract7.4 (2.50) Appendix V-B12)2.7
Total	IFD:3 FDLA:3 GPD:3	168.47 (2h 48m)		Chapter 7 (7.9) Appendices (16.37) Total (23m) 14% used

Total recording data was 12 hours 48 minutes; 3 hours 1 minute were presented in this study (23.5% of the total data)

APPENDIX IV: CA SYMBOLS

CA Symbols are adopted from Atkinson and Heritage (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Heritage, 2005)

CA form	Function	Description
Who does what?: In the left margin, there are the line numbers and the speakers' information		
1, 2	Line number	All lines are numbered so that they can be easily referred to in the text
T or S A or B or D	Abbreviate	T: teacher, S: student (anonymised and abbreviated) in teacher-student writing conferences. other alphabets e.g. A, B, D, etc.: Name of speaker (anonymised – not their real name – and abbreviated) in peer writing conferences
S?	Un-known speaker	If the speaker's identity is unclear, the name of the speaker (abbreviated) is followed by a question mark.
Timing: The transcripts explain precisely what happened when in the interaction		
(.) (1.5)	Timed pause	Intervals with silence which can be measured. Pauses are shown in tenths of a second in brackets. If pauses are shorter than one fourth of a second, a dot enclosed in brackets indicates such a "micropause".
=	Quick uptake	Equal signs indicate immediate start (without gap) in an ongoing piece of talk where one might otherwise expect it.
Hel[lo] [Hi]	Overlap	Left bracket marks the beginning of temporal overlap among utterances produced by two or more speakers. Right bracket marks the end. These must always be paired and stacked one over the other.
>text< >>text<<	Faster More faster than >text<	Speech faster than surrounding talk.
<text> <<text>>	Slower More slower than <text>	Speech slower than surrounding talk.
<u>Text: or text::</u> <u>e.g. um: or um::</u>	Sound extension	A colon indicates that the preceding sound (here 'm') is extended. If there are more colons, the sound is prolonged even more.
Doubts and comments: There are special symbols for doubts about what is being said and transcriber's comments.		
(xxx) or xxx	Unclear	Inaudible so that it is impossible to transcribe.
(text)	Unclear hearing	It cannot be heard whether or not 'text' is being said, or it indicates doubt about whether 'text' is being said.
(())	Comment	Comments including description on what happens, or how something is done or said.
Sounds		
hh. or .hhh hh	Inhalation	Hearable in-breaths. If there are more 'hs', the inhalation sound is prolonged even more. Hearable out-breaths.
Heh or hihi	Laughter	Laughter is written down more or less the way it sounds

£	Smile voice	The words are pronounced in a smiling voice.
Emphasis, stress, volume		
!	Emphasis	Emphatic and animated tone.
<u>Hello</u>	Stress	Underlining indicates speaker emphasis.
<u>Hello</u>		The more letters that are underlined, the more speaker emphasis there is.
?	Question	Rising vocal pitch.
ˊ	Final rise	Rising voice but not the top.
↑	Initial shift up	Voice shift to high pitch.
↓	Initial shift down	Voice shift to low pitch.

APPENDIX V. TRANSCRIPTIONS OF TEACHER-STUDENT/STUDENT-STUDENT WRITING CONFERENCES (SPOKEN TEACHER/PEER FEEDBACK INTERACTION)

A. Teacher-Student Writing Conference

Variation of the ways of teachers' supporting learning opportunities in teacher-student interaction (focusing on open-up stage and more extended turns of the conference) (T: teacher, S: student)

1) RT1-UM1 (00:00-9:57)

1T	xxx it's alright?
2S	Yeah(.) or I, I can hand it in to M(teacher's name) myself
3T	Ok it's ok I'll do that
4S	Because he sent er an email
5T	Yeah
6S	He said that er we can either give it to him or to you so
7T	Ok (.) it's probably safer if you give it to £M
8S	[Alright
9T	[Because I'll then looked it
10S	XXX
11T	((looking at a person who is videoing)) Um: can you hear us alright? s-sorry what what's your name?
12S?	Oh it's T((the video recorder's name))
13T	Sorry?
14S?	T
15T	T?
16S?	Yep
17T	And our sound is coming alright is it?
18S?	Okay
19T	Ok (.) erm (.) ok your first draft
20S	Mm Wasn't good? [Haha
21T	[Hahaha wha-wha-what's your feeling about it? You know if if you think of of the um drafts
22T	you know the whole process from beginning to here, this is this is your final thing, this is your work of art
23S	Yeah
24T	And um this is from where when we began, the very beginning w-where would you say you are on this continuum
25S	Somewhere in the middle
26T	S s still here so you think your half way
27S	Hum
28T	So if if you did I don't know how many hours of work you've done up to your first draft and you've you've got the
29T	equivalent amount of work do you think to do
30S	No er maybe bit less
31T	You're hoping
32S	Yeah
33T	You so you're hoping you're over half way
34S	Yeah
35T	Ok well (.) I think that's that's what probably I would say as well.I, I think you've done erm: you know you've done a
36T	lot of researching of the topic finding out about the field because I think it was a new area for you
37S	Mm
38T	Erm: so that does mean you made yourself an awful lot of work but there there is an awful lot to do still
39S	Ha
40T	Okay? And some of the things that I did talk about in the earlier stages erm: I mean what what do you think what are my
41T	criticisms are going to be?
42S	Erm: criticism:
43T	Because I'm afraid there are some [£hahahaha
44S	[Yeah: about citations?=-
45T	=Okay
46S	I'm not sure about er:: generally I don't know I:I think em: I think I need to add some information and to delete some
47S	information because it was like puu not good.
48T	AlRight What what sort of things in the past have I commented to you on (3.0) Say at the outlines stage and even
49T	before that
50S	Um I don't know=
51T	=No?
52S	To focus on or
53T	Yes
54S	Or topic
55T	That's right I feel like it's very wide ranging
56S	Mm
57T	And so you were quite definite you wanted to do this as a topic so ok I can't force you to but it is but at the end of it I still

58T	feel that is the problem ok? So if I just (.) I,I wrote this out rather brutally (.) Are you feeling tough? Normally I try to be
59T	a little careful
60S	Ok
61T	About how I express things, I don't know why but. Erm yes. There was very little in text citation, despite a good
62T	bibliography okay you know that was fine but there weren't um many occasions I think you mention this one in text
63T	don't you?
64S	Yep
65T	And I think Guy and Radwuns and I er did you mention any of the other ones
66S	And a website
67T	Th-This one
68S	Yeah
69T	Okay oh so these are the things you've read
70S	Mm
71T	Did you use them in the text in your own writing?
72S	Yeah
73T	Yes
74S	Yeah I I er use everything
75T	You wrote all of them
76S	But I didn't cite
77T	Oh
78S	Everything
79T	It erm can I ask why not?
80S	Um: I don't know because er um like I didn't put like the er information like the the real information from the book. I
81S	just er I read the book I er I put my ideas together I don't know
82T	Okay so you read the book and it and it sort of filled you in on the background
83S	Mm
84T	But you didn't particularly use anything directly from that book in your own writing
85S	No not not real words I mean
86T	Alright so so these ones are direct quotations are there where you've copy the words
87S	Er ahaa no I changed it to mine
88T	Okay so er these are indirect quotations
89S	Yep
90T	But but and you've given citations
91S	Mm
92T	But but these ones you read them
93S	Yeah
94T	And you haven't used them or or they just helped give you a general picture
95S	Yeah so
96T	Okay alright I wonder if will be best to make um er bibliography and a references where the references are the ones that
97T	you use and bibliography was just your background reading
98S	Mm
99T	Okay in which case this is a bit scense not to only use three sources isn't very much so anyway you you mentioned that
100T	was a possible weak point I agree erm I think this is the most damning thing I I have said
101S	Haha
102T	Haha you may not want this recorded on videoso I I'll leave you to read that hehe
103S	Mm
104T	You know h-h-how much of it is general knowledge? how much of it is really erm o-only somebody who could have
105T	researched this topic with no
106S	Not sure
107T	Er f-for me this is it's fairly general knowledge you see as er I think that the problem is that you didn't get deeply enough
108T	inside it from my problem is er it isn't focused enough it's too wide ranging
109T	((whispering)) can I close that why is she? Sorry are you waiting for tutorial or
110S?	I'm just waiting
111T	You're waiting with her? Do you mind er having a bigger audience
112S	No I don't
113T	You don't mind okay? Erm anyway I I think the good thing about it it's a start you know you've got your some ideas
114T	down and as you say you're gonna work through them
115S	Mm
116T	Um and the other good thing is that you you did work through a structure you had a structure although I felt it lost clarity
117T	towards the end
118S	Mm
119T	Erm
120S	Yeah because I I I ran out of of my words you know it was er don't write
121T	So er
122S	Hehe so no writing as well kind of
123T	Okay well this is I think this perhaps brings me on to the next point then you have raised so many issues. E-Each issues
124T	you could have written your project on for example just 3 rd world debt would have been a topic in itself or HIV, aids that
125T	could have been another one. Equality of education for boys and girls, the effectiveness of aid I don't mean Aids I mean
126T	Aid
127S	I disagree, I disagree with that
128T	So I know I know you disagree with me

129S	Hehe no no I mean
130T	So I tell you what we are going to do then. If you want to keep with this um t-this is another point a wide range of
131T	language level suggesting copying so we we we better look at that in detail um:: yes if that that was actually a
132T	continuation I started
133S	Mm
134T	Here um yes you're your paragraph denotation isn't very good like is is this a new is this a new paragraph
135S	Yeah
136T	Or is that part of that one
137S	Um maybe new one
138T	This is er European way of writing so it's perfectly okay in Russia um
139S	Hmhm
140T	But we have a we have a different system here so if if this is one paragraph
141S	Mm
142T	You need to leave a line space. On the other hand if this point is belongs here then we have to join it up
143S	Mm
144T	Alright and er you you can't denote a subpoint within a paragraph you can only denote a new paragraph okay so that's
145T	something that would make much easier for me to read er we talked about that intext citation. Most of the information is
146T	too vague so in three thousand words not one statistic is mentioned. Not one African country is named, not one aid
147T	agency is named. Is the whole of Africa in poverty?
148S	No
149T	But the way your talking it it's like it's all one. If if you go to Africa, people actually don't think of themselves as
150T	Africans, they think of themselves as Egyptians or Moroccans or South Africans
151S	Yeah, ok
152T	But but you are writing from the outside you lumped them all in together as one as if it is one country it er
153S	Not but I I
154T	It's a continent
155S	I was talking about some regions like some stuff regions yeah?
156T	True it's true
157S	I I I was talking about different kinds like I don't know
158T	You do? Okay maybe er this is a criticism that I okay ((looking at the door and speaking to another student)) c-can you
159T	give us few minutes S? ((looking at the student)) Can I give him his draft to look at?
160S?	Xxxxx
161T	Ok, Alright okay xxxx ((talks to another student for few seconds))

2)RT2-PM1(00:00-5:37)

1T	(XXX)
2S	(XXX) ((sitting on a chair))
3T	Hehehe:: So You you it won't be embarrassing if I make you cry or anything heh..((smiling))
4S	He ((smiling))
5T	OK (.) Have you had any chance to take any of my comments? What do you think?
6S	((smiling))
7T	Are they reasonable comments? Or:=
8S	=Um ((nodding))
9T	HAHAHA.hh I have this idea You know we talked before that you're you use this kind of logic of spiralling in (.) And
10T	I have the feeling of reading this as if we've taken the spiral and you've laid it out flat but If you leave girl one end
11T	ping:: it's gonna come back into the spiral so for example, um it it comes in the way we ur we repeat things (.) or you
12T	repeat things((looking at S's paper)) um:: So You say here that the the Purpose of the world bank
13T	is to help poor people ok and then hmm (xxx) You mention exactly the same thing again here (.)
14T	s-so Do you see what I Mean? So if if this was a spiral and we lay it out hehe that those points: that one that one that
15T	one (.) They they keep repeating.
16T	We we get them here. And we get them here so it it still sort of spread out spiral
17S	((nodding))
18T	Do do you agree with me? That that You are repeating that idea?
19S	Yeah (.) but like for certain cases because of certain like to again like the recall the mission of the world bank like
20S	have done this thing
21T	Right
22S	So to for the reader like (.) you can again recall this thing like this is their mission xx
23T	So: it's like a little theme that's running through
24S	Yeah so like there this but like I'm going against like writing against the world bank
25T	Right
26S	So like ur that's why try to write this thing that like they are going against their mission
27T	Ok
28S	This is their reflected from the mission
29T	ok (.)
30S	But then I mention the case
31T	Ok
32S	This or that

33T	Ok(.) well that oh that the problem is your writing that the first bit of um ser first sentence of a paragraph
34S	Mm
35T	And I should I want to know what that paragraph's going to be about but all I get is being reminded of something else
36T	So we're not getting these topic sentences which are so helpful for the reader to know where we are in in in in the um
37T	essay (.) Ur:: so my overall comments were: I think my main point was it was hard to read(.) is that what I said?
38S	Yeah
39T	It's not easy to read (.) There's a lot of technical language.
40S	I think for the technical language as in like the referencing the main from like from a taken article from the books just
41S	from sources because=
42T	=But you are not writing for um an expert hehe you you're writing for a non expert so w-when you say public goods
43T	Is is that one of those phrases that you see in the text books?
44S	Yeah
45T	What does it mean?
46S	Like public goods like the money they have taken from the like people and there are like general public property?
47T	Right
48S	They are for the people like money is from the people like it's their their own this thing so should we use on them?
49T	Okay
50T	Um what ex externality costs? Is that one of your phrases or have I made that up? You'll probably never find it now
51S	It must've been the source because
52T	D-Does it mean anything to you? Externality
53S	It's like ready to cost like external cost like from
54T	Does it mean anything extra? Does externality have a different meaning to external? Or is it the same?
55S	I think so the same
56T	Ha so if you've got two words that one is kind of everyday and understandable and another one that means the same but
57T	it's kind of unusual wh-which is better to use?
58S	Usual one
59T	Yes!
60S	But this is not my word this is from the source. If I will change is it can I change like from like from um I'm taking from
61S	like one paragraph from like a book or article
62T	Yeah
63S	So Can I amend that like make some changes like the vocabulary or something and that
64T	Well. Are are you trying to write it in your own words or use a direct quote?
65S	No no no direct quote and then I'll write the author name and year so it must be wrote there
66T	You think it's in a part of a direct quote
67S	Yeah well I cannot use this like vocabulary
68T	Alright if if the original uses it and um er direct quote then you can't just put in another word but you you can explain it
69T	to if your reader won't understand do you know what you can do?
70S	Like shall I explain it in my own words?
71T	Yes

3) RT3-IM1 (00:00-04:23)

1S	I know (.) (I've got you::r copy with er one correction)=
2T	Ok (.) Do you want to come and sit here?
3S	((Sitting on a chair))
4T	So:: um What do you think?
5S	Um::
6T	Any surprises of what I had to say?
7S	No (.) hum not really (.) um:: I think::: Yeah (.) Your (comment) here was quite difficult to understand what was I
8S	once trying to say because:: (pointing to the paper) here Actually I'm:: they're NOT two different parts
9S	because when I am talking about er reading capital
10S	As um: Er:: under er: and this er deeper understanding of Mark's work (.) I'm actually saying that it was scientific so
11S	er linking with Paul Sarch is linking er structural economics
12T	Yeah
13S	With extension list and after I'm here I'm saying I'm trying to er explain why I've er failing
14T	Ok
15S	Er mark's theories you know?
16T	So um:: this this is all the introduction up to here is it? Yes (.) all all of this bit is the introduction
17S	Yep
18T	Yeah? Er I mean on of the things I would say about (1.0) an introduction is not to give too much detail
19S	Mm
20T	So I wondered if you were getting into a little bit [too much detail
21S	[Right Yeah yeah
22T	((looking at the paper)) Um: now then I thought your attempt at a guide was good (.) um but I didn't really understand
23T	this bit I mean I could understand this bit better
24S	So: um:: Isn't isn't it easier to understand (interior exterior) structure [I mean
25T	[No what I am saying is that there seem to be
26T	two guides (.) Like like you know I talked about move one move two move three(.) move three is where you guide the
27T	reader into what the rest of the essay will be about (.) and er first I thought ((highlighting)) that's that you were going
28T	to be saying here (.) but really I find I think this is move three here
29S	Mm
30T	And I could understand that whereas I couldn't really understand this bit

31S	.hh erm::: this explanation the main instrumental research of this project is xxx and then I explain few words what is here
32T	And definition
33S	Yeah so that's a kind of definition in large terms of the structuralism
34T	Okay
35S	So when I talk about structuralise and a general point of view um then I um saying what will be my specific erm um:
36S	Topic
37T	Right
38S	This is my general ur instrument of research so that's why I'm talking about Chomsky so that's why I'm talking about
39S	Hegel or Max
40T	But but what do you mean when you say ma main instrument of research?
41S	Er When I'm when I'm starting from um: Chomsky's ideas I and and and I when I read his book
42T	Yeah
43S	What was clear to me is that his ur method or analyse of our linguistic structures
44T	Yeah
45S	Are ur deeply structural in the way in which he tried to analyse what are the universal aspects
46T	Okay
47S	Xx towards and
48T	Okay the reason you talk about Chomsky is because he's an example of structuralism
49S	Yeah he's an internal structuralist
50T	Okay
51S	So ur in interior structuralist is er um the counter part of exterior structure in Hugo and Marks so that's why I'm talking
52S	in the in the past about their theory of mind
53T	Okay And um why why do you mention Max?
54S	I'm mentioning Max because um yeah actually he's the ur general turning point to understand what's um post xxx isn't
55S	It
56T	Okay (39.58-40.42)
1T	I am afraid it will fail (.)
2S	uhm=
3T	=It won't (0.2) because it won't be academic ok? You you've got to back it up(.) say you've got things wrong(.) alright↑
4S	=°It's ok°
5T	It: I mean you know your stuff so well so it shouldn't be that difficult
6S	°Ok ok° Haaa hhh. ((sighs))
7T	OK(.) so(.)I am sorry to be a little bit um::depressing(.)I mean I actually thought it was very good(.) ur what you've done (.)
8T	I just want to make sure that you'll pa::ss (.) Two big things you've got to do (.) you've got to make your text academic (.)
9T	You've got more readable (.) ok there are ur two things work on (.) you know you've already done bulk of the work (.)
10S	°Alright (.) that's ok°

4) RT4-CF1 (0:00-06:05)

1T	(0.51)((reading the student's paper)) Um I'm reading this [for the first time because [I only got this today=
2S	[Yeah [yeah yeah
3S	=Yeah I know
4T	So mo-mostly what I'm doing is I I've marked everybody's I'm giving them feedback
5S	Yeah
6T	So um:: in in a way your it's a little bit early for me to be giving you feedback [because I haven't looked at it (.)
7S	[Yeah it's alright
8T	But I'll just have a very quick look as you have turned up for a tutorial (.)
9T	um: ju-just very quickly you've=
10S	=Do you want to see my outline?
11T	Well let let me just look as I've started looking at this(.) er:: if if this is the end of a paragraph then you need to make
12T	er a one line break so is is this all one paragraph?
13S	No
14T	Is this two paragraphs?
15S	Yeah
16T	Ok(.) so make a line break
17S	Yeah ok
18T	Ok right so that's that's gonna make it visually easier to follow um:: ok bibliography it it's all no what's this? This is
19T	a journal article is it?
20S	Yeah (.) because I couldn't find the name of the people write this article (.) Most of the website I find is like from
21T	so so this is the website
22S	Yeah
23T	Ok so none of these are are books and none of them are journal articles they're all from websites
24S	Yeah
25T	Ok but but in your bibliography your annotated bibliography you did have a book
26S	Yeah but actually I couldn't find information too much and
27T	What there was nothing in here to help you
28S	Yeah I think it's too general
29T	Well you do need to give some books and what's this er::((reading the paper)) was this a book? This is a book
30S	Yeah all of them is a book
31T	Ok but you haven't mentioned them here you haven't used you've mentioned you haven't mentioned any of them
32S	Yeah because

33T	Oh that one you did
34S	Yeah in a
35T	Ok so I think you need to find some way of including the proper text
36S	Ur I don't know yeah
37T	And this is a friend of mine who's come forth
38S	Oh xxxx
39T	Yeah he he lives just around the corner anyway um: you see I got your bibliography here which was quite good but your
40T	bibliography here is is not so good
41S	Yeah
42T	So you need you you keep these but you need to extend it
43S	More than
44T	Have at least two one one book and journal article
45S	More article yeah
46T	Okay um the next thing that I noticed straight away was the style
47S	The style?
48T	Yes it should be formal academic style
49S	It's mean I can't use some words like you I are the
50T	Yeah exactly no direct questions no contractions so you you've got to rewrite those so there aren't any questions
51S	Yeah
52T	Now I thought er yeah I won't say anything about it now because where where did you get this from? xxx((naming))
53S	Yeah ((pointing at the paper)) it is from this one from the night watch and um from the xxx
54T	So so how come you've got a a a name here
55S	Yeah because I take the information from him
56T	But not a name here
57S	From where? From here
58T	Yeah
59S	I mean the fact mm the sentence I write is from his
60T	So so this is what he said
61S	Yeah he said yeah
62T	He said that and you read it
63S	Yeah
64T	On a website
65S	Yeah
66T	Okay the way you put it here is if th-there always has to be a match between what you put here and what you put here
67S	Mm
68T	So you've obviously quoted how do you say this word?
69S	Wien
70T	Wien
71S	It's a very formal surname in my country
72T	Yes I've seen that
73S	Common
74T	I know I know the name just don't know how to say it. Um if I see somebody's name and the date here
75S	Yeah
76T	I would immediately check it here but that name isn't here
77S	Hmm
78T	It it has to match directly
79S	Okay

5) RT5-FF1 (00:00-2.04)

1S	Are we ((looking at video))
2T	((smiling)) I don't know hiheheheheh
3S	Ok hehehe I think it is oh no ((sitting on a chair))
4T	((sitting on a chair))
5T	((looking at Jolie's essay and seeing her face)) °°Okay um: wo-were my comments understandable↑°°=
6S	Yes (.) °I think (.) I've got ALL the bibliographies° <u>WR↑ONG</u> ((smiling))=
7T	=° <u>DID</u> you↑° = ((seeing Jolie's eyes))
8S	=YE::S(.hh) I((smiling)) in the (0.3) but I can <u>change</u> it (0.3) I just have to <u>change</u> it (.) but
9T	>Ha-How did you make those mistakes↑<
10S	I don't KN↑ow: but (.) I don't KN↑ow: (.) I, I looked the (.) in how to (.) I had the paper how to <u>cite</u> (.hh)
11S	but (.) I don't kn↑ow (.hh) WHY I did it <u>WR↑ONG</u> (.h) ((smiling))
12T	>you(.) you know what did I (0.5) why I (0.5) where is it? where is the bibliography? (1.0) ye(.) the <u>problem</u> is that the
13T	date ((pointing at Jolie's paper)) <u>HERE!</u> (1.0) and the date (.) here (.) Nicholson (.) here (.) it says nineteen ninety eight
14T	(.) and here ((looking at the bibliography)) it says two thousand two (.hh)
15S	<u>WOO↑::</u> (1.0) I must have got it wrong (.)
16T	I mean y-you th-these are books you what you got from the library or
17S	Yes yes yes actually this one this one is mine this one
18S	which the other ones yeah they are all from the library
19T	Because um I think you made couple of mistakes there was that Nicholson one there was another one where you've got the year
20T	wrong (.) I think anyway and the the place anyway you you can sort that out can't you and here always put the author and if there

21T	isn't an author then in this case the paper sorry I've got a cold
18S	Okay it's okay
19T	(sneezes) sorry this cold has been building up all week and it's sort of finally hitting me
20S	Oh
21T	Um so sort that out
22S	Yeah Bibliography has to change
	((silence 2.05-2.44))

6) RT6-JM2 (0:00-5.52)

1T	(6.0) This is a place (xxx)((passing a conditional offer letter from a university)) making history ((smiling))
2S	((reading the letter)) (50.0)
3T	Ok?
4S	Interesting and=
5T	Yep(.) It might be Quite good for you take an English test (.) see how much you can understand
6S	Where where is this ? ((showing the letter))
7T	(5.0) ((looking at the letter)) The old fire.hh station (.) It's in the George street
8S	In Oxford?
9T	Yes (.) Do you know George street?
10S	I don't know but [xxx
11T	[Near the bus station
12S	Yes ((nodding))
13T	It's a way when bus is in and out [xxx
14S	Coach station?
15T	Yes (.) coach station (.) That's Gorge street =
16S	I see (.) ((nodding))
17T	So it's very near the coach station (.)
18T	Ok so um (.) how are you getting on your:: project?
19S	Ur:: ke (2.0) not much so ((smiling))
20T	Have you done anything? Have you done anything your work on it?
21S	I did some research (.) but:: I haven't done anything about response to my project (.)
22T	Right (.) What are the changes.hh using to make using to your project?
23S	Of course (xxx) because (5.0) my project is ur:: (15.0) >>change?<<
24T	Sorry? (.) Is this going to change?
25S	No (2.0)
26T	No
27S	Not much (.)
28T	Right (.)
29S	I was just (2.0) deeper (xxx)
30T	Ok (.) Good (.) so so you are quite happy with the content and the structure?
31S	Structure yeah
32T	I can't remember I have to be honest of what what ur my feedback was I can't remember what I told you
33S	Um
34T	What what was my did I come up with any suggestions
35S	Yeah your suggestion was to expand more content first
36T	Mm
37S	You said my project was too focused
38T	Oh that's not usually what I say to students he
39T	I felt like it needed it expanding a little bit
40S	Yeah
41S	Right
42T	Did did I also as-ask you to give more evidence? Or more detail
43S	Yes yes
44T	Like exactly what was in the um Japanese text book
45S	Yeah
46T	Is is that is is what it it have I got this right it's it's Holocaust deniers um from the German part of it
47S	Yeah and
48T	And the text book or was it other things in er to do with Japan and China
49S	Yes er it was through text book
50T	Yeah
51S	It was about not not xxx
52T	Right ok so maybe I just wanted you to give you give more information about it what what happened according to
53T	Japanese. What exactly happened according to the Chinese
54S	Yeah well
55T	No?
56S	It was just that you getting to position to introduce more cases
57T	Right
58S	About Japanese history text book because my project had so little for your cases
59T	Right. So I wanted you to to give specific examples did I? yes I think that's often students talk about things even if
60T	your topic is quite focused, tends still tend to use general language
61S	Yeah
62T	And it's useful if you can get really um you know tangible evidence if you like or clear examples so more of a

63T	Concrete
64S	((coughing))
66T	You can make it I think the better

7) RT7-JM2 (00:00-5:08)

1T	Your draft?
2S	<<Yes so(2.0) ur: I::hh I::hh>>
3T	Have you (.) Have you got anything to show me?
4S	Yeah (.) so:: <<I try to rewrite my essay so::>>
5T	Ri ght
6S	But <<it (2.0) it's still on the half way>>=
7T	=Right
8S	Yeah Yeah (.) so <<I (2.0) I try to finish rewriting until until this week.hh but(2.0) I haven't (.)>>
9T	Have you got anything to show me?
10S	Yeah Yeah.hh ((showing his draft))
11T	Changes are going the right way (.)
12S	So::<< I try to ur: change ur:: the order of my sentence>> =
13T	=Ok ok (.)
14S	But <<it it was TOO difficult for me (.)>> so::=
15T	=Ok (.) Shall we look at it together (.)
16S	Yeah yeah so I've just changed er by xxx er this section and er
17T	So so the first part is the same is it?
18S	Yeah ur I I made ur introduction part a little bit shorter
19T	Ok so so this was quite long before
20S	It's it's almost four hundred word now
21T	Okay
22S	Yeah
23T	So the process of older the process of (2.0) becoming
24S	T
25T	Becoming I think becoming is that what you mean
26S	Oh yeah becoming okay
27T	But the I'm not sure if this is
28S	Yeah
29T	a-a-ageing I mean can we say that a four year old child is ageing?
30S	Yeah I think so
31T	But it sounds odd really
32S	Mm
33T	You know a four year old child is is growing or is developing
34S	Yeah
35T	Or maturing it really apply
36S	Yeah
37T	Sure is is that an age at what people
38S	Yeah I think from a biological point of view
39T	Yes
40S	Yeah ur getting older it it means getting older so so for example in case of children
41T	Yeah
42S	Children is also getting older
43T	Alright
44S	Yeah so I I think er eighteen include child
45T	Really?
46S	Yeah
47T	But is this a useful definition to have because are you talking about children in your essay?
48S	No hehe
49T	So
50S	No I just I just um tried to com compare biological meaning and economic meaning
51T	Right
52S	Yeah so I personally I think ur the definition is a bit different
53T	Right
54S	Yeah between biological meaning and the economic meaning (.) economical meaning yeah
55T	Ok so so that's your point is it?
56S	Yes yes yes
57T	isn't just a biological issue it's
58S	Yes I think eating caused several problems
59T	Right
60S	And the problems effect economics
61T	Ok
62S	So not only eating problems yeah so
63T	Like like demography
64S	Yeah
65T	Ok
66S	I think I have to write definition yeah

67T	Um:: well the the the the what you're giving here is the definition
68S	Yeah
69T	And then in a way it isn't relevant but that's what you're you you're using that to demonstrate that it's also economic
70S	Yeah
71T	So I think you've just got to consider how important it is to include this (.) you know is is it important? You know maybe
72T	it is but you need to think about that a bit
73S	Yeah
74T	Okay so what have you changed in the first part
75S	Ur I I just changed the order of my sentence a yeah and this is ur decline part way part and
76T	So so this is this is new isn't it
77S	The Last time you you write this one here I tried to follow this order
78T	Right
79S	Yeah but it it's ur too difficult for me yeah.
80T	I I tried to think what you did before you wrote ur ur specific problem and gave a specific solution is that what you did
81S	Yes yes
82T	And then another problem and another solution
83S	Yeah
84T	Ok and I suggested that you group the problems together and solutions together
85S	Yeah
86T	And then so then and the rest of it would be an argument
87S	Mm

8)RT8-UM2(00:00-5:20)

1T	Um:: Are you happy with your paper?
2S	References ah.hh I am gonna organise some more information. [ur Yeah.hh about my style. Haha[ha I don't know
3T	[Right er [So you gonna
4T	change the style ?
5T	Um:: (2.0) ur what about the content?
6S	What about? Hehe
7T	Are you happy with the content? (2.0) Ha-how many words did you write already?=-
8S	=ur::: hundred and sixty ur two thousand ur five hundred (.) er (xxx)
9T	You written almost three thousand then?
10S	Yeah uUR:: maybe I am gonna ur: I am gonna take something (.)I will write something so=-
11T	=Ok (.) ur wh-what about my suggestions that it need to be a bit more ur you needed more specific examples um more
12T	statistical evidence?
13S	(2.0) Yeah (.) hung.hh
14T	Ha ha Have you research that? Do you know what it will be? Or or or will you=-
15S	=Yeah (.) I've got some idea but (2.0)
16T	Ok (.) Do you need to do more research do you think? or
17S	°It will be definitely (.)°
18T	Right (.) ur because my worry well my main concern was that it didn't come across very academic
19S	Mm
20T	Partly because the style the lack of citation
21S	Uh-huh
22T	But also um it was also to do with the contents (.) you know it it didn't feel like you've done a lot of research so I I think
23T	from general knowledge, I could have written something like that (.) you know and it's not a subject I researched
24S	Mm
25T	So um you know I I think you need to I mean do you agree with that
26S	Yeah sure
27T	Does it sound acceptable to you?
28S	Yeah
29T	Because sometimes students don't really um they don't realise the level that we are aiming for so that the student writes
30T	this kind of level but we want them to write at that level so um: it it it you are I say partly something I non expert could
31T	write so it could only be written by an expert
32S	Mm
33T	Ok. At the moment your essay is is too general
34S	Mm
35T	Anybody could write it
36S	Yeah but ur ur::: anyway I I needed to do some research because may maybe you you know about that topic more
37S	than I do ur xxxxxxxx
38T	Do I?
39S	Yeah of course
40T	Heheh Oh okay
41S	There are the the
42T	Well I am interested in aid and development
43S	Mm
44T	That sort of thing so maybe I do know that more about it but not in relation to Africa you know my experiences all all
45T	have been in Asia
46S	Mm
47T	So I don't know what the issues are in Africa
48S	Oh yeah yeah but gen gen in general I mean um: I I mean you you've got more more ideas about it

49T	Okay
50S	That's why I need to ur: read read more yeah?
51T	Okay. So ur so so ur more research
52S	Yeah
53T	And um: what we have talked before about the fact that it is quite general your topic poverty lack of them have been
54S	Mm
55T	Is that hem um my suggestion that you make it more focused you you still want to keep it more general?
56S	Mm ((nodding))
57T	You're quite determined about that?
58S	Yeah
59T	Ur even though it could ur weaken your essay
60S	Ur I will try to make it like make it good I I mean the ad add some more the statement points like you know so (.) Ur I I
61S	don't think it will will weaker hehe
62T	You don't think it will?
63S	Yeah may-maybe but er I I was wondering I I just
64T	You see that's the trouble it's such a big topic
65S	Yeah
66T	I mean more in general students who are successful at this you know do actually have something that is more focused
67T	You know that=
68S	Yeah but I I I don't think that I can write the essay like for particular subject like so three thousand words ur about
69S	a particular subject
70T	You you don't think you will find enough words to write
71S	I don't think I will find enough information for it
72T	Oh but out of the research you've already done I mean haven't you discovered you know it's it's just such a huge topic
73S	Yeah it is a huge topic but ur I I think the ur I've got enough information but the if I get something like aids and HIV
74S	I I I won't think that ur I have enough
75T	Alright
76S	Yeah because yeah ur ur like mm I I saw the books yeah
77T	Yes
78S	and I saw I saw things in the library and ur I I don't think I I would find out
79T	Right ok well I mean you have to make ur ur decision based on what material you can find I personally thought you
80T	could have hands enough for a three thousand words just on that one topic or you know you you could say take an
81T	aspect like um agriculture or an aspect like education
82S	Yeah
83T	Or OR you can take one particular country you know wh-what are the issues facing this country
84S	Mm ((nodding))
85T	But you you've taken on a whole continent
86S	Yeah hehe
87T	Yeah hehe

9) RT9-FF2(00:00-4:57)

1S	((showing her paper)) (7.0) I followed this (3.0) and:: I have my first draft here (3.0)
2T	Ok Good.
3S	(3.0) It's one you say:: well I (1.0) I did the pro and cons ((smiling and pointing her paragraph))
4S	I will show you that.
5T	Um::
6S	But and after this. I have to put arguments. Is isn't it the same?
7T	Um:: the pro is your argument . what what you believe. what you're for is your argument. The con is what
8T	the opposite people say.
9S	Yeah I'm I'm doing it like that con (2.0) ((showing her paper)) and the refutation is your argument?
10T	No.
11S	What it is ?
12T	The refutation is ur what you say to rubbish the con
13S	It's like that? for example ((showing her paper))
14T	So (3.0) That looks like reputation. It is also your argument?
15S	He he he he
16T	It it it it it.hh there is a tendency for the reputation and the arugment to be the same thing but I, that isn't the best
17T	way to approach it.
18S	Um. it like that for example
19T	Ur
20S	This one
21T	They are um that that looks like um a refutation hang on ((looking at student's paper)) ok so so this is um
22S	Is it a refutation
23T	That that looks like a con, a counter argument , a refutation
24S	Xxx here
25T	But is is this also your argument?
26S	That of course yeah
27T	Ur:: it doesn't have to be of course
28S	Really?
29T	Um you know I gave you that sample text about a tropical forest
30S	Yeah ur I used it but I don't understand

31T	The the the cons the refutations aren't the same as the arguments
32S	And for the argument is what I believe
33T	Yes
34S	with I I can say what I think but you said we can't put I so how do can I express myself
35T	OH oh well ur that's easy I can tell you that but that's not going to make you understand the difference between
36S	ur yeah I know
37T	con refutation and argument
38S	But is that con and refutation? ((pointing her paper))
39T	It looks like it but if this then is repeated later [as your argument
40S	[(I understand that)
41T	It's not.
42S	Ur Ok
43T	Oh that's perfect then. ok so this is con
44S	I so I did do loads of
45T	Ok but I and I can help you with the language aspect of it
46S	Ok
47T	See if you say um terrorism should be combated with everything at the states' disposal
48S	Yeah
49T	Is that what something you agree with? Do you agree with that?
50S	And I agree with that so it doesn't work
51T	Ah Ok (.) so if we ignore this bit here that that's kind of introducing the idea
52S	Yeah
53T	Of of what what's powers the state has. now it is thought that people of this country will support any measure to protect
54T	Them. okay it is thought that that that indicates to me that that is not your point of view
55S	Ok
56T	So this is clearly to me introducing the counter argument that people in this country will support any measure to protect...
57T	Who are willing to take as many lives as they can who will... (reading) all human decency (.) I'm not sure about the
58T	Language here but you know (reading it again) is it like respect?
59S	Yeah I really think yeah
60T	All respect
61S	Respect to
62T	To the victims. now what what the only criticism I have of that because that's very good this is your topic sentence very
63T	good um: I don't think the balance is quite right. so you've got three lines telling us about the con and you've got one
64T	line really telling [us about refutation
65S	[Oh
66T	So you kind of balance the argument in favour of the con and we want really more so try I mean you will have more
67T	About your argument later but I don't think you can reduce that so you could just add a little bit more here
68S	Ok
69T	just to build that up a little bit more
70S	((nodding))

10) RT10-CF2 (00:00-00:16; 8:06-13:01)

1S	Tutorial today.
2T	Wha-what do you do?
3S	Shop assistant.
4T	Where?
5S	In Calico and:=-
6T	=Oh Yes=-
7S	=and Mandolin both of them in town
8T	You've got two jobs?
9S	Yeah. Actually just one it's just same company
	Omitted...((talking about her part time job between 0:00 and 8:05))
1T	°How are you getting on with your essay?°
2S	How many?
3T	How.hh how are you getting on .hh with it?
4S	Yeah actually I thinking, ur about you know I gave you the annotated bigraphics, (bibliography)
5T	Yeah
6S	Yeah and I use some of the book
7T	Yes
8S	In For my reference
9T	Yes
10S	Yes and actually I haven't read all of them
11T	Right
12S	Yeah But I need to give back the library
13T	Oh
14S	So: because it is a short loan
15T	Yes
16S	So now I need to take them back and you give some information from my assignment because you said I
17S	need some article or some book
18T	Yes

19S	Because to put it my not only the reference on web?
20T	Right
21S	Yeah
22T	So you've got a bit more research to do have you?
23S	and I think I feel more confidence on my assignment
24T	Good
25S	because I had I had long talking with you about my plan
26T	Ye:s
27S	And I know now what I do and I think I can put until[ur three thousand words
28T	[Ok
29T	ok Because that was the problem you've done About half of it didn't you um
30S	Yeah before I've done this actually I'm like done reference
31T	Yes
32S	And I think yeah it says that in the my I really I think it's really good in um in um what is it the comment you give me
33T	Right
34S	It said some of it is like just like copy but actually I read this and I tried to just let on my words
35T	Yeah
36S	But er I I can forgot another see see again so I think the way I right and just like each of them because so this one I tr I really
37S	Tried in the new essay
38T	I think what you need to do is ur to read the source take notes
39S	Yeah
40T	And then put the source away (.) and then when you are writing write from your notes and that way it will come out of your
41T	words but also select the appropriate information because I think that was the problem before
42S	Yeah
43T	Was that you picked rather dramatic stories
44S	mm-hm
45T	Rather than um looking at the essential facts
46S	Yeah
47T	Um have you done anymore is there anything for me to look at now
48S	No actually I didn't have
49T	Hehe
50S	Anything
51T	Ok
52S	Because ur I just I just went from London because of some person meeting some people and:: I think in this ur in Easter
53S	week I have a lot of assignment I need to do because this semester I take five module
54T	Mm
55S	It's not four because I retake one of them
56T	Ok
57S	So I have well I two assignments and one um presentation after Easter break
58T	Right
59S	So it's quite hard for me so the and the assignment um for the project I put under break because now I start to another report
60T	Right
61S	I need to give it I need to hand it earlier so I need start to do ur the beginning report
62T	Ok so you're going to put your project on hold for a moment
63S	Yeah for the break yeah
64T	Not not do anything
65S	And I stop it
66T	But but but then you have to hand it in on um
67S	After
68T	Week eleven no week twelve
69S	Yeah
70T	No week eleven
68S	After week twelve
69T	Um?
70S	I think
71T	No you have to you've got
72S	Next week is Easter Easter break
73T	Break And [we have two two weeks break [and then soon as you come back [you have to hand it in
74S	[Yeah Two week [yeah yeah [yeah it's week eleven
75T	Yes
76S	Sorry I because I count Easter break as well
77T	Oh I see ok so that's when you have to hand it in
78S	Yeah
79T	So you'll have to do some work over Easter holidays
80S	Yeah I think the whole Easter I didn't have break I just do my report and assignment
81T	Ok
82S	And now the presentation most of them is hand we need to hand out on week eleven so I stopped the project because now I
83S	know what I need to do
84T	Ok
85S	But but the other I just feel confused losing my way because I have a lot of thing needed to do so sometime I feel confused
86S	a little bit dreadful

87T	What what have you got to write about that's confusing
88S	Um the beginning of report
89T	Right
90S	And ur the international relation assignment
91T	Yeah
92S	And Islam and the presentation actually I choose the wrong I think I do I taking mistake for the international human
93S	I'm sorry international relation
94T	Alright
95S	It really hard for me because it's just study about world war or Vietnamese war and you know just for history and I'm really
96S	Bad at history before I read the name of the module I I think it just study something about human about communicating or
97S	Something that's why I choose it
98T	But it's history
99T	Yeah it's really hard and that's why I I didn't attend in some of the class.

11) TT1-JF1(00:00-5:06)

1T	Ok. so:: er obviously you did a lot of um drafts, er you did a lot of um outlines for me
2S	Yeah
3T	And did you feel that you were kind of ok when you got to this that you've had enough of an outline
4S	The outline. um I realising that after I writing my essay that it wasn't like the outline wasn't you know exactly
5S	like my essay how I did it.
6T	Uh hm
7S	I don't know why because I, I don't know why I couldn't just base it on the outline because I found like different
8S	Things
9T	Ok. so as you were writing you needed to changed some things
10S	Yeah. I needed to change
11T	What did you need to change?
12S	Um: I forgot really but like I could um instead of I wanted to write a paragraph for every idea (.) and then I kind of
13S	joined some some ideas together in, in one paragraph or you know? One
14T	So you felt you improved on your outline
15S	I don't know
16T	Well, that's you know I mean I think that is often the way that it helps you um when you're actually in flow it helps
17T	you to feel you know
18S	Mm
19T	How these things be come together that's why we do a first draft
20S	Yeah
21T	Because that will you know if that had been your second draft if would have been more difficult so what did you feel
22T	was good about this and um what did you at the time did you feel?
23S	I really struggled because you know I lost one thousand words [and that put me down you know
24T	(((nodding))
25S	I needed a holiday to get myself to start writing again and I was really like upset
26T	um(((nodding))
27S	So when I started writing I don't know it was ok but I lost a lot of durance I can't find them right now and
28T	Okay
29S	I used the ideas I don't know how to refer to them
30T	Ok so you need to really get back to
31S	Yeah but if I can't find them what do I do
32T	You can't refer to them if you don't find them
33S	I can't use the ideas?
34T	No not really not not unless they are attributed otherwise it's you know it's not not right. um well let's look at um
35T	ur what little comments I've made here [um just one point could you [please double space your final draft because um
36S	[okay [Yeah
37T	It makes it easier to make comments [okay?
38S	[Yeah
39T	Ur I thought your paragraphing was quite good at the beginning and then it became a bit denser towards the end um
40T	So you've got quite dense paragraphs
41S	Quite small do you mean
42T	Right. You could make them shorter
43S	Ah ((nodding))
44T	which is quite difficult to read such very dense ones you've got that one goes from there to there that one's more like it
45T	But some of them are quite long
46S	ok
47T	um (3.0) your bibliography I wasn't quite sure where you numbered it
48S	Oh I don't know just hahe
49T	But you had the handout haven't you about the um how to write bibliographies how to write references=
50S	=I think it's from on the like from the interxxx[books I I take them out of
51T	[Yes okay
52S	well I as you know you you should start with your A
53S	Oh
54T	Okay it it has to be
55S	Oh I have to do it again

56T	Don't don't number it I mean what you've done is you've done a rather strange way of
57S	I just did that because um I wanted to do it according to how I put in the text
58T	Yes well that's one way of doing it
59S	Okay do you
60T	In In that way not for this purposes no there are some academic schools who do this maybe science but not not
61T	For normal ur not normally for the foundation so if you are going to say accordingly to Harrison you then put one
62T	And then you put you know or two yeah and you put two there
63S	Yeah
64T	But we ask you to do as we discussed before is you put Gordon Harrison two thousand and one and Harrison
65T	Two Nineteen ninety seven you would put those um: individually so you put um say xx is first um
66S	Um I found some ur I took some ideas from ur internet journals and they referred to like you know according to Harrison
67S	So um:
68T	So you put in Brown
69S	Yeah that's right?
70T	Yes that's right. You you've done that fine
71S	Ok
72T	That's good yes if you have a doubt you can always look in that um handout that you've been given
73S	Mm
74T	But it should be a: Harvard system and put bibliography in alphabetical order by author's surname ok and then it's easy
75T	to pick up in the um when you're reading it
76S	Are they right my my references? Is it right?
77T	That's right. yes um you've got quite complicated ones
78S	I I took some from the internet and then I saved them and then when I came to look
79T	Yes
80S	And then just put the (url)
81T	You couldn't find them I know but um this one I I checked this one particularly and if you go to google, and say
82T	Xxx triple eight bbc, then you will get the exact ur website yeah
83S	Yeah
84T	Yes you can find it that way

12)TT2-BM1(00:00-05:30)

1T	Right .hh So this is your first draft.
2S	U hm ((nodding))
3T	Ok. Now tell me what you think about it?
4S	Ur it was fast done because um: er: I realised that five modules is very too much work because I did another
5S	essay which was xxx then other assignment for economic so. I know that there will be many mistakes. but the
6S	Probably I will now have time er to sort it out.
7T	Yeah. cause you've got quite a lot sorting out to do
8S	Yeah I know
9T	Did you send? you sent me an outline before didn't you ? or you didn't send me an outline
10S	I was trying to send you an outline with my diary so.
11T	Aha. Ok.sometimes I've had some problems receiving it. um now one problem is he one problem is you
12T	haven't got any page numbers. ok it's important to put page numbers [otherwise we ur (3.0) can't find which where it
13S	[Mm hm
14T	starts and where it finishes um xxx the first part here here start here
15T	((looking at S's paper)) NOW (.) The FIRST part (.) is ENTI□RELY plagiarized from this source =
16S	=um u-hum ((rubbing his face))
17T	=Okay (.) That's not accept□able (1.0) because you've used=
18S	=>but I put THIS here ((pointing his paper))<=
19T	Yeah (.) You've used exactly same words (.)=(looking at S's paper))
20S	=So::
21T	>You are< NOT allowed to do that (.)
22S	U-hum
23T	If you're going to quote [(.)] then you put quotation marks [(.)] but this would be much too long [(.)
24S	[u-hum] [u-hum] [u-hum]
25T	To quote] and you wouldn't start an essay [with a long quote] like that [(.)]
26S	u-hum] [u-hum u-hum] [u-hum]
27T	Okay (.) You know (.) it's not appropriate anyway=
28S	=u-hum
29T	We Americans ((underlining in his paper)) You are Not an American ((seeing his face))
30T	I am not American ((smiling)) okay [(.) um::]so really (.) that's a Really Really bad start=
31S	[u-hum u-hum yeah]
32S	=u-hum
33T	Okay (.hh) um: You MUSN'T do it (.) Did you Miss the lecture on plagiarism□
34S	No (.) I w↑as there=
35T	=You were th↑ere (.) so (.) they explained quite carefully what you can do[(.)]and what you can't do (.)
36S	[u-hum]
37S	> But I thought < Maybe if I will like copy (.) so I figured to er: the reference in it's okay?
38T	No (.)>that sort of things< You CAN↑'T do (.) .hhh um: You can pa↑raphrase (.) that means you can say the same thing in
39T	your OWN words (.)[.hh That's good [(.)] I want you to do that [(.)]if you're going to use somebody's words=

40S	[um]	[um]
41S	=u-hm u-hm	
42T	Um: you must either quote (.) quotation marks (1.0) or inde:nt (.) that means you put it in so it's very clear that it's not your	
43T	Words	
44S	Then if I will changed the words (.) inside	
45T	Ye:s(.)	
46S	But the point will be still the same (.)	
47T	Ye:s	
48S	Should I be rephrasing?	
49T	Then oh yes!(.) you must(.) yes you put (X thousand) ok(.) so this direct quotation ok(.) is no more plagiarism(.) ok so	
50T	You mustn't do that [(.)] It's very obvious when students do it [(.)]	
51S	[u-hm u-hm]	[u-hm u-hm]
52T	So you get picked up right away (.) it's very very clear (.)	
53S	Mmhm mmhm ok	
54T	Right um: was this the title that you gave me I I don't think so um I think you had a we need a slightly more academic	
55T	title than that	
56S	Mmhm	
57T	When you gave your submission your title I don't think	
58S	Don't I think similar it was ur ur ur what cars will driving twentieth century	
59T	Yeah okay but this doesn't	
60S	Mmhm	
61T	What what you know it it oddly if we wr-write run out of petrol not if we ran out of petrol	
62S	Mmhm	
63T	I think you need to make it something like what is the future of the petrol driven combustion engine or or something	
64T	like that	
65S	Mmhm	
66T	Because um that's what you want to say but this is much too simple	
67S	Mmhm	
68T	Sounds like a school essay you know quite a low level school essay	
69S	Mmhm mm mm	
70T	Not a university essay (.) right now a quite a few problems with language I won't begin to go into that because I think	
71T	Your thinking in your own language and translating directly into English	
72S	Mmhm	
73T	And that's not this is you're getting all sorts of strange language	
74S	Mm	
75T	And this is probably reflecting the fact you didn't have very much time to do it	
76S	Mmhm for me it's quite hard to think in English so	
77T	Yes	
78S	I have to write it in Slovakian	
79T	Yeah	
80S	And then I'm trying to put it into English	
81T	Well yeah I can see that hehe but um it's causing all sorts of problems because it makes no in no sense in English	
82S	Mmhm	
83T	You know I don't know what this means at all to burn burn up all reserves of rope I mean what does that mean? Are	
84T	You using a dictionary there?	
85S	Mm but the thing is that also with my English flatmates I I just said them ok have a look on it what do you think	
86S	And they say they don't really they can't quite understand it so	
87T	No I can't understand it he I mean what does this mean to bur what what word's that mean?	
88S	They they just put it but they this sentence means er that if we have right to like use	
89T	Mm	
90S	like the combustion en-engines burn all of reserves of petrol	

13) TT3-LF1 (00:00 - 06:57)

1T	So↑ °How did you feel about this↑(.) um: after you had your (friends') feedback (xxx) °
2S	Ahh::hh. As I say that I feel quite happy but I now have some er mistakes which I should improve and then if I want to
3S	get a good mark ((smiling))
4T	°what sort of mark you are expecting to be thinking of ° ((smiling))
5S	I want to get an A OF COURSE HE[hehehehe] ((smiling))
6T	[Okay he. Hh]. Okay what what do you think you can improve on it?
7S	ur I need to put ur put more information about (company X) I need to be more analysing
8T	Ok ok I I agree with that (0.2) Yes um I Thank you very much for doing the double spacing, numbering the pages
9T	I think also was it exactly three thousand words
10S	No no
11T	You were very close anyway you weren't far off
12S	Hehe
13T	So you could write a little bit
14S	Yes
15T	Ok

16T	Um: I just put a few suggestions about um language
17S	Mmhm
18T	I think one of the problems you have is articles um the the united states
19S	Yeah yes ah
20T	Yeah is this um because in our own language you don't
21S	We don't have it
22T	Yes so it's quite different you're doing quite well but it is something we need to be keeping an eye on
23S	Mmhm
24T	Ok um here I put I've taken both out because you can't say if both is for two things
25S	Yes
26T	Ok so you you've say Europe North America Australia and Asia
27S	Ok mmhm
28T	And um and you write Euros like that
29S	Oh okay
30T	Same as we put pounds in front
31S	Mmhm
32T	Ok And success we don't usually say successes it's normally singular
33S	Oh
34T	Same as furniture
35S	Ok yeah
36T	Usually singular ok since you're writing a lot about furniture you need to know that hehe
37S	I know hehehe
38T	Ok and um I thought it was very nice that you put the you know the glossary there
39S	Mmhm sould it be a word count or is ur no
40T	No no that's separately but you just put glossary there
41S	Mmhm
42T	And that means new words words that you want to explain
43S	Mmhm
44T	And these are the words is are these ones you've learnt from being on prospective on business? Or um
45S	Mm xx outside foundation business
46T	Foundation business yes so you are able to use what you've been learning
47S	Yeah
48T	In Until you've applied it to here
49S	Yes
50T	And is this sort of report that you would be writing a gene of a foundation for business
51S	No we have a different
52T	So is not the same sort of thing but you're still able to take what you've learned in the process
53S	Yes
54T	Ok um ok um there's a few problems with pronouns I would check them I mean obviously I can't correct them but
55T	If I feel that there's a word missing I put this there
56S	Mmhm
57T	So you'll know that perhaps um: I've made a few suggestions for improvement so to cut costs everywhere without
58T	effecting quality
59S	Mm
60T	Will probably be a better way of phrasing that
61S	Yes
62T	Um there's a little comment here you say one more big differences care furniture should be assembled by purchases but
63T	You already talked a lot about flat packs so if they are not flat packs isn't that obvious I I wasn't sure that was perhaps a
64T	Huge put something a little bit earlier
65S	Mm
66T	Because it's part of the same thing
67S	Mm
68T	Um you've got very detailed information about the structure and um all the wonderful things about again
69S	Hehe
70T	It sounds perhaps a little bit too uncritical I think because it sounds like this is fantastic company
71S	Hm
72T	Does everything right
73S	Hmhm
74T	But they still haven't got as much market share as MFI have they in this country
75S	Ur I think I wrote there was a little bit more
76T	Yes MFI are where are we? um did put that in yeah think that's right
77S	This one there m
78T	Ok yeah so it is higher not much
79S	Not much higher yeah but it's ur in two thousand and three
80T	Yes ok so you think that's probably grown since then
81S	Yes but ur I can't find information not yet
82T	SO:: your job was to ANALYSE: reasons for IKEA's success in the international furniture market and you have done that
83T	(.) but I still (.) I agree with you that you haven't really said enough about the other companies and=

84S	=um
85T	perhaps what their market strategy is (.) I mean of course (.) the IKEA is (.) more multinational °you know° (=
86S	=Yeah er so (.) ur ur I am thinking (.) maybe ur ur I have an idea maybe I should er I could ur compare with ANOTHER
87S	ur I don't know (glossary) or something about (glossary) (.) but the for the company which is multi-national .hh
88T	um:
89S	because there is not another furniture company (.) [who is multi-nati]onal so it's ur maybe with ur who offers different kind
90T	[°um: that's right°]
91S	of ur stuff (.)
92T	YES (.) I think THAT's US (.) As long as that's not going to make you too much more WO:RK at this stage (.)
93T	but um: Are there other sort of .hh cause you (.) I mean from this it sounds as if though the IKEA is very Ethical (.)
94T	and it's very good to its wor:kers. <Can you think of a comparable um (.) company in food distribution that (.)
95T	looks like that>↑
96S	huhehe no hehehe ((shaking her head))
97T	°no: it's it's difficult isn't it?°
98S	U-hm
99T	Um (.) How about Body Shop?
100S	Mm
101T	Do you know Body Shop↑
102S	Yeah I know ((nodding her head))
103T	Yes (.) is that: in many countries >do you know↑
104S	Yeah I (do know) (.) £It's also in Latvia and HERE I KNOW (I think so) ((smiling))
105T	That might be something to look at that=
106S	=mm=
107T	=Yes look at there (.) the way they work=
108S	=um
109T	Um: the um <their sour:cing (0.5) their: the way they treat their employees and all of those things and see if .hh >you
110T	know that's probably ur a good way of making business (.) because they do make a lot of money (.)
111S	Yeah (.)
112T	so that's=
113S	=Very good (.) thank you hehe ((smiling))
114T	Ok that's a possibility (.) I was trying to think of what (.) the food is more difficult because it's a .hhh more localised in
115T	the market and your sources=
116S	=YEAH:: YEAH:: it's REALLY it's ur REALLY I also think about maybe something from Coca Cola .hh because it's ur
117S	ur you can compare ur for example IKEAs are the same in ALL in ALL over the Countries and ur: is it: is it helping
118S	them↑ ur: for example: ur the coca cola it it have difference in the tasting [in the] different countries so (.) [maybe]e (.)
119T	[u-hm] [u-hm]
120T	Yes that would be (an initial) comparison yes .hhhh
121S	Um maybe I can (look at) in the in the Body Shop
122T	YES (.) YES (.) We'll just see um I mean it's you know if you want to keep this (.) the reasons for their success (.)

14) TT4-MF1 (00:00-5:12)

1T	((looking at Sofia's face)) SO↑: um: °you've CHANGED your subjects (.) after after a while↑°= ((smiling))
2S	=YEA H[::] ((smiling))
3T	[°O]ka:y (.)° an:: d °you've come up with a subject you feel quite happy about↑°=
4S	=YEA H[::]
5T	[Yes] (.) a:nd (h.) °How↑ do you feel about your first draft (.) yourself ?° (.) ((smiling))
6S	Um: (2.0) I think the ONLY thing is um: (1.5) coz I did it (1.0) ur (.) qu:ite: qui↑ckly=
7T	=Mm hm↑ ((nodding))
8S	>so (.) I don't think my grammar is (.) ve↑:ry ve↑:ry good a:nd I think it's very informal<=
9T	=Okay
10S	um: I wer: I only wrote two thousand six hundred words (.) so I need to write a little bit more (.) and probably my
11S	CONCLU↑SION (.) I am not very happy with it (.) I think it should be more strong (.)
12T	Ok so you could make [it xxx]((trails off))
13S	[YEAH] a bit more mm (2.0)
14T	So is that what you are planning (.) to do YEah↑=
15S	=YEAH (2.0)
16T	Did you feel (.) you need to do anymore research↑(.) or: did you feel (.) you've done enough research as you need?°=
17S	=I THI↑NK::(. mm: (0.4) I have enough actually coz I didn't write the complete bibliography (.) I wrote only the references [actually](.)
18T	oh good (.)
19T	Yes (.) Okay (.) [mm: (.)] which is [xxx] [yes yes]((looking at Sofia's paper))
20S	[YEAH:] [error's only reference list]: [that I used:] inside into
21T	Okay (.) so you call that the reference list (.) [and then](.) you have the bibliographies (XXX)
22S	[u-hm Yes]
23S	bibliographies (.) well YEAH (0.5) ((pointing her paper)) I need to write this again in the bibliography or not?
24T	um:: (2.0) ((looking at student's paper)) yes (.) I think you should

25S	So (.) these ones and I have five more (.)
26T	Ok Right (.) and so:: you feel you've got quite a a: wide range of opinions and background?
27S	Yeah (.) I think so Yeah: I mean I can I cannot really get the Mexican point of view because I can't use ehehe
28T	Mm hm you got
29S	But I think these ones are I mean none of them are um the about the articles
30T	Mm
31S	I mean there's one which is quite um: in pro of the Wall
32T	Mm hm
33S	But the others are really against it I mean even though they are Americans
34T	Yes
35S	Saying It will affect too much to their relationship between Mexico and United states so
36T	Mm hm
37T	Good and bad bad relations ok
38T	Well um oh instantly good ideas to put page numbers
39S	I can put I thought I put them yeah
40T	No I don't think so
41S	Yeah no I forgot sorry
42T	Next next time put page numbers because
43S	Mmhm and then
44T	and have a running head if you can yes and nobody else has done that actually but you have got a title which is a
45T	good thing um ok I liked this this is a good beginning wasn't it
46S	Mmhm
47T	You know you had your hoot
48S	Yeah I thought yeah was good
49T	So that was good you you were pleased with the the way you began ok and there's few little language points which I
50T	picked up
51S	Yeah
52T	Ok
53T	Um that's a very Spanish speaking thing to say first of all
54S	Um oh really ?
55T	First of all
56S	First of all
57T	Just say first but a lot of Spanish speakers do that and the difference between purpose and propose ok you need to get
58S	Ok
59T	I also think perhaps when you say toys um
60S	Yep puppets
61T	Talking about Puppets yes
62S	Mmhm ok
63T	ok so there's just a few language things (.) um we talk about the great wall of China rather than the Chinese great wall
64S	Ah ok hehe
65T	Well that's um that's fine um: I don't think there's very much I just made a few suggestions um: that you yourself it's
66T	Perhaps a little bit informal sometimes
67S	Yeah that's why I told you
68T	For that yes
69S	Is it usually my boyfriend checks my work
70T	Mmhm
71S	And he always like
72T	Mm
73S	You know tell me loud is informal is word is wrong whatever um but he was in Thailand
74T	Right
75S	So hahahahaa
76T	What was he doing in Thailand?
77S	Ur on holiday
78T	Not Plumbing? Hmhm well ok
79S	No
80S	On holiday with his friends
81T	Oh without you?
82S	Yeah
83T	What a shame mmhm
84S	Mmhm
85T	Ok um the um [I'm not sure about this statement
86S	[Oh YES it's because where is it is it mm ((reading)) which one is it? This one is this reference
87T	Mm
88S	And I have like in my computer I have like the I mean every single article I downloaded
89T	Mmhm
90S	And I am putting word and I put this one this doesn't have an author
91T	Ok [well I
92S	[So I put in for four and I forgot to

93T	You forgot to change it ok
94S	Yes
95T	I put this m msnbc
96S	This one
97T	Yes
98S	This one And the and the date two thousand and six
99T	Mmhm
100T	You don't need to put of there although we say that we don't usually write it
101S	Ohok ((nodding))
102T	Um: ok should maybe you should put the date about Mexican Mexican losing its lands um there's not much I've
103T	actually put in (.) text(.) nothing very important anyway and just little bits there but it's all very clear I could follow
104T	it very easily
105S	Yeah
106T	And that was good
107S	So the structure is good then
108T	The structure generally is good but I think I got a few comments about the way you paragraph for example
109S	Mmhm
110T	You got quite short paragraphs
111S	Yeah
112T	And there should be sometimes only one sentence paragraphs should be four to five sentences
113S	Mmhm
114T	And: I think you've learnt about how to make topic sentences and statement so you remember to do that
115S	Yeah

15) TT5-BF1(00:00-5:00)

1T	Right (.) so um how did you feel about what you've done?
2S	(4.0) I don't know I'm just waiting for feedback and others
3T	Yes (.)
4S	Cause I have to change
5T	What would you change?
6S	Hm?
7T	What would you change?
8S	I don't know the references
9T	Um::
10S	Um: maybe the title (.)
11T	The Title (.) ok (.) How would you (.) what you gonna change with the title?
12S	No idea ((smiling))
13T	Ok humhuhu.hh um:: in what way do you want to change then?
14S	YEP ↑because I am talking about Kyoto protocol
15T	Yes (.) your title is (.) is it possible to reduce the use of fossil plants fuel
16S	Yeah
17T	Um (5.0) ((looking at student's paper)) And:: you feel that perhaps it's not
18S	Yeah (.) not trendy (.) I don't want to do that
19T	WELL: I think it's a good title but I think you need to be clear what you are focusing on (.) [ok social
20S	[Like assessing or
21S	something like focusing on the Kyoto protocol
22T	Um:: or in what ways does the Kyoto protocol help us to think about the use of fossil fuel or something like that?
23S	Yeah ((nodding))
24T	Ur just a small point can you number the pages ur it's and did you do a word count? Um put a word count here at
25T	the end do you know how to do that
26S	Mm yeah I think I do
27T	Go to tools and it says number of words so and then it's
28S	Yeah
29T	Doesn't take minutes for you I mean it looks about the right length but saves us having to check
30S	Yeah
31T	Ok um I put a few comments about language um but here I've said I think you should say more about why
32T	I mean I know you've mentioned it perhaps a little bit more about the harm done to the environment by um fossil fuel
33T	and also obviously because it's not going to last forever it will run out
34S	Yeah
35T	Yes and the political problems of fossil fuel so why would it be important to reduce the use you could you know of the
36T	an essay of this length you could
37S	Yeah
38T	Spend more than a short amount of time on that. um now you talk about alternative energy sources and you talk
39T	about green energy I think you'll find nuclear energy isn't green
40S	Yes is not yeah
41T	So you have to be you know if you say something like if you start talking about nuclear energy is green energy then you
42T	immediately
43S	Yeah it is a problem of like different
44T	Yes
45S	Because I found like where is that like I the I spend like take a long time

46T	Uh huh
47S	Trying to write I think I write it here
48T	Ok so so alternative doesn't equal green ok
49S	Yeah
50T	And you need to sort of um you've got quite a lot of arguments for nuclear energy um and you've also got the counter
51T	arguments about the um the problems that can happen
52S	((looking at her paper))
53T	Ok um then you talk about the use of alcohol um for running cars
54S	((looking at her paper continuously))
55T	Very interesting um I think again I was mentioning here you should discuss the difference between renewal energy
56S	((nodding))
57T	And other energy sources um and you sais this one count counters the other one ok um seen that right don't be don't be
58T	too vague I think I've said to you this before ur in others connection um some country's say give examples don't
59T	Just say some countries give examples it's not terribly clear if you just say countries you know what they are you can
60T	find out
61S	Yeah
62T	Ok
63T	Mm and again during few weeks say when ok it's it's too vague oh you know when did when was this presumably that
64T	was nineteen ninety four until when
65S	Mmhm
66T	Ok ((looking the student's paper))
67T	Be a bit careful with Wikipedia though because
68S	Yeah
69T	Wikipedia's not the best source in in some cases
70S	But can I use it? because I found like
71T	There's some good stuff on it but no don't rely on it too much because um yeah
72S	Yeah because I took like some information
73T	Yes
74S	That I'm sure
75T	Yes that's fine and that that will have come from somewhere in any case else but you can because you don't have an
76T	author on Wikipedia you can't
77S	Yeah
78T	When people anyone can change it mm um

16) TT6-CyF1(00:00-5:02)

1T	What did you think: um: of your own work?
2S	um::? I am quite satisfied. just um: even, even if it's academic: because I included so many scientific::
3T	u-hm=
4S	=definitions and what all the doctors said and um:: researchers all you know but it's little bit descriptive which=
5T	=u-hm=
6S	I had to (.) [xxx quite quite wide topic] still big general that's why I struggled
7T	[Make sense yes [u-hm
8T	Ok What do you think um you would like to um change about it?
9S	Um::from What I called from my feedback from my friends. They told me and the half of my essay um doesn't include
10S	So many ci citings according to the first half of my essay and I just need to find little bit more researchers for the
11S	half of my essay [(.) and:: I think I forgot to put um date into my essay I just need to change that um I need to write
12T	[Ok
13S	a little bit more in order to become first three thousand words
14T	Yes it's it's not not too far is it ur:
15S	It's two thousand and six hundred and sixty words
16T	Two hundred plus yes
17S	Five hundred words
18T	Yes so you've still got the space to do more if you want
19S	Mmhm
20S	That's why I need to research more
21T	Yes bit bit more mmhm (.) um is this the title that we agreed in the first place?
22S	We haven't agreed so
23T	I we haven't agreed a title so I think we need to maybe think about that
24S	Yes
25T	Um That's I thought so yes exactly we must discuss this ok now I just felt in the first bit these mun. exactly your
26T	words um I'm sure you were um this is from Shappira
27S	Yes
28T	And I think it sounds too close to the original so you need to paraphrase more
29S	Paraphrase I don't know paraphrase
30T	Use your use do you remember that lecture we had with lynn and um about paraphrasing and plagiarism?
31S	No I wasn't at the
32T	Oh you weren't oh right well paraphrase means taking the ideas from somebody else but using in your own words to
33T	express them
34S	Oh but
35T	Um
36S	I've already written

37T	Yes
38S	I've got it from Shappira
39T	But if you're going to quote exactly then you have to do quotation marks and if you're not if you're not just going to
40T	put the ideas then you put that
41S	Ok
42T	But it's too long really to have as a quotation as particularly at the beginning
43S	I put my own ideas too
44T	Yes yes but it's the lang the style doesn't sound like your style it's where um felt perhaps maybe it was too much taken
45T	from Shappira
46S	I don't think it is if it doesn't even say in the book about it
47T	Ok
48S	And I could I didn't get from any it's because um I don't know how to say I don't write how I speak
49T	Ok
50S	I'm better in writing than speaking
51T	Mhm but um it doesn't fit in exactly with the rest of the work not exactly the same style
52S	Ok
53T	Ok so I think be very careful about that because if you ha I've just seen a spelling mistake hmmm
54S	Hmmm
55T	Um um it's just the something like faulters it's not a word I would expect
56S	Because I I read the books like scientific things and
57T	But that's not a scientific word it's a very literary word
58S	Okay then now it's it's says like right here where it came
59T	Yes but it's if you
60S	Just the introduction is mine like how I'm going yeah
61T	Yeah ok that's yours yeah ok so where from um what from where would that be directly quoted from shappira
62S	And I need to put quotations to show where
63T	Yeah you must yes
64S	Ok ok fine
65T	Have you um picked up I think I gave some um handouts about using quotations in text have you picked one up from the
66T	Library
67S	Ok
68T	Have you got one
69S	I haven't
70T	No you can go to the library and it will say using quotations um you can either go to the library website
71S	Mm
72T	Or you can go to the library and pick one up and it explains to you exactly this but this is what we discussed at the
73T	Um the meeting you missed that was the time when your mother and your sister came yes
74S	Yes ((nodding))

17) TT7-SM1 (00:00-4:14) (hard to hear due to drilling sound from outside)

1T	Right (.) um So how did you feel about your project so far
2S	Um I thought it went quite nicely um I did quite a lot of editing beforehand
3T	U-hm
4S	And um so I wasn't all that confident beforehand about the editing but I thought it was ok because I managed to get
5S	my bibliography done and mostly appendix, appendix writing
6T	Mm
7S	And=
8T	=so you feel like you're in a fairly complete stage
9S	I think so yes
10T	Hm
11S	I think just if anything probably maybe the referencing was a little thin or just waiting to get more feedback from
12S	you to see
13T	Ok (.) What feedback did you get from your group?
14S	Um C ((a group member's name)) and the name what was her name?
15T	D
16S	D yeah they(.) they both thought it was really good
17T	Uhhm
18S	Um: I think if anything they were a little bit critical of the way I lay things out(.) my paragraph structure and
19S	things like that they thought it was almost a bit too short
20T	Uhhm
21S	Which I didn't entirely agree with but um: and they just yeah technically said that things like line and imitation are
22S	Important
23T	So the way it looks on the page
24S	Yeah
25S	Um Yeah and again I didn't really feel that was all that important with the first draft I think that was
26T	But ur
27S	But they thought the content was very good
28T	Mhm
29S	And that I answered the criteria so
30T	Right so so you are feeling quite good about it
31S	Hopefully Yeah

32T	Ok um so you started nicely um didn't put your title
33S	Yeah
34T	and page numbers
35S	Yeah
36T	And did you put a word count
37S	No I didn't no
38T	Okay so can you remember
39S	Yeah sure
40T	Um
41T	Always put on the page
42S	Yes
43T	I mean it doesn't take time and um no you did put it in you did
44S	Yeah
45T	Three thousand five hundred
46S	Oh yeah
47T	Um doesn't take any time to put page numbers saves a lot of time
48S	Yeah sure
49T	But you know as I've emphasised before if you don't put the title the reader is at a loss
50S	Yeah
51T	I mean I know I know because we've discussed it
52S	Yes
53T	But Um you know all you know as I've said also put a running head if necessary so
54S	Yes
55T	Do you know how to do that?
56S	Putting in a header?
57T	Yes
58S	Yeah
59T	And that's and that's
60S	What do I put in the header just
61T	You would put the title
62S	Ok
63T	You put you put
64S	On each page
65T	Yes
66S	On each page ok
67T	D((student's name)) and your title um you can put anything you like I mean if I were you I would put the module number
68T	um project your title name your title your page number and then as you know if it gets lost you know
69S	Yeah sure
70T	I know we do everything electronic[but it's the best thing to [do because you are put xxx
71S	[yeah [ok sure
72T	RI↑GHT (.) You've got TW↑O:: QUO:TES(.) ((pointing at Alan's paper)) remember what we ta:lked last week?
73S	YEAH (.)
74T	You've GO↑T:: defini↑tion(.) and then you've got a Quote
75S	Yeah (.)
76T	Um:: I don't think you need TWO(.) two quotes here[(.)((looking at Alan's face)) otherwise you're destroying two=
77S	[ok]
78S	=Yeah (.)
79T	I think (.) how how would you change that↑
80S	um:: I thi ↑nk (1.0) I could probably: take: law's quote ((pointing at his paper)) and: <<put: that: through into my essay>>=
81T	U-hm
82S	<because um:: there were where I put down bullet points>=
83T	=U-hm=
84S	<which explain um the difference law systems all the countries (.) and then being limiting affect on crime (.) I think I can
85S	put them possibly in this>
86T	Ok uhm
87S	<and then I can just leave a crime quote at the beginning>
88T	Yes (.) because that's Actually a slightly more:: reliable source isn't it ?
89S	Yeah (.)
90T	Yeah I mean Wikipedia I mean that's quite a nice quote to put I mean I could have written it
91S	Yeah sure
92T	Anyone could have written it
93S	Sure
94T	So it's not got this authority
95S	Yeah sure
96T	Um so perhaps there's this more anyway I kind of hate essays beginning with definitions because it's such a hackneyed
97T	Device
98S	Yeah
99T	But on the other hand it it gets you in there
100S	Yeah
101T	If if you can find like a starting statistic you know
102S	Yeah

103T	That will be a good start okay ur um
18) TT8-ZF1 (00:00-1:23) (very hard to transcribe due to the outside drilling noise)	
1T	Ok. So how did you feel about the project?
2S	The good thing first I was excited that I got the information I wanted=
3T	=U-hm
4S	But the saddest thing is when I went inside the project xxxthere are lots of people aare infected (.) and just more
5S	circumstance going to be introduced .xxx
6T	What are the statistics?
7S	Statistics? Every week every week. I think it's almost two.h two to three thousand s every week
8T	It's terrible.
9S	It's Terrible. I couldn't believe it. Xxxxxxx
10T	Xxxxxx and how did you feel.h you organised information?
11S	I am not sure about that to be honest. I am not sure if I =
12T	=You had a good plan. You had a good plan=
13S	=I did ((nodding)) Yeah. I planned my idea but it was er I am not sure about xxx because I put excit exited to
14S	put into appendixes
15T	Yes ::
19) TT9-JoF1 (00.00-5:02)	
1T	okay R↑IGHT so↑ tell me what's been happening with your work ((smiling))
2S	um: well um:: I I researched a LOT of ur newspaper articles and journals ((smiling))
3T	U-hm
4S	um: well AC↑TUALY I I I found out that I did something extremely wrong with the referencing (.) coz I
5S	wasn't suppose to reference wikipe↑dia
6T	u-hm
7S	and I did in almost all of my projects ((laughing))
8T	Mm
9S	And One of the my class members told me that I I shouldn't ((pointing)) Wikipedia
10T	Yes lots of Wikipedia
11S	Yeah
12S	Do do do you correct it
13T	Um I mentioned you shouldn't be too reliant on Wikipedia I mean maybe one or two
14T	Ur but
15S	I I can use it?
16T	You can use it but don't rely on it too much
17S	Mm but yeah because ur I wanted um in the beginning I wanted ur to differences to have a definition of media and mass
18S	Media
19T	Mm mm
20S	So I used it
21T	Well ok well that's fine I shouldn't rely on it too much for information because it's not authenticated you know you
22T	know it's not as good as ur you know a book
23S	Ok ur but but I can use encyclopedias as references
24T	Encyclopedias generally but you know the difference between Wikipedia and normal encyclopedias
25S	Yes can be changed
26T	Yes and nobody's really editing it so anybody could put anything so it's not as reliable I mean on the whole it's very
27T	very good you know that's accepted but if you had everything from Wikipedia it's not a not a good thing
28S	No it's not hehe
29T	Ok a-avoid it if you can
30S	Ok
31S	So um what's your general opinion
32T	Um well let's just ur I wrote some comments on it for you
33S	Ok
34T	Um I don't think this is a topic that we agreed was it
35S	No it's not
36T	Ok So you should really be using the you know if you're going to change the topic you need to let me know hehe
37S	Ok
38T	Um because you submitted a title a particular title
39S	I did yeah
40T	Ok um ok you know re on an essay of this type you wouldn't have a content page like this
41S	No
42T	It's not normal this is an essay it's not a it's not a report and so you don't need to do this
43S	Mm
44T	So that's that's another thing makes a little improvement
45S	Ok
46T	Ok didn't give a ti-title
47S	Oh
48T	Remember and I I suggested also before
49S	Yeah right

50T	You should put running heads there so you know but I'm not quite sure what your title is so miss mas mass media
51T	corruption isn't acceptable title
52S	It's not?
53T	And it's not what your essay's about anyway um: so you have to be quite careful
54S	So um what what title do you suggest?
55T	Well what were you looking at in the first place what's your first title
56S	Ur:: it was media can't remember ur: um mass media corruption
57T	Mm Yes it wasn't that wasn't your original submission was it um
58S	Yeah it was
59T	No I I don't think I accepted that as a title for your essay ((looking at the student's previous paper))
60S	((looking for her papers))
61T	Not sure if I still got it here it will be something like analyse or evaluate the effect of the media um yeah you it was
62T	global media your working title
63S	But this was a first one?
64T	Um this is the one I had from you it was received late um I think it was due in on the sixteenth it came on the
65T	seventeenth but I don't think you ever came and discussed it with me so it wasn't and you missed quite a lot of
66T	classes so I'm not sure that you know we ever got to the stage where you were there when I said you know this is not an
67T	acceptable title because it's not enough it has to be something like um but but it's not about corruption anyway
68T	if you look at it it's not about corruption so let's look at about what what you have done ok um: you talk about what
69T	is mass media and um how powerful is it thing there
70S	Mmhm
71T	Then you look about look at journalism ok um I've said here avoid subtitles ok your sentences link paragraphs this
72T	is an essay again it's not a report I think you should do that um ur oh I'll look at it in general and we will look at it in
73T	particular later um

20) TT10-BM2 (00.00-5:04)

1S	xx ((looking at the camera))
1T	That's ok: You can hear me. Right so Let's look at this (3.0) ((looking at student paper)) Right Um: Ok
2T	it's One problem though you've still got the direct quote here
2S	U-hm
3T	Ok Even though you've got Freed you've got Freed there
4S	U-hm
5T	You must either use your own words or put quotation=
6S	=Quotation
7T	Marks
8S	Uhm
9T	And then you put freed
10S	Freed
11T	Yeah (0.4) ((writing on student's paper)) And same here ok?
12S	Mmhm
13T	Better if you use your own words ok so I know it's very
14S	For example here I think I paraphrase and here my own words
15T	Or the other way round which which ever because a shorter one is better for a quotation
16S	Mmhm
17T	Paraphrase means using your own words
18S	Oh sorry quotation I mean I mean
19T	That's probably better as a quote
20S	Mmhm
21T	Because it's shorter yep this one use paraphrase ok
22S	Mmhm
23T	Um I think there's a mistake here I think the demand for it is ever increasing
24S	Yeah
25T	I think that's that was a mistake yep a slip there ok um that was slightly informal the best bet
26S	Mm
27T	You say the best option like that um: and again I think he you have another one here you put the disadvantage I think
28T	You mean the advantage
29S	Advantage
30T	Yeah ok ok
31S	There was quite ur not hurry but xxx
32T	No no no you've you've done a lot of work on this you know really a lot
33S	Mm
34T	And I'm very impressed by that but um just somethings you have to slip be careful about no I'm a bit puzzled here
35T	Independent group um you don't say who they are where they are um do you know
36S	Ur don't I have it from some somewhere hehe
37T	Yeah I looked it up from the web and there is an independent group at Yale university there might be another one
38T	But you can't just say the independent group without giving a source
39S	Mmhm mmhm
40T	So you need to explain who they are
41S	Mm
42T	Ok now you've got a lot of information here you've quoted Riley
43S	Mmhm

44T	Which is fine but here you've got more information and I'm not sure whether that's
45S	I I I I thought it's like
46T	You think that's common knowledge
47S	Here they go about these people in xx
48T	Ok ok that's fine then if that's if if you feel that's common knowledge ur things like initially be more expensive
49T	Ok we could know that
50S	Mmhm
51T	Ok that's fine then you go into pg your punctuation was a bit funny around here you stopped putting full stops and
52T	Ok you put comma there and you put nothing there so be careful about punctuation and again that's a proof reading
53T	Thing ok
54S	Mm I know I know why
55T	What's this?
56S	This was academic jour-journal and ur name of it was period three I say
57T	Ok but it was not in your bibliography
58S	Hmm
59T	Um so I couldn't um ((looking at the student's paper))
60S	((looking at his paper))
61T	It's not quoted here
62S	Ur maybe I forgot
63T	Yes so if you've got something
64S	Mmhm but I know it was like it was from acrobe from acrobe bode reader so it it was like academic journal
65T	Ok Well you need to find what it is
66S	Mm mmhm
67T	Put it in your reference list um then you got a quotation mark and um is it a quote
68S	Mm
69T	A crucial step pushes the chil- the success of LPG
70S	Mm
71T	You've got half a quote there I don't know where that begins so be careful if you're using their words then quote
72T	them properly
73S	Oh I note I wanted to to maybe this I forgot to put last
74T	Ok well that's that's that's a closing quote
75S	Mm
76T	To open like that to close is like that ok
77S	Mm
78T	You've got a closing one so I'm looking here for the opening one but that's if you're putting it there it must be there
79T	is no space between that
80S	Between that mmhm
81T	Ok
82S	Ok
83T	Now I see you have tried to make the links
84S	Mmhm
85T	That is good but that link should go to the front of that paragraph
86S	This one
87T	Yeah mmhm
88S	Mmhm ok
89T	Um
90S	Are these the same thing?
91T	Mm
92S	It was also an academic journal
93T	Ok but it's not in your bibliography
94S	Mmhm
95T	So you need to find that

21) TT11-LF2 (00:00-5:24)

1T	Ok So Right so what changes have you've made?
2S	I have made some changes (.) I for example, I put the some information about other companies er which are similar er::
3S	Er::well strategy for ((looking at her paper)) er::For example er:: em: I don't know hi.hhh((smiling))
4S	((turning over her paper)) e::hi.hhh about this catalogue I write about the er about this editor
5T	u-hm like next Yes u-hm
6S	Yes (.) And um (3.0) about this suppliers there are also body shop er because um there are also depend on that
7S	suppliers about er this e Enra enra Environmentally friendly company that are also the body shop do the same (.) I think
8S	I should more more about but I want to ask is this right the way how I do this or how shall I do
9T	You are putting more examples in
10S	Yes
11T	Sounds a good thing (.)
12S	Mm
13T	Um
14S	I can also xxx I don't know how are we
15T	Ok it's probably easier to look at it together this way um: thank you for putting this here hehe

16S	Hehe
17T	That's very helpful um:
18S	((looking at her paper))
19S	I think I'm conclusion I didn't make any
20T	I don't think you yes you it seems slightly sudden conclusion sudden end but um when you say in an article studied by
21T	Martinson I don't think you mean studied there
22S	Mm
23T	I think you mean Martinson two thousand and one
24S	This part I
25T	Perhaps you can just say Martinson
26S	I just wanna say I have it more hehehe words
27T	Points out put it in on yeah ok
28S	Now beginning
29T	Ok
30T	We won't have time to read it all through now but let's see um: I think you need to break it up into paragraphs a bit more you
31T	haven't got the this for example just for the sake of the reader
32S	Hm
33T	You know it's quite a big chunk to read
34S	Mmhm
35T	Altogether
36S	Mm
37T	You need to maybe break it up
38S	Ok
39T	Ok then you've got one round there mmhm
40S	Ur I have question about um um about where is about this um there er in my first draft there was something is missing there
41S	But I couldn't imagine what what what do you mean about it
42T	Ur you'd have to say three of
43S	Ur three of
44T	In the campouts are you happy about furniture now?
45S	Yeah I'm ok hehe
46T	Yeah ok
47S	Hehe I was little confused some mistake
48T	Yeah you understand that ok
49T	Mmhm
50T	Ur it's very nice very nicely referenced so again very long chunks where I think you need to
51S	Mm ((nodding))
52T	Divide that up into paragraphs
53S	Ok
54T	Um it's not always a new idea for paragraph just to
55S	Mmhm
56T	Just to make it easier for the reader
57S	Ok
58T	Just a T missing there
59S	Ur yeah
60T	Not difficult
61S	Hm
62T	There I think you can split that up into paragraphs
63S	Mmhm
64T	Ok break this one up hehe
65S	Hehe ok
66T	Ok did I not pick up on this before
67S	No no
68T	No Sorry I should have mentioned that I was probably getting involved in other things but yes cuz you've got body shop
69T	there and I think that might me a good break there
70S	Mmhm
71T	After that one (23.0)
72S	OK I think that's yeah

22) AT1-JF1 (0.00-5:09)

1S	My ta-title ? ((showing her paper to her techer)) (3.0) °°and [and try introduction°°
2T	[Good ((nodding)) good good (.) exac-exactly his name?
3S	Ye[s
4T	[Righ[t
5S	[ca-cavorsky cavorsky
6T	Drawer?
7S	((nodding)) He is very good
8T	Right ok
9S	And I try to write aims and but it's may it's maybe draw up with aims
10T	Absolutely fine. Very good
11S	I'm: I re-really really like my literature review and I didn't haven't enough time to organise [like er just ur take out

12T		[Good
13T	Yes That's very very good So (.) You're gonna add more stuff [yes?	
14S		[maybe [four hundred [words more=
15T		[Yeah (.) [yeah
16T	=Yeah ok now is surrealist	
17S	Oh	
18T	is the eighteens because so surrealism ism	
19S	Mmhm	
20T	is the noun ist is the adjective and ist is also the person	
21S	Aha	
22T	Ok ism is the thing	
23S	Yeah	
24T	Yeah Ok so that's something to say	
25S	Yeah now I got it	
26T	Alright	
27S	And this is a xxx	
28T	Good good	
29S	I couldn't define my period because my comparison	
30T	Doesn't matter doesn't matter	
31S	Um	
32T	Good surrealists good yeah	
33S	Uhhh	
34T	Influence that you don't need to	
35S	Yeah	
36T	Right now here con it's a con xxx ur ur capital H	
37S	Yes	
38T	Now you've got two things	
39S	Yes	
40T	Is this definitely a paraphrase or is it a quote is it	
41S	Um paraphrase	
42T	Ok	
43S	And that hm? Oh I see. ok I will don't	
44T	That doesn't matter I don't want to really (11.0)	
45S	Ur xx I couldn't find any further reading um	
46T	Ok Mina that's xxx ok? ((whispering))	
47S	Uhuh (13.0)	
48T	Good	
49S	So I written my literature review	
50T	That's ok	
51S	Yeah	
52T	Mm Yeah so and that will come to a thousand words do you think? When you expand it will probably it will come to a	
53T	Thousand	
54S	Yeah of course I have to [expand and then if I need ur some more information	
55T		[Yeah yeah
56T	Good. so what you've done with that, is very good	
57S	Mm	
58T	Because what you've done with that is you've given me a background to	
59S	Surrealism	
60T	Surrealism. so this is something absence of consciousness and control to show things in real way	
61S	Yeah	
62T	I think	
63S	Strange?£hihi	
64T	£hihi It's lovely but a little more needed here	
65S	Yeah	
66T	You're telling me	
67S	Mm	
68T	What the reason is	
69S	Ok	
70T	So give try and give me [an understanding yeah ok good but apart from that that's really good now	
71S		[More detail
72T	[This is really good	
70S	[I'll remember the body part?	
71T	That's really good the rest of it is really good because you've done two things you've told me about parts of surrealism	
72T	Techniques, when it was, and you've got USA [and Britain	
72S		[Yeah
73T	Now good ok	

23) AT2-KF1 (0:00-5:01)

1S	(xxxxxxxxxx) (43.00) ((sound too low))
2T	What you've said to me is the absolute perfect introduction. Absolutely perfect Yeah? What you've said (10.0)
3T	((looking at the student's paper)) Right that's a nice introduction as well. What You've just said to me (.)

4T	(21.00) ((looking at the student's paper)) somewhere got to mention korea early
5S	I'm still thinking that shall I put south Korea in the centre in this research or either because other countries
6S	I I need to put some development about the countries harder countries is following so
7T	But it's very interesting it's very very interesting because you've got as you say xxx you're going to America
8S	Mm
9T	There's no there's no xxx for us
10S	Mmm mm
11T	Because we always used to think that
12S	Yeah
13T	We should always have to wait for you know this special relationship
14S	Mm mm
15T	Um: But you say that Europe is saying ok fine we'll go go with it yeah
16S	Yeah some korea
17T	Typical But um it's it's as you know it's raising issues over here as well
18S	Mmhm
19T	I would personally put Korea central
20S	Mmhm
21T	For two reasons um you're really intellectual ok which is fantastic very good but um and and you will be required to be
22T	very intellectual more or less in this course
23S	Mm
24T	But um grounding thought you know what I mean it it grounding theory grounding xx big issues like home in something
25T	happening here which is literally individual happening to individual Koreans
26S	Mm mm mm
27T	Is I think
28S	Mm mm mm
29T	More [intellectual
30S	[Mm mm
31T	Than just doing it up here is very
32S	Mm mm
33T	I don't know about you but you're doing international relations here
34S	Yeah Yeah
35T	Well in my opinion bringing it down to [Mr Kim who lives on you know such and such a street
36S	[mmm
37T	And how that affects him and how it affects you know after just the black taxi driver in los Angeles is the way to
38S	Mm
39T	Continue to think about politics
40S	Mmhm
41T	And I think it's intellectual um:
42S	Yeah
43T	But I can see you're doing this it's it's it's I think it's a very good literature review ok um if you go too theoretical
44S	Mm
45T	You're gonna lose why you're doing it
46S	Mm
47T	That from what you said about xxxxxxxx (7.0) and you know it's the US that are over reacting
48S	Mm
49T	To that You know first time they sat in the xxx you know the rest of UK Europe the rest of korea we big you know yeah
50T	We've lived with it for years those silly sods at the moment in time
51S	Mmhm
52T	What we've got to change yeah
53S	Yeah yeah that's
54T	Good Contact very clearly
55S	Mm
56T	There's no reason why you shouldn't ah many points say that very clearly yeah um the US is exercising you know
57T	because of the way they feel because they feel threatened for the first time for a long long time the rest of us have to
58T	spend a lot of time waiting to get visas to go and see them
59S	Mmhm
60T	Yeah ok the more you have to spend hanging at airports yeah when we go to the us British people are really pissed off
61T	about it
62S	Mm
63T	You know so I would do that

24) AT3-JF1 (0.00-1.13)

1T	Yeah.hh You know (.) um:I need to ought to take you upstairs to show you why ok?
2S	((nodding))
3T	Um:: I don't know how to this um: (3.0) what's happened? Do you know why it's so high?
4S	(6.0) maybe I haven't really clearly[so I can't use my own idea own words
5T	[Yeah
6T	Rightly partly ok discovering well yes (.) ok I have real problem of time (.) um: what I would like to do (.) Can you
7T	Possibly come back this afternoon?
8S	Yeah
9T	I am very very sorry to do it like that (.) ok but could you come back at two?[Ok come upstairs

10S	(((nodding)))
11T	We will then use my computer upstairs ok I am sorry to do that to you but it's questioning of the timing (.) Is that alright?
12S	Yeah (.)
13T	Ok See you at two
14S	Ok

25) AT4-CF1 (00:00-5:04)

1T	um: °Most important thing for YOU:↑ is (.) if you've got a <u>research question</u> ° ((looking at Min's face and smiling))
2S	ur:: NOT↑ QUESTIONS (1.0) ((smiling))
3T	((nodding)) (4.0) °°ok°°
4S	and er (0.4) I, I read a lot of A↑rticles (.) and er some of books>=
5T	=Goo::d= ((her face goes red))
6S	but ur (0.4) <I found some information er not useful> [er HA:] ((smiling)) [My] reading (.) is too slowly (.) I think=
7T	[Of co]urse [Ye]((smiling))
8T	=WELL:: YES
9S	and but (.) I found the er Google (.) promoted a lot of new services this year (.)
10T	YEAH (.)
11S	like um:: cooperated with BT phone em Podapong (1.0)
12T	with what↑
13S	Podapongs (1.0) Podapong=
14T	=VO↑:DAFONE ((looking at her lips)) =
15S	=Yeah (.) VOdafone
16T	Yeah (.) good (.) sorry (.) Yeah Yep
17S	and the um: it is er planning to put er data bases and (.) like online supermarket for Europeans' retailers
18T	Really?
19S	Yeah (.)[Cause google base
20T	[Yes (.)
21S	That's right
22T	ok
23S	Also want em promoted online with frequency search[xx entertaining programme
24T	[ok
25T	Yes (.) ok right (.) That's (.) THAT'S the some FACTS on this about Google =
26S	=Yeah
27T	What can you DO: with them? (2.0)
28S	mm:: (3.0)
29T	THIS IS (.) THIS IS um (2.0) okay CAN I just have (.) Can you just have a pen↑ (.hhh) (5.0) NOW (.) This kind of thing (3.0)
30T	This is dangerous (.)
31S	mm::
32T	((Underlining a section in Min's paper)) because this is the man who works for Google (.) who says we're living in a Google world (.)
33T	Do you see how it's the dangerous↑
34S	((nodding)) because it's er not the reality but ur the someone who works for Google (.) ((nodding and smiling))
35T	<u>SO</u> so for (.) that is not um: (3.0) It's not academic (.) because if you if you write it down (.) you need to either say <u>proo</u> ::f!
36T	or you need to say (1.0) this shows how strongly people want us to believe (.)
37S	Yeah yeah and the Google's ambition ((nodding))
38T	((reading her paper)) sorry um: is it then you say this the staff always enjoy the free xxx couches
39T	Now enjoys a value word it means you think it's good (.) if you use that word, it means you think it's good (.)
40T	Do you know if it's good?
41S	No
42T	Ok good it's really important to answer that but you're saying you know it's good
43S	Mm ur=
44T	=Now this is eh hh hh a bit woa woa
45S	Hhh
46T	Yes but this is unfortunately ur it's not quite common knowledge you understand common knowledge
47S	Mm
48T	Common knowledge means something that everybody knows but it's something that is very easy to find
49S	Mm ((nodding))
50T	Ok alright (12.0) now this you've written that that's good and it's a different thing ok um
51S	((nodding))
52T	And that's it. Now there's two things. Do you think this is your literature review or do you think it's your main
53T	body? ((looking at the student's face))
54S	Um not literature review
55T	Hm ok. It's kind of a background on Google isn't it?
56S	Yeah
57T	Ye:ah

26)AT5-KF1 (00:00-5.02)

1T	In other words there's ABSOLUTLY no plagiarism at all!
2S	YEAH:::[hehehe
3T	[Hehehehe You're really good on that well done hehehe but let's have
4S	=Yeah (.)
5T	No but actually (.)
6S	Yeah (.)
7T	The first thing is that um:: this is a it's a pass already ok?
8S	Yeah (.)
9T	But (.) now then there's a lot you can do to improve on it (.)
10S	I know (.) I was going to rewrite=
11T	=Yeah?
12S	Especially half way to (xxx) I read and I couldn't do this. I need your help so I just came
13T	Ok (.) Alright Well (.) there's er I think there's TWO Things to say about what you need to do ok first thing is
14T	that A: the thinking is good and B: the um:: the work you know un-underline research is good ok?
15S	((nodding))
16T	So those two things mean that there's not much of a problem because all you need to do is rewrite re ur focus to a
17T	certain extent. One of things as I go through right um I go to ur here in fact a lot of your literary review is actually
18T	the history
19S	Mm
20T	Of hegemonic states yeah
21S	Mmhm
22T	So in here the introduction has to tell me what I'm gonna read
23S	Oh I see
24T	So you've put that it's you on hegemony ok
25S	Yeah yeah
26T	You need to say in the literature review
27S	Uh huh
28T	The following are examined a brief history of hegemony including um well you put ur Britain and then the US
29T	Ok? um in other words you need to to lead me through so that that if I give you
30S	((looking for a pen in her bag))
31T	Yes you might want to take notes something I I put notes here as well
32S	Yeah
33T	But first of all you need to I mean the introduction should be written last anyway
34S	Yeah yeah yeah yeah
35T	If you know what I mean yeah but so you you you must now work me through
36S	Mmhm
37T	In the introduction or work me through exa all the parts so that should go in the introduction because it's a surprise
38T	to me it was surprise to me as I started reading that there was so much history
39S	Mm mm mm mm mm
40T	Ok which doesn't matter um the other thing is that I don't think you still aren't talking I mean I do know myself
41T	what the Britain system is but
42S	Yea there was
43T	There's somewhere you introduce it
44S	Mm
45T	Now I can't work out I think I might right ok I think that this is the
46S	Yes
47T	First mention of the Britain xxx institutions
48S	Yeah
49T	Right You can't do that
50S	Yeah
51T	Because you're talking to me
52S	Yeah
53T	Or you're talking to a reader who may or may not know what the brit Britain xxx institution are so you need to say
54T	um the Britain (xx) institutions were established after the world war ur which were which one which war I think you'll
55T	find it's W w two but you need to just be precise
56S	Hmmm yeah yeah
57T	Yeah um to do what I mean include this all you need to do is say you know they were set up um in order to avoid a con
58T	con yeah yeah ok?
59S	Ok
60T	Then you can go on but in fact you need to mention so in your literary review you need to get sorry in your
61T	introduction you need to say well look at what Britain xxx institutions are as well ok?
62S	Ur
63T	Because in fact if if you think about it I believe that your literature review covers well it covers sort of a history of
64T	He
65S	Hege
66T	Yeah wha heg I can never spell it Hegemonic states I think ((write the word down in her paper))
67S	Yeah I think
68T	Ur it's specifically UK and US yeah?
69S	Yeah
70T	Ur it involves looking at institutions because you're talking about institutions

71S	Yeah yeah
72T	But it needs to be a separate yeah it involves looking at institutions so that yeah it it certainly should as well because
73T	that's what you are linking
74S	Mm mmhmm mmhmm
75T	Ok right so that's one thing yeah ok um so that's all Britain xx stuff great the breakdown how and when
76S	Mmhm
77T	You know if if you're saying it
78S	Mmhm
79T	You need to say when right now I assume all this is just that you've forgot put your dates in yeah?
80S	Yeah yeah yeah
81T	Yeah Ok because I'm not worried about that um BNS I don't understand why you put
82S	BNS mean [so I just
83T	[Oh it's just your yep
84S	put it yeah yeah
85T	Excellent that's absolutely fine that's what I would do to but I just want to make sure that that's fine ok now you
86T	also in the introduction need to tell me you would you know clearly that the main body is examining the US new
87T	US visa poli-policy and looking at its ur implications for how America maintains its hegemony ok
88S	Introduction
89T	Yes so I'm still talking about the introduction

27) AT6-CM2 (00:00-5:02)

1T	Xx the um plagiarism percentage is quite high seventeen percent which shows you you 've taken er a bit too
2T	much alright it's ok?
3S	Ok
3T	Um apart from that (.) um I think that most of you've done is quite good. Only one thousand eight hundred words
4T	What is your planning for the rest?
5S	Ur: Three thousand five hundred something?
6T	A bit too much (.) should be three thousand three maxium.
7S	Ah ok ok
8T	You need to cut it three thousand three
9S	Ok
10T	So have you fou- are you still writing at the moment
11S	Not yet because I just ur find the methodology ur: and something
12T	You're finding the methodology?
13S	Yeah because I didn't ur do the methodology here
14T	No
15S	So I I think need to work hard in this part
16T	Ok but you know that the methodology is just telling me what you did
17S	Yeshh
18T	Ye:s
19S	Ok
20T	Tell the reader what you did yeah? ((writing it down))
21S	Yes
22T	Mhm ok? ((looking at the student's face)) That's all?
23S	Mmhm ((nodding))
24T	Yeah? you you're not finding sources for this [or anything
25S	[I know [I know
26T	[Good yeah
27S	Because I just find a structure at the methodology structure ur to into my
28T	((coughing))
29S	My Project
30T	Ur what do you mean you found it
31S	Ur for example ur what what kind of methodology I I had a found ur how can I write this project ur why allow this
32S	project is it ?
33T	Methodology no
34S	No
35T	Methodology is only what I did and your methodology is just I researched into Tesco's um
36S	Yes I
37T	Ur relationships with its suppliers by reading secondary sources looking at Tesco's website bla bla bla it's all you need
38T	to say in your methodology
39S	Just say that?
40T	Yeah
41S	No a lot of the oh
42T	Now what kind of lot of did you try up are you thinking of writing?
43S	Ur:: finding mm
44T	Yeah now this is met in the methodology section
45S	Yes
46T	You want to write a lot?
47S	Five hundred five hundred
48T	Five hundred words why
49S	Because I think I think this one also very important

50T	No this one just tells me what you did
51S	Ok
52T	And I think for your research you didn't do very much you just used the library databases yeah
53S	Mmhm just use the library database?
54T	What else did you do
55S	Oh sorry I do I borrow a lot of the book and you
56T	Ok and the books
57S	Yes
58T	So You use the library database and borrowed books
59S	Yes
60T	Ok that's really important
61S	Uh huh
62T	But that's not very long to tell me is it?
63S	Alright ur about three hundred?
64T	I don't think so probably two sentences
65S	Two sentences? Oh hhhh I spent a week to do this
66T	Have you? where is it?
67S	Ur just I borrow a lot of book and do the conclu conclusion um (getting out a book from student's bag)
68S	Yeah I think this book is very
69T	Ah:: now that's a very book good to read
70S	Yes
71T	So don't worry if you've done that
72T	Mm ok but have you got the what you've written
73S	what I read
74T	No what you have written
75S	Mm not yet just ur made this structure because this book I I not sure where I had to read
76T	Well so the first thing is
77S	Right I think ur
78T	This is much much more bigger
79S	Yes I know
80T	I mean all you're doing is secondary data
81S	Mmhm yes I my is secondary
82T	And all but but you're not using most of this because you're not really doing research all you're really doing is
83T	Reading sources which isn't the same thing as research I'm afraid
84S	Huhhh
85T	Um:: and um:: none of that is really relevant to this section
86S	Yes
87T	But I want to know what you've written wh-what have you written about
88S	Ur:: you want you mean I you want to know I how can I write it
89T	Have you written it?
90S	Not yet
91T	Good
92S	Oh
93T	You don't need to
94S	Oh ok I just ur
95T	Reading this book is very good
96S	Yes Yeah
97T	For the future
98S	For the future not for this project
99T	Yes
100S	Ok
101T	But for the future is more important this project is for the future
102S	Hahaaa hh hh
103T	Yeah
104S	Yes I know
105T	Yeah ok ?
106T	So so so but here you're methodology is secondary sources
107S	Yes is that
108T	((writing something down his paper))

28) AT7-CF2 (00:00-5:20)

1S	Anron
2T	((looking at the student's mouth)) Good . You are changing completely? ((looking at the student's face))
3S	Anron
4T	Anron
5S	Anrong
6T	Anron
7S	Anron
8T	Good
9S	Ok
10T	So ::You're changing for Google.

11S	No (.) ur (2.0) <<I think I think it's a not enough time to change into Google>>
12T	Good (.)
13S	But ur:: because you said er::to find er::a cooperation to compare ur the growing development xxx=
14T	=Good.
15S	So I think because of this company um Kum.hh (1.0) like develop to too much and like a bubble and then=
16T	=Ok. Very good very good very good ok Can I just um:: ((ask if she can write on the paper and writes
17T	something (5.0) too much (.)When you use too plus an adjective
18S	Hm::
19T	It means it is bad Yeah?
20S	Yeah ((nodding))
21T	Yeah: ((nodding)) (2.0) good ok ((writing something down)) (2.0) equals it is bad (.) now (1.0) If you are saying it
22T	develops too much if you are saying that in an academic essay. You're saying it is bad yeah
23S	Yeah
24T	Okay if you like now
25S	Maybe over develop
26T	Yeah.hh over develop ((making some notes)) (4.0) but that is a value judgement (xxx) Now (2.0) You need to prove this=(
27S	=Ok hehe.
28T	Yes Ok Alright. You can't say it
29S	Yeah [ok hehe
30T	[until you prove it
31S	Yeah
32T	Ok yeah so if I just write that down for you, you can't say you can't write or say a value to an extent
33S	((nodding))
34T	Until the end
35S	Mm
36T	Your essay well your your paragraphs
37S	Yeah
38T	Because this is a part of your essay must prove that
39S	Mm
40T	So at first
41S	Mm
42T	You have to say Enron developed quickly
43S	Yeah
44T	Yeah and developed in a big way yeah=
45S	=yes
46T	At the end you can say it developed too much and was bursting like a bubble
47S	Mm
48T	Yeah ok
49S	Mm
50T	So at the end you can say burst like a bubble you know or
51S	Yeah
52T	Words that are better than that yeah
53S	Yep
54T	Yeah that is at the end because that is if you like your conclusion
55S	Mm
56T	This is a conclusion this is the typical kind of conclusion
57S	Mm
58T	Which is what did it do what did it do grew, grew, grew
59S	Mm
60T	Tell it how it grew ha look what happened pao
61S	Yeah
62T	So it grew too much is the conclusion from what we see
63S	Mm
64T	So
65S	So as first just the stage like let run
66T	Yeah yeah exactly and it was when it did that
67S	Mm
68T	That it had problems
69S	Mm
70T	Well in fact it was doing this wasn't it like google
71S	Mm
72T	And then it tried to do that
73S	Yeah
74T	And then it went puw yeah? Now the point about your writing must be that you just say this is what happened
75S	Mm
76T	Then they decided they wanted to expand quickly hoo so they did this and this and this
77S	Mm
78T	And then at this point
79S	Mm
80T	A lot of people left or the something happened
81S	Yes

82T	Pao that is all you're describing
83S	Mm
84T	And at the end you can say expanded too much but not at the beginning
85S	Yeah
86T	Because all value judgements are conclusions from what you think
87S	And Kum:((coughing)) ur so I write in the literature review as well? No?
88T	Well that's your research
89S	Mm ok
90T	Mmhm so=
91S	=So there are literature review I write about googles
92T	((nodding)) yeah
93S	Ok
94T	Well let's have a look
95S	Mm
96T	Your question is still [google
97S	[Mm Google grow success successfully
98T	Good question mark ok?
99S	Mm
100T	So your literature review in this case it's going to be called well they'll be sections one section of the piece will be
101T	background
102S	Mm
103T	And you first of all got a little history of google
104S	Mmhm
105T	And then you've got all the things you've already done
106S	Ok
107T	About you I think you should put the position now in the words what is google now
108S	Oh yeah
102T	Yeah?
103S	Google Kum:hh ((coughing)) current situation
104T	Yep good shall I write that down?
105S	Mm
106T	And ur I know you've done research on that you have to describe that
107S	Mm
108T	Absolutely no value judgement
107S	Mm
108T	And then you also need the plans for the future
109S	Mm ((nodding))

29)AT8-CM1 (00:00-5:43)

1T	Number one (.) It's got eleven percent on the plagiarising mark (.)
2S	Hm
3T	However the majority of that is you taking names (.)
4S	Ok (.)
5T	Ok (.) We don't worry about that at all
6S	Uh hum
7T	Alright (.) um (.) there are.hh there's a possible few things but.hh I'm not worried about that
8S	I haven't cooked actually (.)
9T	Pardon?
10S	I haven't cooked (.)
11T	You haven't?
12S	The the the sauce very well (.)
13T	Right (.)
14T	Maybe that's it (.)
15S	Yeah (.)
16T	Now why haven't you is that because do you haven't use ple:: paraphrasing? Or:: I will tell you (.) Yeah (.)
17S	Yeah (.)
18T	Yeah It's a it's a little bit one sauce and another sauce
19S	Yeah (.) Exactly (.)
20T	Yeah
21S	Exactly
22T	Ok alright we'll have a look at that good now um howww yes good now um the sport analysis ok good
23S	Mmhm
24T	Yep
25T	Um but here again
26S	Yep
27T	first of all ok methodology right so so so
28S	Yeah
29T	The way you've done it you've given me your introduction which is quite good and quite interesting and then you talked
30T	about these yeah three things
31S	Mmhm
32T	Ok and this ok and then you've got methodology now for a start off this is all so can I ask you if you do this? yeah

33S	Yeah
34T	To and then okay
35S	Yeah yeah yeah
36T	Alright I'm sure you will but once we get there therefore
37S	Mmhm
38T	I think you need
39S	Three
40T	So so so sport analysis now first of all ok you must explain
41S	Ah yeah
42T	First time you introduce er initials
43S	Yeah
44T	You've always got to explain it
45S	Yeah
46T	So um the main methodology for undertaking this study is to use sport analysis strengths weaknesses opportunities
47T	Threads
48S	Ok
49T	Ok um of four different companies
50S	Mmhm
51T	Daimler-Chrysler, Volkswagen, beautiful brilliance
52S	Mmhm
53T	And whatever the other one was ok um s-s-so ok for here this this is good but so explain this easily
54S	Yeah
55T	You don't have to yeah ok now I don't think I think it's car manufacturers in China
56S	Exactly yeah
57T	Alright ok so need to be that's one thing that you always do
58S	Mm
59T	You need to be clear
60S	Ah
61T	You have to tell me the truth yeah
62S	Why the truth mmhm
63T	Car manufacturers in China why you have to tell me the truth I'm not saying you're lying because you have to give me the
64T	exact picture ok
65S	Ok
66T	So I swap s-s-so I think you need to put a swatch
67S	Mmhm
68T	Anyalyse a swat analysis what is it
69S	Yeah
70T	What's carried out
71S	Yeah
72T	Ok on four car manufacturers in china
73S	Mmhm mmhm
74T	They were Daimler, Volkswagen, brilliance, I can't remember the other one ok full stop ok
75T	Daimler represents bla bla bla
76S	Yeah
77T	Volkswagen equals blab la bla
78T	Brilliance and dongfeng are bla bla bla
79S	Mm
80T	Ok so as you're covering um
81S	Intro
82T	Ee um paragraph introduction
83S	Mmhm yeah
84T	To this methodology alright
85S	Ok
86T	Internal sedments of the overall environment entitle ok a swat yes good because that's what a swat analysis always does
87S	Mmhm
88T	Ok um I'm not going to call it assignment I think it's a paper project essay
89S	Ok
90T	Let's call it paper ok
91S	Yeah
92T	Change that before
93S	Mm
94T	Right it's not this is articles this is a little bit of ok it's an international
95S	Yeah
96T	Ok alright now here ah good so although that's I think you got a lot of information from datavita yeah
97S	Ur yeah
98T	Ok so I would like that in the introduction
99S	Mmhm
10T	Um much of the information
101S	Mmhm
102T	Comes from the data monitor
103S	Alright

104T	Report titled blady bla yeah ok
105S	Mmhm
106T	That helps me a lot ok
107S	Ok
108T	Now you got Chen
102S	Yeah need more than Chen
103T	Silma
104S	Yeah
105T	And then a lot of data monitor so so so that's good and then you still need to acknowledge data monitor
106S	Mmhm
107T	Ok And You need to acknowledge those right now
108S	Is that alright I'm I'm I'm used to more data monitor
109T	No it's it-it-it there are two reasons because first of all there isn't that much source of information
110S	Mmhm
111T	About all this companies one thing I was would be surprised is there isn't a tiny bit of stuff I don't want very much
112S	Mmhm
113T	From Daimler-Chrysler's website so
114S	Ok
115T	Is there anything on their website or what they do in China?
116S	Mmm::: yeah but they have information
117T	Mm
118S	It's difficult to use because they just say oh two thousand and three we are going to go to China
119T	Aha
120S	We are gonna we're gonna to produce our carbon reader
121T	Uh huh
122S	And we screwwww the company in China and then government will take a picture
123T	Ohh
124S	And that's great event blab la bla
125T	Yeah
126S	Just introduce
127T	Right

30) AT9-CF3 (0.00-5:17)

1T	£Not spend half an hour ((looking at student and smiling))
2S	Ye[s::
3T	[Cause I've already spent some time [with you Yeah?
4S	[ok
5S	Yes
6S	Remember I've already spent time [with you Yeah
7S	[Yes
8T	We looked that I told you about the plagiarism ok? And the other things I told you about is um that well You know that
9T	you can make those better
10S	Yeah
11T	And and we talked about and that one too ((making notes on student's paper)) and we talked quite a lot about
12T	The fact that what you need to do is to concentrate on how what google does can be compared to what other ur
13S	Yeah (.) another company
14T	Yeah do
15S	Ur Anron Anron
16T	Enron ((writing the spelling))
17S	Enron and um:
18T	Enron yeah
19S	Yeah (.) I really got problem with ur how to write this I spend time with research and reading but I couldn't write it
20T	(13.0) ok ((wrtng something on student's paper))
21T	This is a key text isn't it because
22S	Mm ((nodding))
23T	This text is suggesting that google's going too far too fast
24S	Mm ((nodding))
25T	Yeah ok?
26T	But you need: the whole point about Um writing this essay is that you need to find not what he says yeah?
27T	You know what he says ok?
28S	Mm
29T	So the that's just reading is like watching the television yeah ok?
30S	Mm
31T	You need to find the answer to this question
32S	Mm
33T	Which is not what he says ok?
34S	((nodding))
35T	but what you found out and what we thought was that we ought to compare Google
36S	((nodding))
37T	With another company

38S	Yeah
39T	Yea:h so you know you need to say to yourself I am going to compare Google and Enron so you say to yourself on your
40T	head
41S	Mmhm ((nodding))
42T	And you need ((draws a long line across the paper))
43S	Ur to have a list
44T	The list will not appear in your essay
45S	Mm
46T	But the list is for you to do the thinking
47S	Mm
48T	Now the whole point
49S	Mm
50T	About writing an essay at Master's level is that you can never just write it. You will have all over your table
51S	Mm
52T	A lot of thinking and planning, plans and thoughts(.) now if you're going to compare Google and Enron,
53S	Mm
54T	The only way you can compare two things is by finding hair colour black ((pointing at student's hair))
55S	Mm
56T	Hair colour brown ((pointing at her own hair)) ok eye colour brown ((pointing at student)), eye colour blue
57T	((pointing at herself))
58S	Mmhhh
59T	Yeah right? The only thing you can do to compare is you need to isolate factors (.) parts (.) to compare
60S	Mm
61T	Now
62T	So mm it sounds similar
63T	You!
64T	Factors!
65T	Factors that everybody has
66S	Mm
67T	Eyes, eyes, eyes ok
68S	Mm
69T	Brown blue green
70S	Mm
71T	Ok yeah in other words the first thing you need to do is think about which bits of the business I can compare
72S	Mm
73T	So for instance
74S	Mm
75T	You've got number of employees
76S	Yeah
77T	Ok now number of employees you know probably
78T	((clears her throat))
79T	You want to do this you know two thousand two thousand and one two three
80S	Mm
81T	And Enron ((draws a wiggly line on paper))
82S	Mm
83T	Ok
84T	So you you er
85T	That it. This is all
86S	Mm
87T	Before you write anything
88S	((nodding)) mm
89T	This may not be useful or interesting to compare the number of employees
90S	Mm
91T	Because it maybe brown brown ok oh same colour eyes oh yep both Asian
92S	Mm
93T	Ok
94T	Brown blue different coloured eyes well yeah European, Asian meaningless difference
95S	Mm
96T	Yeah ok people people eyes eyes ok but it maybe yeah because Enron the other thing is Enron failed
97S	Yes
98T	Google. The question is will it be successful?
99S	Mm
100T	Enron grew puw yeah can Google do it without? So you need to find things about them to compare so you can say
101T	Oh Google is very like Enron haa (gasp sound) maybe it will fail
102S	Mm
103T	Or Google is not like Enron but there are some differences
104S	Mm
105T	So maybe it won't fail, This is proper research.

31) AT10-JF2 (0.00-5:02)

1T	Ok alright ((looking at student's paper)) um (2.0) Have played ((correcting grammar)) a very important role in past
2T	Years (.) Ok ok yeah Now here you put which from themselves witnesses four p ls and I p ls ((correct grammar))
3T	number one ok?
4S	I need to explain
5T	Yeah ((looking at student)) You can never use initials ((looking at student's paper)) the first time you use initials you
6T	must explain ok=
7S	=(nodding) ((looking at her paper))
8T	((write it down)) Explain the first time (.) Alright I don't understand (.)ok?
9S	Because I wrote £°xxx° for literature review
10T	£Yeah alright faire enough ((smiling)) Good that's good ok alright and that's good ok um this paper is based on
11T	previous series of surveys yeah which one? You have to say tell me here which one so the introduction needs to be
12T	clearer and more specific ok?
13S	Ok
14T	Doesn't matte you can easily do that yeah that's fine
15T	Ok ok now here I'd like um before you this two point one, I want you to say in the literature review, yeah um
16T	Three four whatever it is ur areas are examined. They are logistics, all sourcing, tpls in the uk , he is using chal ur bla
17T	Bla bla bla bla bla bla bla bla bla ok just listed alright
18S	Mhm
19T	Ok that's because every new section needs a little introduction for the reader ok?
20S	Yeah
21T	Alright so that's just a little introduction which you just fit in here in a small paragraph ok? it doesn't have to have a
22T	number
23S	Um ok
24T	Ok you understand?
25S	Oh I didn't understand the
26T	In the literature review I'll count one one two three four five six seven areas are examined
27S	Seven areas
28T	Well how ever many areas you have ok are examined
29S	Yeah yeah yeah mm
30T	They are bla bla bla bla bla ok
31S	Ok
32T	Alright aha aha good (.) ok Define said ok? Yeah good ok good this is good alright oh good good. This is all good
33T	Ok?
34S	Mm
35T	Here, you put the author and date only, never put the title you know you say Stokes two thousand
36T	nineteen ninety nine says
37S	Mm I think maybe I can't found the author but I think the um the article is academic because it come from I don't know
38S	from (.) I forgot it
39T	Where is it?
40S	Maybe I didn't put it in mm
41T	Well if it's not in here you can't use it
42S	Ha
43T	There it is
44S	Oh yeah
45T	Yeah? That's the one ((making clicking sounds with the tongue)) so You have to say supply management nineteen
46T	ninety nine
47S	Mhm
48T	But you have to say supply management volume states that
49S	Mm So I needed bracket
50T	Yeah no not brackets here
51S	No
52T	You just put supply management and then you put the volume and number
53S	Ahh ha
54T	Which is on there ok states that
55S	Ok ((nodding))
56T	Alright?
57S	Ok
58T	This is all good. So you're literature review is quite good ok?
59S	Mm
60T	So then we've got you've written ((looking at the paper)) that's alright ok? ur make this a sentence
61S	Mm
62T	This is based on ok? My research is based on ok?
63S	Ok
63T	Good ok

32) AT11-JF2 (0.00-5:02)

1T	Xxx [um Yeah ((looking at student's paper))That's only um oh no That's not your mark that's only plagiarism index=
2S	[°Twenty percent° ((looking at her paper))
3T	=ok
4T	Ok? A bit worried about that I have, I ought to go to upstairs with you some point ok? ok?

5T	((looking at her paper))
6T	((underlining on her paper)) um: I am afraid I haven't actually marked things on yours at the moment ok it doesn't
7T	really matter
8S	Mm
9T	Because basically um You've got one seven more
10S	Yeah
11T	Yeah:: Are you now clear what you are doing for your one seven?
12S	Yeah
13T	Yeah? Good what's it going to be. Can you just tell me briefly?
14S	Ur because I just wrote the half maybe a kind of half introduction
15T	Yep
16S	But Half of review
17T	Yep
18S	So I just I am gonna put Ja-the review of Japanease registration
19T	Good
20S	And after that I I I I've already got a static statistics
21T	Good
22S	So I put it in a body
23T	Good
24S	And compare it
25T	Good (.)
26S	And then
27T	Good. One thing I really keen to er this is most this is lovely ok? That's basically good thing so
28S	Hm
29T	Um:: good good alright so here this is your findings and I think it is a comparison
30S	Yeah
31T	The actual title
32S	Yeah
33T	Is the comparison of
34S	The UK and Japan?
35T	Ja Ja Japanese [and UK immigration
36S	[And UK policies
37T	Policies. Now One thing about this po-li-cies one thing about the whole of this is
38S	Mm
39T	In fact you can't compare them both you know you can't you're gonna have to focus
40S	Mmhm
41T	So so someway you're going to what what are you focusing on ok
42S	Mmhm
43T	It has to have a focus. Focus [on
44S	[on Ur (2.0) asylum seekers so:
45S	Is it same meaning asylum seekers and refugees no it not
46T	No a refugee is running away from something
47S	[Yeah yeah
48T	Ok?
49S	Yeah
50T	Now some refugees are economic ok? and some refugees are political
51S	Ok ((nodding))
52T	Or well generally political ok? Asylum seekers are those refugees who are saying to the Japanese or the UK
53T	government
54S	Mm
55T	Please please please we must stay in your country because if we go home,
56S	Mmhm
57T	We will face persecution
58S	So slightly different
59T	Yeah:: so you maybe actually focusing on refugees
60S	Mmhm yeah I yeah because yeah
61T	Well you need alright ok ok now
62S	Mm
63T	That's different from you
64S	Mm
65T	Coming to the UK
66S	Yeah I know
67T	You're not a refugee and you're not a asylum seeker
68S	Yeah but I'm not even immigrant
69T	Yeah but you could be. Let's just assume
70S	Mm
71T	For for a moment that you decided you want to come and live in England ok
72S	Mm
73T	Now you are just an immigrant
74S	Mm
75T	And you would be subject to certain immigration rules

76S	Mm yeah
77T	Ok and I don't know what they are you know more than I do now
78S	Mmhm mmhm
79T	But you're different
80S	Yeah
81T	So you're actually focusing on these two
82S	Yeah
83T	Good ok in relation to ok
84S	Mm mm
85T	Ok now that has to be clear and you have to clear and has to be transferred right into
86S	Mmhm
87T	The um good yeah? Ok. into this part of it
88S	Mmhm
89T	Ok but the cotuoller borders yeah
90S	Mm
91T	Involves even you if you were immigrant in the UK
92S	Mm
93T	Ok? the way that the UK would want wawawa want to check if you were member of a you know a gang who wanted
94T	to put the sour in the underground ok
95S	Mmhm
96T	I can't remember the people in Japan who did it but the immigration process is partly the way the bomb borders
97T	are controlled well if you like
98S	Mm
99T	The immigration process you apply we've got no problems because we
100S	Mm mmhm
101T	You know we se set those rules (.) border control is both you or in fact your Chinese friends getting into England
102T	Yeah at on a study visa and staying here to work
103S	Mm
104T	For instance
105T	Yeah? that's an example
106S	Mmhm
107T	But they are not refugees or asylum seekers
108S	Yeah
109T	Well they might be economic refugees
110S	Mmhm
111T	To a certain extent so you have to be really really clear ok yeah

B. Student-Student Writing conferences

Variations of peers' dynamic role construction and negotiation of each other's views in student-student writing conferences

1) RP1(1:20-2.37) Jolie: J, Hassan: H

1J	Do you doing the comparison
2H	Yeah
3J	You I I think it would be better if you write it instead of putting it in the table I don't know (.) you can say this whereas
4H	but like our rule of according to the report report like better to compare it to the table
5J	Yeah he did
6H	But for the essay like you have to write
7J	Yeah I don't know
8H	Xxx
9J	Oh what did she tell you um the girl from you
10H	She said like you can write this thing but she said not in the bullet points
11J	Oh yeah yeah
12H	Only yeah she said not in the bullet points
13J	You can't is: YES (.) I understand (.)
14H	Yeah she said not in the bullet points but she said this is alright
15J	Ok what I guess good I'm a bit lost I don't understand this is not my thing is this business or something like that
16J	all the loans but I think it's interesting but ok and your conclusion
17H	((clears his throat))
18J	You could put bullet points
19J	Ok conclusion

2) RP2(9.23-12.43) Koyto:K, Hiro:H

1K	Your you this this is this different
2H	Yeah

3K	Which which it shows what what comes up conclusion will be
4H	I guess yeah yeah
5K	Which which in I think sums up the essay
6H	Mm
7K	because there is a (guide)
8H	Yeah right yeah
9K	I think you can also
10H	Yeah
11K	You can also talk about
12H	Yeah my opinion ur in my conclusion yeah
13K	Your your opinion in conclusion you said
14H	Yeah so yeah yeah yeah yeah I agree with you my maybe I barely explained only the body part yeah yeah ((whisper))
15H	that you for that conclusion
16K	Do you doing the comparison
17H	How do you think
18H	I think my structure was terrible
19K	Yours was clear yep yep clear structure
20H	Yeah yeah
21K	Um ur three? You talk about three
22H	Yes yes
23K	Issues
24H	Three men yeah yeah
25K	It's ur descriptive person
26H	Yeah
27K	Um some comparison
28H	Mm mm yeah yeah
29K	Since this part is um very organised
30H	Yeah
31K	Um but what ur
32H	Yeah
33K	Um the part in your conclusion was
34H	Yeah
35K	part in your conclusion was interesting
36H	Oh really
37H	Yeah haa what is the interesting point?
38K	But I think I want you to extend your conclusion
39H	Ahh ha ha ha
40K	Because
41H	Yeah
42K	I think there you you suggested some new points in conclusion
43H	Aha
44K	Which
45H	Yeah yeah yeah
46K	Um like that's like reakky xx encouraging couples um this might be your xx
47H	Yeah
48K	But I think you can also
49H	Yeah yeah
50K	argue these points proceeding to conclusion part

3) RP3(14:01-16:07) Zhani:Z, Pablo:P, George:G

1Z	I think this it's a good topic I think this might be great the ideas you give about the property in Africa um however the
2Z	style I think the style is look like the weak point (.) I think because you choose to talk in each part
3P	Right but she just said that she
4Z	Yeah you could I mean yes she said we could use this but I because I think it's the way if you just put the number it
5Z	should look like a report but have it it's just my opinion (.) I and and I think in ur she said you probably don't need it's
6Z	better we don't use some question mark for assignment and ur your assignment still xxx informal
7Z	and the style when you associate I we I should should I or should I not and I think you like someone mm referencing
8Z	because I read the reference you have like four or five reference like you use only here or you too is and xxx
9Z	and I don't know where is the other
10P	Not written out yet
11Z	Yeah maybe you forgot something
12P	No I did I just didn't do it haaa I will put in the final though so you know because the I want to put more ideas so
13Z	yeah I think um I mean the body I think it's na good body but if you aim more for the conclusion to move through
14P	good
15Z	Yeah

4)TP1 (0.00-1.30) Sonia: S, Zama: Z

1Z	The first thing I noticed is that um she's running out of project topic
2S	Yes I I agree totally it it's not about that topic
3Z	It It's not about that
4S	And then there was only one paragraph about the topic in the b- from here to the end

5Z	It's very short hhhh
6S	Very short and also when she started talking about because the first she said um core and
7Z	Yeah she's just described this and said that's ur xxx
8S	Fossil fuels but we can have she said we can have um she said Brazilian findings was like
9Z	Mmhm
10S	Because of alcohol
11Z	Yes
12S	Or or cars?
13Z	This way she explained and then she she went on and say the various types of energys of the xx found xx the world is being
14Z	trying to reduce xx
15S	Which she's xxx explain how many how people have been trying to use this kind of thing xxx
16Z	Xxx of that's how many How much they use and something like that the problems is not about topic it's far too much about
17S	This ur curator? And there's not better Xxx text is missing somethings wrong it's not
18Z	It's not binaural
19S	It's not interlinking

5) TP2-SMC (1.40-2.10) Ann:A, Sofia:S, Dane:D

1S	((looking at Ann's essay and comments which she made)) Okay (.) Ann (.) um: ye (.) I like it also(.) ye but my
2S	criticism is (.) I'm gonna talking about (.) you need to justify (1.0) the paragraphs.
3A	Uh huh
4S	>you need to er (1.0) put like a tap (.) <you know .hh here (1.0) and your paragraphs(.) they are hu:ge (.) It's just like
5S	((widen her two fingers to show how big paragraph should be)) You never finish and and=
6A	=I didn't know what to do
7S	: LOOK(.) THIS ONE (2.0) ((pointing Ann's paragraph)) There's whole page (.) [hihi
8A	[hihihi
9S	But (.) I mean (1.0) that's just beginning (.) you know (.) I can just (.)
10A	((nodding))
11S	Um:: then(.) I thought half of your essay (.) was like (.) ur very scientific (.) you know (.) like (.) you are saying (.) ye
12S	I mean (.) this doctor and [this research
13A	[scientific topic (.)=
14S	Ye ye (.) the half that was very good (.) the other half(.) it doesn't say anything about references (.) the other half was
15S	(.) look here (.) perfect YE (.) then you don't say anything (.) one paragraph without reference (1.0) So I thought that
16S	Could (2.0) I mean I don't mind but teacher they mind (.)=
17A	Ok (nodding))

6) TP2-SMC (2.25-3.40) A: Ann; S: Sofia; D: Dane

1D	((looking at Sofia's paper)) um: Sofia yours (.) was (.) I think (.) the only thing that let down (.) your whole essay was
2D	just your linguistics=
3S	=he: >my< linguistics hehehehe=
4D	Ye: Your gramma and staff like um I think it was difficult to read because (.) um a lot of your gramma was so
5D	required to replace (.) and um: just from that side of view it wasn't very good (.) but I think (.) I mean (.) I
6D	commented an engine (2.0) like everything was very good (.) like contents your arguments (.) so all of that which is
7D	main point of project which was good (.) it was very good (.)
8S	I just have to correct like the gramma=
9D	=You just like edditant (.) like very strictly (.) give er and like good English speaking person to read and ask them
10D	some advice and you could also (XXX)
11S	Ok (.) I will do

7)TP2-SMC (3.50-5.20) Ann:A, Sofia:S, Dane:D

1S	((looking at an evaluation sheet on Dane's paper)) um:: Dane (.) I really like yours Actually (.) um:: I don't think well
2S	(.) yeah >You don't have a title <((looking at Dane's face and smiling)) (2.0)
3D	°um::° ((looking at his paper and nodding))hi[.hhh°(I saw that)° ((smiling)) (5.0) YEAH: I saw that
4S	[HAHAhahaha .hh
5A	huhuhuhuhu.hhh
6S	SO (.) that's why I thought (.) HMM! (.) How do I start reading this without saying anything (2.0)
7S	((looking at Dane's paper)) but that's the only thing um:: Oh! (.) Yeah (.) some paragraphs don't have references
8D	°°Yeah (.) yeah (.) [yeah °°(.) °°(XXX)°°
9S	[so: I just er um:: when I think ur well and I just like think grammar things(.) and er:: like
10S	there's some Capital letters (.) where there shouldn't be ↑ (.) like =
11D	=°Yeah (.) Yeah °(.) I've been having a problem with lots of stuff with typing

8)TP3 (2.19-3.49) Samira:S, Paul:P, Jorja:J, Teacher Tania:T

1J	Right it was good (.) but the only thing is that You have to do the double spacing
2P	Double spacing but I think also paragraphs
3S	Paragraphing
4J	Yeah yeah but it
5P	Yeah yeah I know but I I think it will it will maybe look better if it you do the
6J	Yeah then we talk about it was
7S	Oh is it you talk about spacing

8P	Yeah
9S	Only
10P	But it's not a problem
11J	Yeah
12J	Yeah because for us it's but it's good be
13P	And also I saw here like store and in English it's shop
14S	What if it's the same?
15P	Hhehe
16J	Hehe
17P	Can you write sorry ((looking at his teacher)) Can you write like I know that's store is that is is shop but ur
18P	But do you mean American English
19P	But you don't told me you you cannot write it ur American words in English (.) is it alright?
20S	I said store instead of shop
21T	Um it's ok to use American English as long as you're consistent about it
22P	Cuz When I receiving for example my business assignment he said don't use it don't use it and change it
23S	Maybe business is different
24T	Maybe it was very specific because store has perhaps a slightly different meaning
25P	Mm maybe
26P	But I think it's good Idea also
27J	Mm
28S	And the thing is I wrote it before the plenary so
29P	Yeah
30J	Yeah yah I had the same problem
31P	I didn't know that Yeah I finished it before so I'm gonna work on it
32P	Yeah I I I mean also I mean don't know about xxx
33J	Yeah but it's good it's all very good

9)AP1-CC (7:04-8.21) S1: Ping S2: Son

The whole interaction length was 23.11 minutes.

1S1	In MY opinion (.) just MY opinion (.) YOU KNOW (.)
2S2	YES (.) I understand (.)
3S1	Ur:: The:: Ur:: Literature review I think (2.0) It is too :: too:: you know too many words in the literature review
4S2	<<Too many?>> (1.0) <<Too much?>> .hh (1.0)
5S1	TOO MANY words literature review (3.0) You can see that there may be ONE THOUSAND WORDS!
6S2	YES! BUT A ((teacher's name)) said um:: (2.0) Literature review must have one thousands (.) at least one thousand words
7S1	No I think (.) You just had literature review and I think I think the that should have there should have some
8S1	discussions of some research just research thing in the literature review =
9S2	=NO! in in you know in literature review.hh they just er explain er what are the relationship er what does er
10S2	you're talking about er what this project is talking about er you want to find er other definition er to explain (1.0)=
11S1	Yeah I know (.)
12S2	You know (.) literature review is that such like background (1.0) so that we must use er we must have one thousand
13S2	words (.)
14S1	Really? Er=
15S2	=YE::S!
16S1	Ow::Kay (2.0)
17S2	Ok (.)

10) AP 2 (7.25-8.17) kyong-hee:K, Zin:Z, Jinko:J

1K	So what you need to do is just find out yeah evidence
2Z	Yeah find out for evidence you said this back to ur xx
3K	I think there is there are many resources about
4Z	No not too much
5K	Not too much really?
6Z	Yes
7K	Jinko you got the structure so
8J	Yeah
9K	That's fine hm
10J	It will be included in literature review
11Z	Pardon?
12K	No I think it's research part what
13Z	No no it it is managed to read the part
14K	Really
15J	Really
16Z	Yeah
17K	It Maybe you should I think it's research
18Z	It it should be research it can also be research
19J	Oh comment

20K	Yeah yeah yeah I understand
21Z	But it doesn't matter in my literature review
22K	Yeah yeah yeah yeah yeah
23J	Hm
24K	Hm

11) AP3 (9.58-12.15) Dani:D , Ata: A, Zang:Z Niky:N

1N	Ok my difficulty is ur yeah like yours but I couldn't find Japanese law in English
2A	Japanese law
3D	Yeah yeah yeah yeah yeah yeah
4N	Yeah because
5D	Yeah
6N	I I I'm doing kind of politics things[so I need laws itself and I want to not tra I not my translation just maybe just translated
7D	[oh ho.hh
8Z	by some
9D	Yeah
10N	Authority government of something like that
11D	Yeah yeah yeah
12A	Isn't there any in translated version in Government website or something
13N	Ur maybe there are I still (.) now I couldn't find it but they should have it
14A	Yeah I think so
15N	So
16D	Mm hm hm hm
17N	um yeah not only law things other Japanese policy or something like that
18D	Yeah
19D	That's too domestic things right yeah
20Z	Yeah too domestic thing so I it it's difficult
21D	But how they do that I mean (.) for other student
22N	I don't know how
23D	You know master degrees
24N	Yeah
25D	How they manage it yeah I I really don't
26N	So they yeah there should be
27D	Yeah
28N	Should some of some
29D	Yeah
30N	English version or something like that
31D	So We should ask her anyway
32N	Yeah
33Z	You need to put it law in British rights you need to know to know Japanese group
34D	Yeah domestic things
35A	It It's law in in English England
36N	We we yeah we can't use I mean sources in um mo-mother language right or or or or should be in English or
37D	We suppose to find sources only in English
38N	English Yeah
39D	Yeah
40N	Mmhm ok
41D	But I'm not sure
42Z	Hm Hm really?
43D	Mmhm