

**UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES
IN AN ADULT ESL GRAMMAR CLASSROOM**

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University of Pittsburgh, 2017

This dissertation study focused on a feature of emergent interactions in the L2 classroom called unanticipated student utterances (USUs), which is defined as utterances spoken by the student that the teacher has not anticipated as part of the discussion at hand. The purpose of the study was to demonstrate why USUs are significant in the L2 classroom and worthy of attention by L2 researchers, teachers, and teacher educators.

There has been little investigation into the function of USUs in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom. The goal of the dissertation was to provide a detailed look at a study on USUs in a specific context—the ESL grammar classroom. Using Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and systemic functional linguistics (SFL), the study examined: teachers’ perceptions of and responses to USUs, students’ perceptions of USUs, and the function of teachers’ responses to USUs.

The study took place during the course of a semester in an American university’s intensive ESL program with ESL teachers and university-bound international students. Data collection for the study occurred in three phases: (1) a teacher questionnaire, (2) two classroom

observations, and (3) two case studies of teachers, which included video-based stimulated recall, informal teacher interviews, and student focus group interviews. Data analysis also occurred in three phases using video-based stimulated recall, general inductive analysis, and SFL analysis.

Findings suggested that the ESL teachers in the study had more positive perceptions of USUs than negative, and were receptive to responding to USUs in their classrooms. Additionally, findings from the two case studies of the teachers' classrooms provided insight into the types of teacher responses to USUs, and the function of the teachers' responses to USUs. Furthermore, the students reported mixed feelings about their classroom conversations around USUs, but discussed the importance of their teachers' responses to USUs. Implications for the study include: (1) the critical role of teacher responses to USUs, (2) the critical role of teacher education to prepare teachers to respond to USUs, and (3) the power of SFL analysis as an alternative approach for understanding teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom when USUs occur.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE.....	XIII
1.0 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 OPENING NARRATIVE	1
1.2 TOPIC AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	2
1.3 STATEMENT OF INTEREST	7
1.4 ORGANIZATION OF CHAPTERS.....	7
2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	10
2.1 A SOCIOCULTURAL PERSPECTIVE ON CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS	10
2.1.1 Mediation, regulation, and internalization.....	12
2.1.2 The zone of proximal development.	13
2.2 SCT AND L2 GRAMMAR.....	14
2.2.1 Collaborative learning.....	14
2.2.2 Dynamic assessment.....	16
2.3 A FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS	18
2.3.1 Systemic functional linguistics.	19
2.3.1.1 Halliday’s model of language.....	20
2.3.2 SFL classroom discourse analysis.....	23

2.3.3	Ideational meanings analysis.	26
2.3.3.1	Transitivity.	26
2.3.3.2	Ergativity.	27
2.3.4	Interpersonal meanings analysis.	28
2.3.4.1	Speech functions.....	29
2.3.4.2	Mood.....	30
2.3.4.3	Modality.	31
2.3.4.4	Appraisal system.	32
2.3.5	Textual meanings analysis.....	34
2.4	STUDIES ON UNANTICIPATED STUDENT LANGUAGE IN THE L2 CLASSROOM	37
2.5	CONCLUSION	41
3.0	METHODOLOGY.....	42
3.1	DESIGNING THE RESEARCH.....	42
3.2	SITE SELECTION.....	45
3.3	PARTICIPANT SELECTION	46
3.3.1	Case study participants and classroom observations.	47
3.3.1.1	Case study participant 1: Ms. Wells.....	48
3.3.1.2	Case study participant 2: Ms. Palani.	49
3.3.2	Questionnaire participants.....	50
3.3.3	Student participants.....	52
3.4	RESEARCH RELATIONSHIP	53
3.5	DATA COLLECTION.....	54

3.5.1	Preliminary classroom observations.	54
3.5.2	Teacher questionnaire.	55
3.5.3	Teacher case studies.....	56
3.5.4	Informal teacher interviews.	56
3.5.5	Student focus group interviews.....	57
3.6	DATA ANALYSIS.....	61
3.6.1	Quantitative data.	61
3.6.2	Qualitative data.....	61
3.6.2.1	Questionnaire analysis.....	61
3.6.2.2	Observational analysis.....	62
3.6.2.3	Video-based stimulated recall.	62
3.6.2.4	Systemic Functional Linguistic analysis.	63
3.6.2.5	General inductive analysis.....	66
3.7	VALIDITY	67
4.0	FINDINGS	69
4.1	RESEARCH QUESTION ONE: WHAT ARE ESL TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE ADULT L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?	69
4.1.1	Questionnaire findings.....	69
4.1.2	Case study findings.	72
4.1.2.1	Ms. Wells’ perceptions.....	72
4.1.2.2	Ms. Palani’s perceptions.....	75

4.2	RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: HOW DO ESL TEACHERS RESPOND TO UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?	77
4.2.1	Case study findings.	77
4.2.1.1	Ms. Wells' responses.	78
4.2.1.2	Ms. Palani's responses.	86
4.3	RESEARCH QUESTION THREE: WHAT ARE STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?	99
4.3.1	Basic B student focus group.	99
4.3.2	Advanced B student focus group.	103
4.4	RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR: WHAT IS THE FUNCTION OF ESL TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?	107
4.4.1	Ideational metafunction.	109
4.4.1.1	Ms. Wells' classroom conversations.	110
4.4.1.2	Ms. Palani's classroom conversations.	118
4.4.2	Interpersonal metafunction.	125
4.4.2.1	Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classroom conversations.	127
4.4.3	Textual metafunction.	133
4.4.3.1	Ms. Wells' classroom conversation.	136
4.4.3.2	Ms. Palani's classroom conversation.	141
4.4.4	Conclusion.	146

5.0	DISCUSSION	148
5.1	THE CRITICAL ROLE OF TEACHER RESPONSES TO USUS.....	149
5.2	THE CRITICAL ROLE OF TEACHER EDUCATION.....	153
5.3	THE POWER OF SFL ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM CONVERSATIONS	
	159	
5.4	FUTURE RESEARCH.....	162
5.5	CONCLUDING REMARKS	165
APPENDIX A	167
APPENDIX B	171
APPENDIX C	175
APPENDIX D	181
APPENDIX E	182
APPENDIX F	184
APPENDIX G	186
APPENDIX H	189
APPENDIX I	193
APPENDIX J	197
APPENDIX K	201
APPENDIX L	204
BIBLIOGRAPHY	209

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1. The Metafunctions	22
Table 2.2. Transitivity System	27
Table 2.3. Exchange of Information	29
Table 3.1. Methods Summary	44
Table 3.2. Summary of Qualifications of Case Study Teachers	48
Table 3.3. Demographic Information about ESL Teachers	51
Table 3.4. Data Collection Timetable	59
Table 3.4. Data Collection Timetable (continued).....	60
Table 4.1. Role of USUs in ESL Grammar Classroom	70
Table 4.2. Ms. Wells' Responses to USUs	78
Table 4.3. Ms. Palani's Responses to USUs.....	86
Table 4.4. Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's Responses to USUs	96
Table 4.5. Summary of Function of ESL Teacher Responses to USUs	108
Table 4.6. Comparison of Teacher-Student Turns and Teacher-Student Clauses	131

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Halliday's Model of Language.....	21
Figure 2.2. Example of Mood Analysis.....	30
Figure 2.3. Modality.....	32
Figure 2.4. Appraisal Theory.....	33
Figure 2.5. The System of Theme.....	35

PREFACE

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 OPENING NARRATIVE¹

Trust in the Unexpected—
By this—was William Kidd
Persuaded of the Buried Gold—
As One had testified—
Through this—the old Philosopher—
His Talismanic Stone
Discernéd—still withholden
To effort undivine—
'Twas this—allured Columbus—
When Genoa—withdrew
Before an Apparition
Baptized America—
The Same—afflicted Thomas—
When Deity assured

¹ Dickinson, E. (1862). 555. Retrieved, March 15, 2017 from <https://www.poemhunter.com/poem/trust-in-the-unexpected/>

'Twas better—the perceiving not—

Provided it believed—

I begin my dissertation with the concept of placing trust in the unexpected, a topic explored by Emily Dickinson in poem 555. For second language (L2) teachers, the classroom can be an unpredictable environment; yet, little consideration is given to the parts of the lesson for which a teacher cannot prepare. Little consideration is given to the unpredictable yet potentially important parts of the lesson that emerge from dynamic interactions with the students. In this dissertation, I ask L2 teachers and L2 teacher educators to place their trust in the critical role that the unexpected can play in the L2 classroom.

1.2 TOPIC AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Studies have demonstrated that the second language (L2) classroom is an emergent environment where classroom interactions cannot always be predicted. These studies have focused on unanticipated student responses (Boyd, 2012), spontaneous peer conversations (Brillanceau, 2005), unplanned teacher-student interactions (Cadorath & Harris, 1998), and unplanned moments in the L2 classroom (Bailey, 1996; Hall & Smotrova, 2013). I focused on a particular and related feature of the L2 classroom, which I called *unanticipated student utterances*². The purpose of my dissertation study was to demonstrate why unanticipated student utterances are

² While the main term in the study is “unanticipated”, the literature shows that a variety of terms have been used to mean “unanticipated”, such as “unplanned” and “unpredictable”.

significant in the L2 classroom and worthy of attention by L2 researchers, teachers, and teacher educators.

Before discussing the significance of unanticipated student utterances in the L2 grammar classroom, I first define these utterances. To begin with, the research literature has not clearly or directly defined unanticipated student utterances. One study defined unanticipated student *responses* as those utterances that divert the class from the planned topic and compel teachers to revise and realign their lesson plans (Boyd, 2012). Another study discussed how *unplanned* student *language* breaks the traditional and expected Initiation, Response, Evaluation/Feedback IRE/F pattern (Cadorath & Harris, 1998). From my research on the topic, these are the only two studies that have directly addressed this topic. From these studies and from my own understanding of unanticipated student utterances, I have come to define unanticipated student utterances as *utterances spoken by the student that the teacher has not anticipated as part of the discussion at hand* (see the classroom conversations in the appendices (Appendix G-L) for examples of unanticipated student utterances from the study).

With this understanding of the definition of unanticipated student utterances (USUs) for the study, the next issue to consider is why they are significant in the L2 classroom and worthy of investigation. First, USUs play an important role in students' own L2 learning. The two studies cited above on USUs in the L2 classroom have shown that unanticipated student language is a valuable asset to L2 language learning (Boyd, 2012; Cadorath & Harris, 1998). Boyd (2012) suggested that unanticipated student responses provide a space for "student negotiation and exploratory talk" that is crucial for the comprehension of content (p. 48).

Cadorath and Harris (1998) suggested unanticipated student utterances³ prompt unplanned teacher-student interactions that provide “genuine communicative opportunities” for the students to share their personal knowledge and experience in the L2 (p. 188). The connection of personal knowledge and experience to their use of the L2 is an essential aspect of L2 learning (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2012). In sum, these studies have documented the positive influence of USUs in the students’ learning of their L2.

The second reason that USUs are significant in the L2 classroom is the positive effect that they have on L2 teaching. Specifically, USUs have been documented to cause teachers to depart from their lesson plans and improvise in class (Bailey, 1996; Boyd, 2012; Cadorath & Harris, 1998). This departure from the planned lessons and improvisation is positive because educational researchers claim that good teaching involves both planning and improvising (Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986; van Lier, 1991). For such researchers, good teaching involves an “educational imagination” (Kliwer, Fitzgerald, Meyer-Mork, Hartman, English-Sand, & Raschke, 2004, p. 398), responsive creativity (Sawyer, 2004), improvisation (van Lier, 1991), and in-the-moment decision-making (Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986). Such terms as “educational imagination” and “responsive creativity” advocate for the idea that L2 teachers need to be able to depart from their lesson plans and improvise to be effective teachers in the classroom. Specifically, “effective classroom discussion is improvisational, because the flow of the class is unpredictable and emerges from the actions of all participants, both teachers and students” (Sawyer, 2004, p. 13). In other words, an effective teacher allows students to modify the flow of the lesson.

³ While Cadorath and Harris do not explicitly define the student’s response as an unanticipated student utterance, the student’s response matches the definition of an unanticipated student utterance stated in the introduction of this dissertation study.

One example reported by Boyd (2012) of an effective teacher is when the teacher realigned her lesson by responding contingently to her student's unanticipated response about confusing vocabulary in a poem. By departing from her lesson plan and responding to her student, the teacher and the student collaborated to make meaning of the vocabulary in a poem that the students claimed they did not understand. In this example, USUs positively affected both L2 teaching and L2 learning. First, the teacher was able to improvise and respond contingently to the student thereby enacting essential teaching skills. Second, L2 vocabulary learning occurred through a collaborative process in which the teacher and students co-constructed meaning in the context of the poem. While this study does not focus on L2 vocabulary learning, Boyd's study is relevant in its findings that USUs can have a positive effect on L2 learning if teacher responses are contingent and directly address student concerns. Therefore, it may be possible that such utterances may affect other aspects of L2 learning, such as L2 grammar learning, one focus of this study.

Lastly, as a catalyst for emergent instructional interactions between teachers and students, USUs are a critical yet unexplored aspect of teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom. As previously discussed, USUs do not facilitate L2 teaching and learning on their own. USUs provide a potential learning opportunity for students and an instructional opportunity for the teacher if responded to contingently. It is through the interactions between the teacher and the students caused by such utterances that L2 teaching and learning occurs. The importance of teacher-student interactions for L2 teaching and learning is supported by sociocultural theory (SCT) which places a focus on social interactions for L2 learning and development. From this perspective, teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom, specifically the teacher's verbal mediation during interaction, is consequential to L2 learning (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato

& Adair-Hauck, 1992; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). It is this ability to improvise the mediation that will set the stage for student learning. Indeed, the significance of USUs appears to be that they serve as a catalyst for emergent interactions between teachers and students in which all participants can thrive (Bailey, 1996; Sawyer, 2004).

While some researchers (Bailey, 1996; Boyd, 2012; Cadorath & Harris, 1998) have recognized that USUs are critical features of L2 language teaching and learning, few investigations into the function of USUs in the L2 classroom have been conducted (see Chapter Two for a review of the literature on this topic). The goal of my study was to provide a rigorous and detailed look at USUs in a specific context—the L2 grammar classroom. Through a comprehensive investigation, my study went beyond previous studies on USUs in several ways. First, while a detailed study on teachers' perceptions of and responses to unexpected student moments has been documented in the L2 English classroom (Bailey, 1996), an investigation into teachers' perceptions of and responses to USUs has not been conducted. This study went beyond the previous literature on the topic by analyzing the discourse and identifying the function of teachers' responses to USUs in the L2 classroom using systemic functional linguistics (SFL) analysis (see Chapters Two and Three for more details on SFL analysis). Second, no study has investigated students' perceptions about the phenomenon. Students' perceptions about USUs provided a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon in the L2 grammar classroom.

Lastly, this research provided implications for L2 teacher education by suggesting ways to prepare L2 teachers for the unanticipated in the L2 classroom. Although preparation for the unanticipated may seem paradoxical, L2 teacher education programs may benefit from examples from teacher education programs in K-12 science to prepare teachers to improvise in the classroom. According to Windschitl (2009), an extremely valuable teaching skill in science in

this century is “disciplined improvisation.” He describes “disciplined improvisation” as the ability of teachers “to adapt to where students are/need to go next” (p.10). Harlow (2009) argues that disciplined improvisation plays an important role in effective student engagement in scientific inquiry. Similarly, improvisation can play an important role in L2 teaching and learning by promoting student engagement in L2 learning (Boyd, 2012).

1.3 STATEMENT OF INTEREST

My interest in this study occurred as a result of my own experiences as an ESL teacher. In many cases, I observed that USUs led to rich collaborative discussions with my students. As I investigated USUs, I learned that other ESL teachers had similar experiences, which I examined from the following perspectives: (1) how frequently USUs occurred in their classrooms, (2) how teachers perceived USUs, (3) how teachers responded to USUs, and (4) how teacher and student interactions around USUs occurred in the ESL grammar classroom.

1.4 ORGANIZATION OF CHAPTERS

Following this introduction to the dissertation, Chapter Two focuses on the review of relevant literature for the study. The literature review is divided into five sections. The first two sections focus on a summary of Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (SCT) and applications of SCT to studies on L2 grammar instruction. The third section focuses on systemic functional linguistics (SFL), a complementary theory to SCT that has been used to analyze classroom discourse to

examine teacher-student interactions through multiple layers of analysis. The fourth section of the literature review focuses on studies of unanticipated student language in the classroom. Finally, the fifth section concludes the review of literature by arguing for how the literature supports and creates a space for the dissertation study. Briefly, while the first three sections provide the theoretical framework for the study, the fourth section illustrates the gaps evident in previous studies on unanticipated student language in the L2 classroom.

With the support of the literature, the study aimed to investigate the significance of USUs by answering the following questions:

RQ1: What are ESL teachers' perceptions of unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?

RQ2: How do ESL teachers respond to unanticipated student utterances in the L2 grammar classroom?

RQ3: What are students' perceptions of unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?

RQ4: What is the function of ESL teachers' responses to unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?

Chapter Three focuses on the methodology to answer the questions listed above. The study took place during the course of six weeks in an American university's ESL program in grammar classes. Data collection for the study occurred in three phases: (1) teacher questionnaires, (2) classroom observations, and (3) case studies of teachers. These case studies of the teachers included additional data collection: informal teacher interviews and student focus group interviews. Following the data collection timeline, data analysis also occurred in three phases using video-based stimulated recall during informal interviews with the teachers and

focus group interviews with the students, general inductive analysis, and SFL analysis of the classroom conversations of the case study teachers.

Chapter Four presents the findings from my study. The chapter is organized by each research question. The first question focuses on the findings about ESL teachers' perceptions of USUs from the questionnaire and the teacher case studies. The second question focuses on the findings about ESL teachers' responses to USUs from the teacher case studies. The third question focuses on the findings about students' perceptions of USUs from the focus groups interviews. Finally, the fourth question focuses on the findings about the function of ESL teachers' responses to USUs through SFL analysis of the classroom conversations.

Chapter Five discusses the implications of the findings from the study for L2 teachers, L2 teacher education, and classroom discourse analysis methods. The chapter also suggests future research related to the topic of USUs.

2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature review is divided into five sections: (1) Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (SCT) (2) SCT and L2 grammar, (3) systemic functional linguistics (SFL), (4) studies on unanticipated student language in the L2 classroom, and (5) conclusion. The goal of the literature review is threefold. First, sections one and two argue for SCT as the most appropriate theory of learning to explain social interactions in the L2 grammar classroom. Second, section three argues for SFL as a complementary theory of language and tool for analysis to SCT. Finally, section four reviews studies on unanticipated student language in the L2 classroom to make the case that a study on unanticipated student utterances in the L2 grammar classroom is necessary for L2 learning and teaching. The literature review concludes with an argument for the dissertation study leading into the research questions in the methodology section.

2.1 A SOCIOCULTURAL PERSPECTIVE ON CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS

In this section, I introduce Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (SCT) and describe the most important tenets of SCT in relation to L2 learning and development in general, namely mediation, regulation, internalization, and the zone of proximal development (ZPD). I then review studies that have used SCT in explaining the importance of social interactions in discussions around L2 grammar. Together, these two sections attempt to make the case for SCT

as the most useful theory in explaining social interactions in an L2 environment, specifically in the L2 grammar classroom.

The sociocultural perspective on L2 teaching and learning in general began to develop in the late 90s, mostly as a result of a social turn in the cognitively dominant field of second language acquisition (Block, 2001). Different from cognitive perspectives on L2 teaching and learning, SCT recognizes the importance of interactive learning through communication and collaboration with others. The sociocultural perspective has been highly influenced by the work of Soviet psychologist Lev Vygotsky, whose sociocultural theory (SCT) came out of his attempt to create “a truly unified theory of human mental functioning” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 202). Lantolf and Thorne explain that for Vygotsky, essential cognitive development occurred through an individual’s interactions in social and material worlds. More importantly, Vygotsky suggested that learning in a social environment occurs before development, and in fact, influences how development is shaped (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In other words, in social interactions, “people gain control of and reorganize their cognitive processes during mediation as knowledge is internalized” (Lightbrown & Spada, 2013, pp. 118-119). The manner in which people gain control and reorganize their cognitive activities is through cultural artifacts—the most important being language (Vygotsky, 1986). Vygotsky argued that, “Words and other signs are those means that direct our mental operations, control their course, and channel them toward the solution of the problem confronting us” (pp. 106-107); that is to say, cognitive development occurs through the mediated use of words. For Vygotsky, words serve a crucial function in development because thought and word cannot be separated; thus over time, words mediate a learner’s higher mental development. In sum, within social interactions, language serves as a mediational tool through which cognitive development can occur.

2.1.1 Mediation, regulation, and internalization.

Three important concepts for SCT are mediation, regulation, and internalization. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), mediation provides the means for an individual to gain control over and reshape his or her internal and external world through cultural artifacts – in L2 teaching and learning, the key cultural artifact would be language. Mediation can happen through regulation, which occurs in stages as the child or novice moves from object-regulation (i.e., the ability to use objects in one’s environment to regulate mental activity) to other-regulation (i.e., the ability to regulate mental activity with assistance from another) to finally, self-regulation (i.e., the ability to regulate one’s own mental activity with little or no assistance from another) (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). However, Lantolf and Frawley (1985) noted the importance of remembering that self-regulation is not necessarily a final and static condition, and that a learner may continue to move back and forth through the various stages of regulation depending on the context.

Self-regulation occurs through internalization, or “the process of making what was once external assistance a resource that is internally available to the individual” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 204). In accordance with Lantolf and Thorne, Wertsch (1985) wrote that for Vygotsky, internalization is a process in which the social or the external is transformed into the mental, or the internal. As applied to children’s psychology, Vygotsky (1978) argued that, “Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later on the individual level; first, *between* people (*interpsychological*), and then *inside* the child (*intrapsychological*)” (p. 57). That is, Vygotsky found that internalization, and its opposite, externalization, form a dialectic and bidirectional relationship that is mediated through cultural artifacts. Through this bidirectional relationship, cognitive development occurs, and in turn, self-regulation occurs. Thus, self-regulation emerges from internalization, and “[i]nternalization

emerges from mediation, specifically mediation through psychological tools, which fosters development” (Negueruela, 2008, p. 195).

2.1.2 The zone of proximal development.

Another concept that is necessary to understand SCT comprehensively is the zone of proximal development (ZPD), a concept central to Vygotsky’s claim that language functions as a tool to mediate higher mental development. According to Wertsch (1985), the ZPD came out of Vygotsky’s “effort to deal with two practical problems in educational psychology: the assessment of children’s intellectual abilities and the evaluation of instructional practices” (p. 67). The ZPD is one aspect of SCT that maintains that the higher level of a child or novice’s development is the “potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). For Vygotsky, development of a novice occurs through the interaction of an expert and a novice during which the expert mediates the development of the novice through tools such as language. That is, within the ZPD, novices are able to internalize the tools that they gain from interactions with experts, and therefore, the tools novices need for individual thinking are now available to them (Gibbons, 2006).

Having laid the groundwork for SCT, the next section reviews studies that examine the use of collaborative learning, between teacher and students, for L2 grammar; however, while the first section focuses on studies that utilize SCT in a variety of ways, the ensuing section reviews a more recent and specific development in SCT collaborative learning—dynamic assessment.

2.2 SCT AND L2 GRAMMAR

2.2.1 Collaborative learning.

In much of the recent research, SCT has been used to explain discursive interactions around L2 grammar, specifically collaboration between instructors and students (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992; Nassaji & Swain, 2000), and among peers (Dobao, 2012; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Especially pertinent here is the recent work that has focused on language as a semiotic, or meaning-making, tool to mediate L2 grammar learning and development.

To begin with, the SCT-influenced studies that focused on teacher-learner interactions found that L2 grammar development or learning can occur due to collaboration between instructors and students (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study investigated how discursive negotiation functioned in the context of three early-intermediate ESL adult learners being tutored in writing. Specifically, during the tutoring sessions, the researchers focused on learners' use of articles, tense marking, prepositions, and modal verbs. Using a regulatory scale that moved from more implicit to more explicit feedback, Aljaafreh and Lantolf examined the interactions between the tutor and tutees as they revised their essays together. Through their examinations of the interactions, Aljaafreh and Lantolf were able to measure the amount of other- versus self-regulation that the learners needed to revise their grammatical errors during each tutoring session. They found that if feedback in writing was negotiated between the teacher and the learner within the ZPD of the learner, the teacher feedback supported L2 grammar development and learning in ESL writing.

Continuing within the same framework, Donato and Adair-Hauck's (1992) study of formal grammar instruction in high school French classrooms suggested that social discourse—between the teacher and the learner—was fundamental to L2 grammar development. Donato and Adair-Hauck video-taped two teachers of L2 French as they taught a specific grammatical unit, the future, with one teacher using a monologic approach (i.e., teacher-led explanations of grammar) and the other using a dialogic approach (i.e., teacher-student co-constructed explanations of grammar). Using discourse analysis, Donato and Adair-Hauck found that a dialogic approach allowed teachers and learners to collaborate in making sense of the future in L2 French. Although there were no conclusions about whether or not the teacher's dialogic approach led to grammatical development, the study underlined the importance of collaboration in L2 grammar instruction for possible cognitive development.

Borrowing Aljaafreh and Lantolf's framework, Nassaji and Swain's (2000) case study of two Korean adult learners examined the effects of corrective feedback during tutorial sessions on the usage of articles (*a, an, the*) in L2 English. Drawing on the notion of mediation within the ZPD, the study focused on the effect of corrective feedback within the ZPD of the learner over four tutoring sessions. Consequently, during the study, one learner received corrective feedback within her ZPD through Aljaafreh and Lantolf's regulatory scale, while the other did not. During the final tutoring session, the students were tested for improvement in their usage of articles by completing cloze tests. Through qualitative and quantitative analyses, Nassaji and Swain found that the learner who received corrective feedback within her ZPD performed better on the final test on English articles than the learner who did not receive corrective feedback within her ZPD. Thus, this study provides further evidence for the importance of collaboration between a teacher and learner for L2 grammar learning.

2.2.2 Dynamic assessment.

In addition to the studies in the previous section, one recent example of a specific type of collaborative learning between teachers and learners in relation to L2 grammar has been dynamic assessment (DA). Like previous SCT approaches, studies of DA focus on the effectiveness of collaboration; however, DA places more emphasis on collaboration through proper mediation in the ZPD of the learners. As Lantolf and Thorne (2006) discuss, DA stems from the idea that “in the ZPD, instruction leads development” (p. 327). The concept of instruction leading development rests on the Vygotskian idea “that what one can do today with assistance is indicative of what one will be able to do independently in the future” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 210). That is, collaborative problem solving plays a key role in a learner’s ability to respond to assisted learning as it “provides an insight into the person’s future [emphasis in the original] development” (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004, p. 51). Thus, the primary focus on DA is to use diagnostic measures in a collaborative manner in order to mediate learner’s language learning and development.

Within DA, Lantolf and Poehner (2004) distinguish between two different types of DA: interventionist and interactionist. Interventionist DA is similar to more summative assessment in which the features of formal testing are present; however, the examiner is able to intervene and mediate the process in a scripted, or pre-determined, manner. On the other hand, interactionist DA is more similar to formative assessment, and the examiner is able to “abandon psychometric concerns in order to help learners realize their potential” (Poehner, 2008, p. 34). In simple terms, interactionist DA focuses more on the mediated process of learning than the assessment of the individuals’ mental capabilities. In this form of assessment, mediation is not scripted, and

“assistance emerges from the interaction between the examiner and the learner, and is therefore highly sensitive to the learner’s ZPD” (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004, p. 54).

In L2 studies focusing on a DA approach, DA was utilized by an expert (e.g., the teacher or mediator) to diagnose the learners’ ZPD, and through mediation facilitate L2 grammar learning and development within the ZPD (Davin, 2013; Lantolf & Poehner, 2011). In Davin’s (2013) study of L2 Spanish learners, lexical and grammatical errors that were formed in production of wh- questions were mediated through cumulative interventionist DA. In this study, Davin found that the teacher “was able to capitalize on each predictable lexical or grammatical error made by students to promote student understanding of wh- question formation” (p. 315). In another study, Lantolf and Poehner (2010) described how an L2 teacher of Spanish utilized interventionist DA in supporting her students’ understanding of the noun-adjective plural-plural concord in Spanish (e.g., *el perro negro, los perros negros*⁴). In this study, the teacher designed prompts that allowed her to mediate her students’ learning during her grammar instruction. Through a DA approach, the teacher gained an understanding of her students’ ZPDs and the type of assistance her students individually required for grammatical development⁵.

Having laid the groundwork for SCT and reviewed studies that examine the use of collaborative learning, between teacher and students, for L2 grammar learning, the ensuing section examines a complementary theory to SCT for the dissertation study—systemic functional linguistics (SFL). SFL and SCT provide two sides of the theory coin for social interactions around discussions of L2 grammar. SFL complements SCT in important ways; both perspectives focus on social interactions, language as a tool for meaning-making, and emphasize form and

⁴ *El perro negro* = the black dog; *los perros negros* = the black dogs

⁵ See Lantolf and Poehner (2004) for complete details of DA, as well as the work of Feuerstein, Rand, and Hoffman (1979). Also, see Lantolf and Poehner (2014), and Lantolf and Thorne (2006) for more details on DA studies.

meaning. However, whereas SCT is a theory of learning, SFL is a theory of language. In the same vein, while SCT can focus on social interactions and their effect on L2 learning and development, SFL can provide a systematic theory of language that explains how language functions in social contexts. In the next section, I first discuss SFL in general. Second, I discuss SFL as a tool for classroom discourse analysis. Then, I focus on the three metafunctions: the ideational, the interpersonal, and the textual, and the lexicogrammar resources available to analyze classroom discourse to interpret such meanings.

2.3 A FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS

For functionalists, language is “a complex mosaic of cognitive and social communicative activities closely integrated with the rest of human psychology” (Tomasello, 1998, p. ix). The functional perspective tends toward a more sociocultural understanding of L2 language learning and teaching. This is in contrast with popular cognitive perspectives on L2 language learning and teaching that have an underlying focus on the mental development of the learner and how input is processed by the learner (Gass, Mackey, & Pica, 1998; Leow, 2001; Van Patten, 1993; 2002; 2007). In particular, I focus on one specific theory that has recently attracted attention in L2 teaching and research: systemic functional linguistics (SFL).

In this section, I first give a brief overview of the main tenets of SFL, namely, Halliday’s model of language, and the metafunctions. Then, I discuss how SFL has been used for classroom discourse analysis in two specific studies. Next, I describe in detail three distinct types of SFL analysis that I will use in the dissertation study, the ideational meanings analysis, the interpersonal meanings analysis, and the textual meanings analysis.

2.3.1 Systemic functional linguistics.

In their *Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar*, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) describe how “[people] use language to make sense of [their] experience, and to carry out [their] interactions with other people” (p. 25). They state that language helps people understand their experiences in their worlds by providing them with tools to make meaning out of the symbols that they encounter in their everyday interactions with people, nature, and other physical objects. Additionally, in relation to the connection between language and society, systemic functional linguistics⁶ (SFL) argues that language is “as it is because of the functions in which it has evolved in the human species” (p. 31). In this manner, SFL understands language through an ecological perspective in which language consists a complex system that is always evolving due to its inextricable link to the social context.

Additionally, SFL aims to explain how language functions as a resource for making meaning. In SFL, meaning is made by the linguistic choices a person makes. In other words, in SFL, language is available to the learner as a wide set of possibilities and choices, and the learner can make decisions on how to use the language depending on the meaning he or she wants to convey. As Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) state, “[p]art of the task of a functional theory of grammar is to bring out this natural relationship between wording and meaning” (p. 27). That is, in SFL, as in SCT, language is a semiotic tool.

⁶ SFL is also known as systemic functional theory.

2.3.1.1 Halliday's model of language.

As seen in Figure 2.1, Halliday's model of language functions at three concentric levels. At the core of Halliday's model of language is the text, which in Halliday's terms refers to a unit of language in use, written or oral. As opposed to structural perspectives of text as syntactic formations (i.e., the organization of words and sentences) (Derewianka, 2001), SFL views text semantically (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). That is, text in SFL terms differs from a grammatical unit (based on form) because it is a semantic unit (based on meaning). As a semantic unit, text is closely tied with the social context, for it is from the social context that text derives meaning. Additionally, due to its close tie to the social context, text is more than a finished product (Yang, 2011). According to Halliday (2004), in SFL, text is seen "as an ongoing process of meaning" (p. 524). Because SFL understands language through a dialectic and systems perspective, text is a dynamic unit of language in use.

To reiterate and expand, text is closely tied with the social context. Consequently, text can be understood at two particular contextual levels: the context of culture and the context of the situation (Derewianka, 2001). First, it is important to understand where the text fits in within the cultural context. According to Gibbons (2015), on one level, the context of culture describes when "speakers within a culture share particular assumptions and expectations so that they are able to take for granted the ways in which things are done" (pp. 4-5). An example of context of culture can be a formal job interview. During a formal job interview, specific etiquette and language are expected. This leads to the context of situation, or "the particular occasion on which the language is being used" (Gibbons, 2015, p. 5). The context of situation describes how language is used within a particular situation (i.e., register) through the subject discussed, the roles and relationships of the interaction, and the role of language. These three contextual

features, formally known as field, tenor, and mode, provide a comprehensive understanding of the situated text through the combined analysis of context and language.

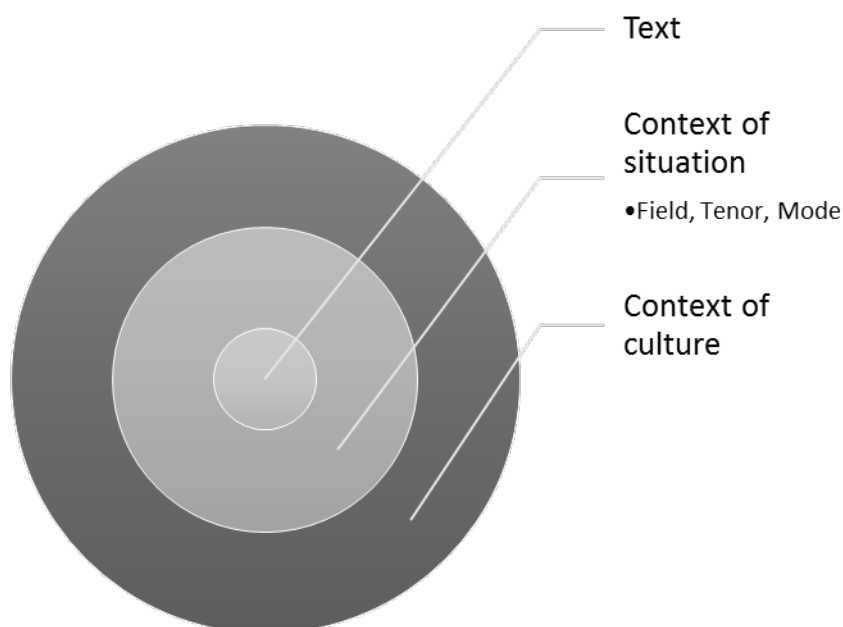


Figure 2.1. Halliday's Model of Language

Connected to the three contextual features are three metafunctions: (1) the ideational, (2) the interpersonal, and (3) the textual. The ideational metafunction focuses on what the text is about. The interpersonal metafunction focuses on the relationships existing in the text. The textual metafunction focuses on the organization of the text. These metafunctions are systemic clusters, or “a grouping of options organised fairly systematically with reference to generally recognisable semantic domains, i.e., linguistic meaning” (Hasan, 2014, p. 7). In other words, these metafunctions organize the patterns of language choices available to the user based on the

meaning potential of the language used. In simpler terms, metafunctions help to illustrate that “language use serves simultaneously to construct some aspect of experience, to negotiate relationship and to organize the language successfully so that it realizes a satisfactory message” (Christie, 2002, p. 11). To properly understand the meaning potential of the text, each metafunction is connected to lexicogrammatical resources that are used to analyze text. These resources and their connection to the metafunctions and contextual features of the text are summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. The Metafunctions

<u>Context of situation</u>	<u>Metafunction</u>	<u>Lexicogrammatical resources</u>
Field	Experiential meaning	Transitivity system Ergativity system
Tenor	Interpersonal meaning	Mood system Modality Appraisal system
Mode	Textual meaning	Theme system

These lexicogrammatical and discourse semantic resources include: (1) the Transitivity system for the experiential metafunction, (2) the Mood, Modality and Appraisal system for the interpersonal metafunction, and (3) Theme analysis for textual meaning.

2.3.2 SFL classroom discourse analysis.

With the potential for a deeper understanding of written or oral text, SFL serves as an appropriate analytical tool for understanding how teacher-student interactions function within the L2 classroom. Previous SCT studies on teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom have analyzed classroom discourse through discourse analysis (Davin, 2013; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992) and microgenetic analysis⁷ (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). Previous research on SFL as a theory of language for language and content-based instruction have demonstrated the benefits of using SFL during instruction (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteíza, 2007; Gebhard, Chen, Graham, & Gunawan, 2013; O'Hallaron, Palinscar, & Schleppegrell, 2015) However, there has not been much work that has utilized SFL classroom discourse analysis in the L2 context. In one study, Achugar (2009) examined teacher-student interactions in a bilingual creative-writing graduate course using tools from SFL. Another study looked at teacher-student interactions for students' development during content instruction in the L2 (Mohan & Beckett, 2001). For another example of SFL classroom discourse analysis of similar interactions, I discuss a study done on content instruction in the L1 (Sharpe, 2008).

Although Achugar (2009) did not use SFL analysis to uncover the importance of teacher-student interactions for students' development of language or content, her use of SFL as an analytical tool supports the argument of why SFL *can* serve as an appropriate analytical tool for understanding how teacher-student interactions function in an L2 context. Achugar used SFL as an analytical tool to examine how professional identities were constructed in teacher-student

⁷ Flynn, Pine and Lewis (2006) define the microgenetic approach as such: "The microgenetic approach examines change as it occurs, thus attempting to identify and explain its underlying mechanisms. It involves taking repeated measurements from the same participants over the course of transition in the domain of interest" (p. 152).

interactions in a bilingual context at a university. To understand how professional identities were constructed, Achugar's used interpersonal meanings analysis including Mood analysis, Modality analysis, and Appraisal Theory to analyze the semantic choices of the teacher and students in the classroom discourse. Achugar's detailed SFL analysis of the classroom discourse revealed that the participants' choices during the interactions "reveal their positioning in relation to knowledge of the topic, evaluate others as authorized voices in the community, and position themselves in relation to other members to align or distinguish themselves as members of the community" (p. 82). These findings had significant implications for the topic of identity in education, specifically understanding how one's professional-identity constantly shifts within a sociohistorical context.

Mohan and Beckett (2001) uncovered the importance of teacher-student interactions for students' language development during content instruction. Mohan and Beckett used SFL to analyze teacher-student interactions in a content-based ESL class in a Canadian university; their SFL analysis aimed to both demonstrate the functional grammar of causal structures, and "explore the nature of grammatical scaffolding" of causal explanations (p. 141). They showed that an SFL approach to analysis provided a more detailed understanding of the teacher-student interactions. Specifically, a lexicogrammar analysis of the discourse revealed that "recast sequences are important windows on processes of advanced language development" (p. 151). Additionally, the analysis reinforced the importance of the link between content and language in content-based language learning.

Sharpe (2008) also uncovered the importance of teacher-student interactions for students' development of content, but in an L1 history class. Sharpe's (2008) study of a high school history class in Australia used SFL for analyzing teacher talk. Using linguistic tools informed by SFL, Sharpe found that specific forms of teacher talk—repetition, recast, appropriation—were

effective in the students' development of content and skills for learning history. Specifically, these forms allowed the students to be more active participants in their learning process as these forms created a space for the teacher and students to co-construct knowledge of the content. These three examples of classroom discourse analysis through SFL demonstrate the utility of SFL in understanding teacher-student interactions in the classroom. Even more than another tool for classroom discourse analysis, "a functional perspective has potential to considerably increase the range and power of research on [content based language learning]" (Mohan & Beckett, 2001, p. 152).

With the understanding of previous uses of SFL analysis for classroom discourse, I now provide a more detailed description of the specific types of SFL analysis that are used in the dissertation study. Classroom discourse analysis through SFL can occur in multiple ways through the different lexicogrammar resources discussed previously (see section 2.3.1.1). To reiterate, the language system defined by Halliday realizes metafunctions: the ideational (what the text is about), interpersonal (the relationships constructed in the interactions), and textual (the organization of the text). To understand how these metafunctions are realized through language in depth, each metafunction is paired with a specific system of analysis (see Table 2.1). All of these metafunctions and systems of analysis are important for understanding the text as a whole (e.g., a speech event⁸ about L2 grammar).

⁸ Hymes (1972) defines a *speech event* in one sense as a conversation that has a beginning and an end.

2.3.3 Ideational meanings analysis.

The study focused on the ideational metafunction to understand “meanings about how we represent reality in language” (Eggins, 2013, p. 206). In other words, the ideational metafunction examines how language mediates the experience (Halliday & Mathiesson, 2014). Analysis of ideational meanings in the study was important to understand the function of USUs in mediating the experience within the L2 grammar classroom during the teaching of specific grammatical structures. The ideational metafunction, specifically the Transitivity system, provided a systematic approach to understanding the events within the experience of the L2 grammar classroom.

2.3.3.1 Transitivity.

The ideational metafunction is realized through specific linguistic choices that can be deciphered using the Transitivity system. Transitivity “provides the lexicogrammatical resources for construing a quantum of change in the flow of events as a figure—as a configuration of elements centred on a process” (Halliday & Matthiesson, 2014, p. 213). That is to say, that the experience is centered on the flow of events in the experience, also known as processes. As a system of process types, the Transitivity system provides a method of analyzing the different processes that occur in the text and how they change over time. Specifically, the Transitivity system is made up of six processes: (1) material, (2) mental, (3) verbal, (4) behavioral, (5) existential, and (6) relational. Additionally, as seen in Table 2.2, each process consists of different configurations of participant roles. Lastly, the Transitivity system would not be complete without the analysis of the circumstances surrounding the process.

Table 2.2. Transitivity System

<u>Process</u>		<u>Participant</u>
	Material	Actor, Goal, (Range, Beneficiary)
	Mental	Senser, Phenomenon
	Verbal	Sayer, Receiver, (Verbiage)
	Behavioral	Behaver, Behavior, (Phenomenon)
	Existential	Existent
Relational	Identifying	Token, Value
	Attributive	Carrier, Attribute

2.3.3.2 Ergativity.

The Ergativity system, as a complementary system to Transitivity, also explores how language functions as a representation of the experience. That is, like Transitivity, Ergativity focuses on the processes, but through another perspective. Ergativity answers the questions of, “Is the process brought about by that participant or by some other entity?” (Halliday & Matthiesson, 2014, p. 153). That is to say, in Ergativity, the focus is on who the agent is, and who or what causes a process to occur. In other words, is it a “doing” (Effective clauses) or a “happening” (Middle clauses)? Thus, Ergativity first analyzes the Medium, or the key participant in the process. Next, the Agent, or the participant who functions as an external cause, is pinpointed. Additionally, an Ergative analysis considers voice (Effective or Middle), the relationship

between the Agent and the process. For example, in the sentence, *I wrote the book*, the voice is Effective because agency exists. On the other hand, in the sentence, *The car needs a paint job*, the voice is Middle because there is no agency.

Using Transitivity and Ergativity to analyze the text in the study, I could identify the ways in which representational meanings were constructed in the conversation between the teacher and the students in the classroom around USUs. For example, the teacher may use mostly material and relational processes in interactions to create hypothetical situations in response to an USU that the students can respond to and remain engaged in the interaction. Another example can be a teacher's use of Effective clauses around USUs in which the teacher creates hypothetical situations related to USUs, and emphasizes key participants in such hypothetical situations.

2.3.4 Interpersonal meanings analysis.

The study focused on the interpersonal metafunction to understand the manner in which social roles were enacted in a text (Christie, 2005). Analysis of interpersonal meanings in the study was important to understand the function of USUs in the power dynamics and roles of the teacher and students in the L2 grammar classroom during the teaching of specific grammatical structures. Because of my interest in the power dynamics and roles of the teacher and students in the L2 grammar classroom, the interpersonal metafunction, specifically Mood analysis, Modality analysis, and Appraisal Theory, provided a systematic approach to understanding the social nature of the L2 grammar classroom.

2.3.4.1 Speech functions.

As a first step in Mood analysis, the speech functions in the text need to be analyzed. According to Halliday and Matthieson (2014), in the interpersonal metafunction, the focus of analysis is on the manner in which the interaction unfolds in the text. That is, the text is seen as an exchange co-constructed between the participants. Through this analysis, it is important to look at the role of the participants in the exchange, as well as the information that is exchanged. In SFL, speech functions in English focus on either the exchange of information or the exchange of goods and services. Since this particular study focused on the exchange of information (e.g., L2 grammar), and not goods and services, I do not delve into the details of how goods and services are exchanged.

Table 2.3. Exchange of Information

<u>Role in exchange</u>	<u>Commodity Exchanged</u>	<u>Initiation</u>	<u>Response</u>	
			Expected	Discretionary
Give	Information	Statement	Acknowledgement	Contradiction
Demand		Question	Answer	Disclaimer

According to Table 2.3, information can be exchanged by giving and demanding information in a variety of ways. Additionally, consideration should be given to whether the participant is initiating or responding in the text. The role of the participant as initiator or

responder is important because the role of the participant determines who gives or demand information, for it is the role of the initiator to give or demand information in the exchange.

2.3.4.2 Mood.

Once the speech functions are understood, one can further analyze the statements and questions in the exchange using Mood analysis. First, the Mood Block is identified. The mood of the clause is important for it reveals “the presence and configuration of certain ‘negotiable’ elements of clause structure” (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 74). The Mood Block is the Subject + the Finite of the clause. By identifying the Mood Block, one comes to understand the mood of the clause (e.g., imperative, declarative, interrogative). To identify the Subject of the Mood Block, a question tag (e.g., doesn’t he?) is used. The Finite is the part of the verbal group that carries tense, and carries the argument forward. The Finite includes positive and negative polarity. The rest of the clause is known as the Residue. Figure 2.2 provides an example of how to analyze using Mood.

i. **Declaratives** have the structure Subject ^ Finite. For example:

Tim and Nicole	were	drinking red wine with their meal.
Subject	Finite	Residue
Mood Block		

Figure 2.2. Example of Mood Analysis

(Droga & Humphrey, 2002, p. 62)

In an analysis of classroom interactions, Mood analysis can answer questions such as: Who is taking turns? Who initiates the turns? What happens during the turns? By answering such questions, Mood analysis accomplishes two tasks. First, Mood analysis helps to reveal the roles and positions of the participants. Second, Mood analysis reveals the power differences in the interaction. For example, in this study, Mood analysis revealed how USUs functioned to shift the power dynamic in the class, as students take a more active role during the lesson.

2.3.4.3 Modality.

For a further understanding of the roles and positions of the participants in the interaction, SFL examines text through modality. As Droga and Humphrey (2002) state, “modality refers to how speakers and writers take up a position, express an opinion or point of view or make a judgement” (p. 72). Briefly, modality refers to the various lexicogrammatical resources used to convey degrees of certainty and obligation, similar to what traditional grammar in which the speaker’s orientation to the message and positioning is conveyed through the use of modals (should, have to, must) or adverbial constructions of frequency and probability (usually, possibly). As Figure 2.3 demonstrates, in modality, participants in an interaction can take a stand through modulation or modalization. Modulation is used to express degrees of obligation or inclination. Modalization is used to express degrees of probability or usuality. Other aspects of modality that can be analyzed for understanding the speaker’s stance include the Modal Finite, Mood Adjunct, and interpersonal metaphor.

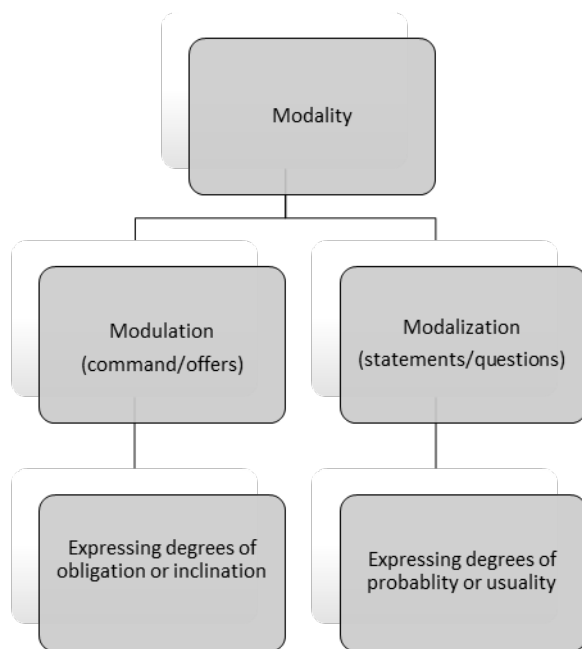


Figure 2.3. Modality

In an analysis of this study’s classroom interactions, one possibility with using Modality can be to examine the meaning behind the language the teacher uses to respond to USUs. Is the teacher’s language one of modalization? Does the teacher respond to the student’s utterance using questions and statements that suggest possibility? Does the teacher’s language in response to the USUs function to shift the power dynamic in the class because the teacher is uncertain in his or her response?

2.3.4.4 Appraisal system.

Appraisal Theory expands Halliday’s work on the interpersonal metafunction. As Figure 2.4 demonstrates, Appraisal Theory examines text in a different manner than Mood or modality. A relatively new theory, Appraisal analysis further parses a text on the interpersonal level by examining how “texts/speakers come to express, negotiate and naturalise particular inter-

subjective and ultimately ideological positions” (White, 2001, p. 1). These ideological positions are understood through subtypes of Appraisal: Attitude, Engagement, and Graduation. Through Attitude, one examines the “[v]alues by which speakers pass judgements and associate emotional/affectual responses with participants and processes” (p. 1). Through Engagement, one examines the manner in which participants engage with each other (e.g., monoglossic or heteroglossic engagement). Lastly, Graduation provides a look into “the interpersonal force which the speaker attaches to an utterance or in terms of the preciseness or sharpness of focus with which an item exemplifies a valeur relationship” (White, 2001, p. 7).

In an analysis of classroom interactions, using the Appraisal system can add more fine-grained meaning to the Mood and Modality analysis. For example, examining Engagement in the interaction may reveal the teacher’s use of interrogatives—both clauses and minor clauses, as well as tag questions such as “right?”, in addition to the use of modality. Additionally, the teacher’s use of interrogatives and modality opens up the discussion to the students, and suggests that a range of possible responses exists.

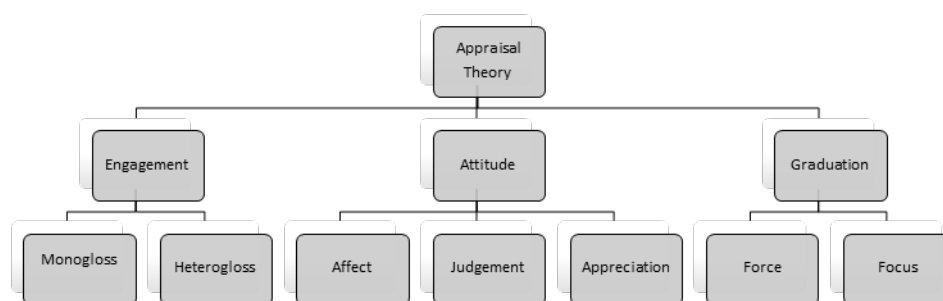


Figure 2.4. Appraisal Theory

2.3.5 Textual meanings analysis.

Lastly, the study focuses on the textual metafunction to understand the organization of the clause. As Eggins (2013) states, “this is the level of organization of the clause which enables the clause to be packaged in ways which make it effective given its purpose and its contexts” (p. 298). In analyzing the organization of the clause, the textual metafunction focuses on one particular system —Theme. As a system, Theme consists of two main features: Theme (the first part of the clause; point of departure for the clause) and Rheme (the rest of the clause). Although the Theme of the clause is identified in SFL to have the distinguished position of providing the most important information in the clause, the Rheme of the clause can also be of value. The Rheme of the clause provides new information in the text.

The Themes are then further divided into three types: topical, textual, and interpersonal. Topical Themes are the same participants, processes, and circumstances that were identified in ideational meanings analysis. Textual Themes can be conjunctions (e.g., but, so, and) or Continuity Adjuncts (e.g., well, oh,). Interpersonal Themes can be vocatives (e.g., Paul, Mary), a Finite in the interrogative Mood (e.g., do), and Polarity Adjuncts (e.g., yes, no). Each clause can have only one topical Theme, but multiple textual or interpersonal Themes. Once the Theme has been identified, everything in the clause after the topical Theme is the Rheme. Although the textual and interpersonal Themes play a role in the organization of the text, the topical Theme is considered to be the important information of the clause and the point of the departure for the clause.

Once the Themes and Rhemes are identified, the text is analyzed for Thematic development. Thematic development is the connection between the Theme and Rheme pairings in a text (Eggins, 1994). Thematic development illustrates the level of cohesion in the

conversations and provides an understanding of the flow the conversations in the classroom. Thematic development can occur in three main patterns: (1) Theme reiteration, or repeating the same Theme from clause to clause, (2) the zig-zag pattern, in which the Rheme of a clause becomes the Theme of the next clause, and (3) multiple Rheme pattern, in which the Rheme of one clause contains information that is manifold, creating the subsequent Themes in multiple new clauses that follow.

For the purpose of this study, utilizing the system of Theme, I could identify the organization of teacher-student interactions when USUs occurred. During such occurrences, I could: (1) identify the information that the teachers found to be important to provide to the students in response to the USUs and (2) to identify if there was cohesion in the manner in which the teachers provided the information.

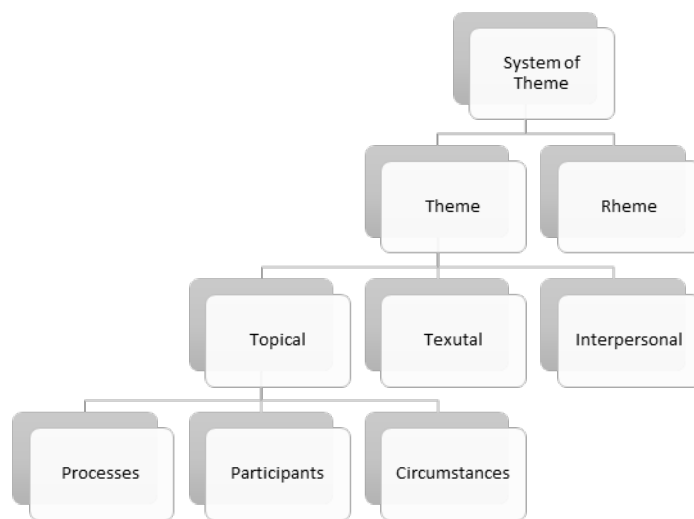


Figure 2.5. The System of Theme

Through lexicogrammatical and discourse semantic resources in the ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions, SFL analysis of teacher-student interactions can describe how the language used in the interactions to make three different types of meanings simultaneously (Eggins, 2013). Through an analysis of these three types of meanings, I examined the language used by the teacher to explore the function of teacher responses to USUs in the L2 grammar classroom.

The previous three sections argued for the use of two theories in the study: (1) sociocultural theory (SCT) and (2) systemic functional linguistics (SFL). Both theories provide explanatory power for the dissertation study. While as a theory of learning, SCT can explain the effect of social interactions on L2 learning and development, SFL, as a systematic theory of language, can explain how language functions in social contexts. Furthermore, while other SCT studies on teacher-interactions have analyzed classroom discourse through discourse analysis or microgenetic analysis, this was one of few studies to use SFL for a more fine-grained analysis of teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom.

The next section argues for the importance of this study in adding to limited yet necessary literature on unanticipated student language in the L2 grammar classroom. While previous studies on unanticipated student language in the L2 classroom have shed some light on the nature of unanticipated student language in the L2 classroom, I argue that this study provided an alternate perspective on unanticipated student language through the use of both SCT and SFL. Moreover, this dissertation study looked at a particular type of unanticipated student language, unanticipated student utterances, in more detail for a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon in the L2 grammar classroom.

2.4 STUDIES ON UNANTICIPATED STUDENT LANGUAGE IN THE L2 CLASSROOM

Studies on unanticipated language in the L2 classroom have shown that it is a valuable asset to language learning (Boyd, 2012; Brillanceau, 2005), building affective teacher-student relationships (Hall & Smotrova, 2013), and teacher training (Bailey, 1996; Cadorath & Harris, 1998). While all of these studies are important, for my dissertation study, I review the studies that examined unanticipated *student* language during teacher-student interactions in an L2 classroom (Boyd, 2012; Cadorath & Harris, 1998;). I first discuss these studies in detail. Then, I argue that my study provides a more rigorous and comprehensive look at a particular type of unanticipated student language (unanticipated student utterances) in a specific context (the L2 grammar classroom). Moreover, my study went beyond previous studies on unanticipated student language by investigating both teachers' and students' perceptions about the phenomenon.

Boyd's (2012) study in an English language learner (ELL) classroom examined how and why a teacher realigns her lesson in response to unanticipated student responses. Her research was conducted at an elementary school during 40 minutes of daily pull-out ELL instruction. The class consisted of six fourth and fifth graders. Her data for this particular study came from a larger six-week classroom study examining "student utterances which were 10 seconds or more of uninterrupted student talk" for indications of "cognitive thinking and language learning" (p. 32). Boyd coded such utterances as student critical turns. Her data consisted of field notes, audio- and video-taping of the lessons, transcriptions of classroom talk, and transcriptions of audiotapes of informal teacher interviews following the lessons.

For this particular study, Boyd focused on one 40 minute lesson because this particular lesson was different from the other lessons in that it had the least student critical turns. She was curious to find out more about why this lesson was different. Through microanalysis of classroom discourse, Boyd analyzed patterns of classroom talk, coding for types of teacher questions and dialogic teaching. In addition, Boyd analyzed the data for evidence of the teacher's lesson plan and student-led inquiry. Her findings demonstrated that the lesson was different because of unanticipated student responses. These unanticipated student responses diverted the class from the intended lesson because they revealed the students' confusion about the text. The goal of the lesson "was to compare and contrast the different ways whales can be viewed" in two poems (p. 35). However, the students were unable to meet that goal because they struggled to understand the language of the poems.

Nonetheless, Boyd commented that although the teacher did not meet the goals of her lesson plan and the lesson had the least student critical turns, the lesson was still successful. The success of the lesson was seen in the students' exploratory talk about the text and their ability to negotiate meaning as they struggled to understand the text. Additionally, the lesson was a success due to the teacher's contingent responses to the students' unanticipated responses. Boyd found that although the teacher departed from her lesson plan in response to unanticipated student responses, the teacher's ability to be flexible and make in-the-moment decisions created an environment for dialogic learning. This dialogic learning environment became a space in which L2 learning occurred. In sum, in this study, unanticipated student responses created a space for L2 learning, and the teacher's contingent responses to these utterances mediated L2 learning.

In another study, Cadorath and Harris' (1998) examined the advantages of unplanned teacher-student interactions for L2 learning and L2 teacher training. In their study, an unplanned teacher-student interaction was instigated by an unanticipated student utterance.⁹ That is, a student responded to the teacher with an answer that he was not anticipating during a discussion about their last vacation. To argue for the importance of unplanned teacher-student interactions, Cadorath and Harris briefly compared two different classroom transcripts: an L2 English class at a university in Mexico and an L2 English class at a preparatory high school in Mexico. Through discourse analysis, Cadorath and Harris found that unplanned teacher-student interactions are valuable for several reasons. First, unplanned interactions reflect authentic L2 language use. Second, unplanned interactions promote L2 learning through the students' use of spontaneous language to negotiate meaning in the interaction. Third, unplanned interactions create a space for discussions of topics relevant to the students' lives. These relevant topics can supplement more general topics found in course books. Additionally, they found that unplanned classroom interactions are valuable in understanding the importance of departing from the lesson plan through teacher improvisation. Cadorath and Harris stated that teachers are trained to plan activities; however, it is also important to make space for the unplanned in the classroom. Cadorath and Harris continued to say that unplanned language can be overlooked in the grand scheme of the L2 classroom; however, unplanned language is significant because it brings "more authentic linguistic and social life into our classrooms" (p. 194). To conclude, while the focus of this study was on the significance of unplanned teacher-student interactions, it is important to

⁹ While Cadorath and Harris do not explicitly define the student's response as an unanticipated student utterances, the student's response matches the definition of an unanticipated student utterance stated in the introduction of this dissertation study.

note that the unplanned interaction in the study was prompted by an unanticipated student utterance.

The two studies in this section provide valuable information about the importance of unanticipated student language in the L2 classroom. Both studies revealed that unanticipated student language creates a space for L2 learning. While Boyd's study demonstrated that unanticipated student responses instigated valuable student exploratory talk for L2 vocabulary learning, Cadorath and Harris demonstrated that unplanned teacher-student interactions created a space for practicing relevant and authentic L2 language. Furthermore, both studies discussed the significance of unanticipated student language for L2 teaching; namely, the importance of departing from the lesson plan and improvising.

Although the two studies revealed the importance of unanticipated student language in the L2 classroom, the studies also had weaknesses. Boyd's (2012) study was a detailed analysis of unanticipated student responses and how the teacher realigned her lesson in response to such utterances. However, the study's scope was limited, as it focused on one teacher's perceptions about the phenomenon during one single lesson. Additionally, Cadorath and Harris' study was not analyzed in any systematic way to provide the reader with clear evidence of themes and patterns that emerged in the text. Lastly, the study lacked rich data and only provided the reader with one example of unanticipated student language. The lack of rich data may imply that the phenomenon is unique to this one context, questioning its saliency to the field of L2 education.

2.5 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, unanticipated student utterances (USUs) are critical features of L2 language teaching and learning yet there has been little investigation into the important role USUs play in the L2 classroom. The goal of my dissertation study was to provide a more rigorous and detailed look at USUs in a specific context—the L2 grammar classroom. Through a comprehensive examination of USUs, this study builds a stronger argument for the important role that USUs play in the L2 classroom, as suggested in the literature.

This comprehensive study builds a stronger argument for the importance of unanticipated student utterances in several ways. First, the study is comprehensive by examining both teachers' perceptions of and responses to USUs, as well as students' perceptions about the phenomenon. Second, the study has a strong theoretical framework by using both SCT and SFL in explaining teacher-student interactions around USUs in the L2 grammar classroom. Lastly, while L2 researchers have argued for the importance of teacher improvisation in the L2 classroom (Van Lier, 1991; Walsh, 2006), no studies have specifically looked at the L2 contexts in which improvisation may be necessary. As previously stated, this research provides implications for L2 teacher education by suggesting ways to prepare L2 teachers for the unanticipated in the L2 classroom.

The following chapter discusses the methodology for a comprehensive study on USUs beginning with the design of the research and the research questions. Then, the chapter details the methods for site and participant selection, data collection, and data analysis.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 DESIGNING THE RESEARCH

As stated previously, the goal of my proposed study was to provide a rigorous and detailed look at unanticipated student utterances (USUs) in a specific context—the L2 grammar classroom. Through a comprehensive examination of the teachers’ beliefs, teachers’ practices, and students’ beliefs of USUs, this study built a strong argument for the function of USUs in the L2 grammar classroom. Thus, the study was designed to explore the answers to the following research questions:

RQ1: What are ESL teachers’ perceptions of unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?

RQ2: How do ESL teachers respond to unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?

RQ3: What are students’ perceptions of unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?

RQ4: What is the function of ESL teachers’ responses to unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?

Overall, the purpose of the four questions was to gain a comprehensive understanding of USUs in two ways. First, research questions one to three focused on an exploratory examination of the teachers' and students' beliefs around USUs. The first two questions provided a better understanding of a group of ESL teachers' beliefs about the phenomenon, as well as observed their practices in reaction to the phenomenon. By exploring these questions, I could determine whether or not teachers' believed USUs play an important role in the L2 grammar classroom. Additionally, I could determine whether or not the teachers' practices matched the teachers' beliefs. Question three provided a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon by examining the students' perception about USUs.

Second, the study hoped to provide a comprehensive understanding of USUs by examining the function of teachers' responses USUs in the L2 grammar classroom. Question four took into consideration the first three questions to identify the function of ESL teachers' responses to USUs; however, question four was not solely reliant on the teachers' and students' beliefs about the phenomenon. Through a focus analysis of the classroom interactions (e.g., SFL analysis), I could examine the function of teachers' responses to USUs in relation to the teaching and learning of a particular grammar point. By triangulating the exploratory belief systems about USUs and the focus analysis of the function of teachers' responses to USUs, the study provided an in-depth understanding of the significance of these utterances in the L2 grammar classroom.

I now turn to the next sections of the methodology, where I describe the site selection, participant selection, data collection plan, and data analysis plan, and issues with validity. A summary of the methods is provided in

Table 3.1. Methods Summary

(Modified from Sunderland (2010) as cited by Paltridge (2012))

<u>Research Question</u>	<u>Data Needed</u>	<u>Data Collection</u>	<u>Data Analysis</u>
RQ1: What are ESL teachers' perceptions of unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?	Occurrences of USUs Teachers' beliefs about USUs	Consent forms Teacher questionnaires	Questionnaire analysis (via Qualtrics and general inductive analysis)
RQ2: How do ESL teachers' respond to USUs in the adult L2 grammar classroom?	Occurrences of USUs Teachers' beliefs about USUs Teachers' responses in class	Consent forms Teacher questionnaires Preliminary class observations Case studies	Questionnaire analysis (via Qualtrics and general inductive analysis) Stimulated recall SFL analysis
RQ3: What are students' perceptions of USUs in the L2 grammar classroom?	Student beliefs' about USUs	Student focus group interviews Stimulated recall	General inductive analysis Stimulated recall

Table 3.1. Methods Summary (continued)

RQ4: What is the function of ESL teachers' responses to unanticipated student utterances in the adult L2 grammar classroom?	Teacher experience Teacher-student interactions Examples from the classroom	Preliminary classroom observations Student demographics Classroom observations Video-recording Informal teacher interviews Stimulated recall	Transcriptions of video-recordings General inductive analysis SFL analysis discourse Stimulated recall
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3.2 SITE SELECTION

In order to investigate the nature of USUs in the L2 grammar classroom, the research took place in an American university's intensive ESL program. This particular ESL program followed a set-up typical of most intensive English programs in the United States by offering courses in the four core skill areas (reading, writing, speaking, listening) with additional courses in essential skills such as grammar and note-taking (UCIEP website, n.d.). Students in such intensive programs are typically international university-bound students who complete 18 to 20 hours of coursework per week (ESL, university website, n.d.). The courses offered in the program range from beginning to advanced levels, and each course lasts an entire semester. Because the focus of the study was

interaction during grammar instruction, I attended the grammar classes at the site. The grammar classes met three days a week for 70 minutes per lesson. Investigating USUs in an academic content specific class, such as grammar, yielded interesting results in terms of the connection between these utterances and L2 grammar learning.

This particular ESL program was the ideal site for investigating USUs, a teacher's response to these utterances, and the function of these utterances in the grammar classroom because while the program provided a curriculum for the teachers to follow it also invited teacher creativity and flexibility. For each of the five levels of grammar, the program offered a set of topics or grammatical points that should be covered during the semester (see Appendix A and Appendix B), but time limits or specific ordering of course content were not required. This type of setting provided room for teacher flexibility and creativity, and thus, it may have been more conducive to a setting in which USUs occurred.

3.3 PARTICIPANT SELECTION

Participant selection occurred in three phases and coincided with data collection methods. Initially, I had proposed the order of the participant selection to be: questionnaire, preliminary observations, and case studies (including student focus group selection). However, several issues came up during the research study that changed the course of the study. First, the director of the program requested a role in the selection of the instructors. Second, I was limited to the teachers that were teaching grammar during that semester and to their availability. Some of the teachers were unable to participate because they had assistant teachers in the class that taught some of the lessons. Thus, participant selection occurred in the following way: (1) teacher selection for case

studies by the director and preliminary observations of the case study teachers, (2) teacher questionnaire, and (3) student focus group selection.

3.3.1 Case study participants and classroom observations.

With the assistance of the director of the program and the consent of the teachers, I was able to pinpoint two teachers available for the research study. I attended the teachers' classroom sessions one time to better understand their teaching styles and interactions with the students. I used the observations to pinpoint three criteria for selecting the teacher and his/her classroom as an appropriate setting for the study: (1) the teacher appeared knowledgeable about and comfortable with the content of the course, (2) the teacher's classroom practices encouraged student participation, and (3) the students in the classroom appeared comfortable to actively participate in discussions. These criteria were important for the selection of the case study participants for three reasons. First, experienced teachers have more knowledge of and practice with the content, and so they are more likely to improvise (Sawyer, 2004). Second, because teacher-student interactions were an essential feature of the study, the teacher's classroom practices must facilitate such interactions by encouraging student participation. Lastly, the students must play their role in the interaction by being active participants. Once I ensured that the two of the teachers made appropriate case study participants for observing USUs, I moved on to the next stage of data collection—an in-depth case study of each teacher.

Additionally, it is important to note that originally one of the purposes of teacher questionnaire was to pinpoint teachers for the case study. Having already selected and observed the teachers for the case study, I confirmed my choices by having teachers complete the questionnaire. Both teachers completed the survey and the results revealed, as seen in Table 3.2,

that they met the four criteria I wanted for my case study participants. Both teachers: (1) were experienced ESL teachers, (2) claimed that they experienced USUs multiple times within a class or at least once per class, (3) claimed that they responded to USUs occasionally, often, or always, and (4) claimed that they believed that USUs play a significant role in the ESL grammar classroom.

Table 3.2. Summary of Qualifications of Case Study Teachers

	<u>Ms. Wells (Teacher 1)</u>	<u>Ms. Palani (Teacher 2)</u>
Experience	23 years teaching; very confident teaching grammar; most experience with advanced grammar	12 years teaching; somewhat confident; most experience with basic grammar
# of USUs in class	2-3 USUs per class	2-3 USUs per class
Response to USUs	Most of the time	Most of the time
Role of USUs in class	Occasionally have a role	Often have a role

3.3.1.1 Case study participant 1: Ms. Wells.

Ms. Wells was the teacher for the Advanced Grammar B course this term. Ms. Wells had a Master's degree and had been teaching ESL for 23 years. She had taught all levels of grammar from beginner to beyond advanced. In her questionnaire, Ms. Wells wrote that she was very confident about teaching grammar at all levels, but she had the most experience teaching Advanced Grammar, the course that she was currently the instructor for. Ms. Wells reported on her questionnaire that USUs occurred two to three times each class session and that on average

she would respond to them most of the time. She wrote, “If the utterance has a teachable point to it that is relevant and useful for the students at the level, I will address it.” Additionally, Ms. Wells reported that she believed that USUs occasionally have a role in the L2 grammar classroom. She elaborated this point by writing, “Unanticipated student utterances show how students are interpreting information.” However, she also wrote, “Sometimes, the unanticipated student utterances are really off topic and I don’t address them.”

3.3.1.2 Case study participant 2: Ms. Palani.

Ms. Palani was the teacher for the Basic Grammar B course this term. Ms. Palani had a Master’s degree, a TEFL certificate, and had taught ESL for about 12 years. She had taught beginner to intermediate levels of grammar, and reported that she felt most competent teaching basic levels of grammar, such as the course she was teaching during the research study. Ms. Palani reported on her questionnaire that USUs occurred two to three times each class session and that on average she would respond to them most of the time unless “the unanticipated utterance is distracting significantly from instructional time”. Additionally, Ms. Palani reported that she believed that USUs often have a role in the L2 grammar classroom. She elaborated this point by writing, “[Unanticipated student utterances] are often opportunities to revisit a grammar point the students should know or deal with grammar issues the students may share.” Furthermore, she pointed out the significance of USUs from an instructional perspective by writing, “They also raise the teacher’s awareness of grammar problems [the teacher] may not have anticipated the students having, thus guiding and shaping [...] instruction”.

3.3.2 Questionnaire participants.

Having already decided on the teachers for the case studies, I still wanted to use the questionnaires to get a general understanding of the ESL programs' teachers' beliefs about USUs using the teacher questionnaire (see Appendix C). Therefore, I sent a questionnaire to all of the ESL teachers at the research site (including the two case study participants). During the term the research study took place, 32 ESL teachers taught in the program. I received responses from 63%, or 20 out of the 32 teachers in the program. While the sample, in general, may not be sufficient for making conclusions about the ESL teacher population, the sample size was sufficient for identifying teachers' perceptions about the saliency of USUs and their occurrences in the classroom. It is also important to note that not all 20 respondents answered all of the questions. In several portions of the questionnaire, only 15 respondents provided information.

The responses from the first half of the questionnaire provided demographic information, some of which are summarized in **Table 3.3**. As seen in **Table 3.3**, the participants were older, mostly female, with much experience teaching ESL (average 24 years). In addition, 90% of the teachers had Master's degrees related to the field of ESL. Thus, this information provided information to address the first qualification necessary for the case study, a teacher with experience teaching ESL. However, in addition to being experienced in teaching ESL, the teachers would also need to demonstrate a certain confidence in teaching grammar.

Table 3.3. Demographic Information about ESL Teachers

<u>Age of participants</u>	<u>Gender</u>	<u>Years teaching</u> <u>ESL/EFL</u>	<u>Qualifications</u>
34-70 (range)	4 male; 16 female	10-45 years (range); 24 years (average)	Certificate 35%; Master's 90%; Doctorate 15%

In terms of grammar teaching experience, 18 out of the 20 respondents (90%) claimed that they have taught grammar only classes. What's more, 90% of the respondents claimed that they were at least somewhat confident teaching grammar, with 75% claiming that they were confident or very confident teaching grammar. With these numbers, I deduced that the majority of the teachers felt confident with the materials that they taught and were perhaps more open to responding to USUs.

The next portion of the questionnaire provided information about teachers' experiences with USUs. This section provided information to address the second, third and fourth qualifications necessary for the case study. First, the data showed which teachers experienced USUs multiple times within a class or at least once per class. For several of these questions, only 15 teachers responded, including the two teachers that were selected with the assistance of the program director. 15 out of 15 (100%) of the teachers claimed that USUs had occurred in their classrooms with 10 out of 15 (67%) of teachers claiming that USUs occurred two to three times each class session and two out of 10 (13%) of teachers claiming that USUs occurred at least once per class.

Next, I needed to pinpoint whether or not the teachers responded to USUs occasionally, often, or always. 15 out of 15 (100%) of the teachers responded to USUs occasionally often, or always. Finally, the last qualification was whether or not the teachers' believed that USUs played a significant role in the ESL grammar classroom. Here again, 15 out of 15 (100%) of the teachers' reported that they believed that USUs occasionally, often, or always had a role in the ESL grammar classroom. The two teachers selected for the case study were part of these 15 respondents, who met all of the qualifications necessary to be part of the case study. Their information is summarized in Table 3.2 above.

3.3.3 Student participants.

The make-up and levels of the grammar classes for the case study depended on the teachers that I selected. The two classrooms (Basic B and Advanced B) that I chose to observe had international students who were studying English before they began undergraduate or graduate programs at an American university. In the Basic B class, there were 12 students (9 = F; 3 = M) with Arabic, Turkish, Vietnamese, and French as their L1s. In the Advanced B class, there were 13 students (6 = F; 7 = M) with Arabic and Chinese as their L1s.

For the student focus group interviews, I wanted six to eight students from each course that I observed for the case studies. To recruit the students for the focus groups, I came into their classrooms in person at the end of the classroom observations and teacher interviews, and spoke to the students in person. I explained the objective of the focus groups and their roles, and answered any questions that the students had. I passed out a sheet in which the students could write their information and availability if they were interested. For both classes, I was able to recruit four students. From the Basic B, I recruited four students (3 = F; 1 = M) three Arabic

speakers and one Vietnamese speaker. The group I recruited from the Advanced B course had a four student participants (3 = F; 1 = M) all Arabic speakers. I was able to conduct all the interviews in English. To ensure that the students understood my questions, I had typed up the questions and projected the questions for the students during the interview. I also gave them opportunities to ask me clarification questions and use translators on their phones. For the Basic B students, I also gave them the option of typing up their answers for the pre-video questions and sending them to me if they wanted more time to think about the questions.

3.4 RESEARCH RELATIONSHIP

Although I was the researcher in this study, I entered the study having a colleague-colleague relationship with many of the ESL teachers; this was due to my being a teacher at the research site. This colleague-colleague relationship gave me the advantage of collecting richer data due to an already trusting relationship between myself and the other teachers. Some disadvantages of having colleague-colleague relationships and having an insider role were issues of objectivity and role confusion (i.e., researcher versus member of community) (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). Because of my familiarity with the setting, it was difficult at times to remain objective. I attempted to remain as objective as possible by emphasizing my role as a researcher and not as a teacher. By emphasizing my role as a researcher, I mitigated issues of confidentiality and protected my relationships with my colleagues.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

As I mentioned previously (see Section 3.3), the order of the data collection changed due to unforeseen events. The data selection occurred in the following way: (1) preliminary observations of the case study teachers, (2) teacher questionnaire, (3) informal teacher interviews, and (4) student focus group selection.

3.5.1 Preliminary classroom observations.

The selection of two case study teachers occurred with collaboration with the director of the ESL program. Following the selection of the two case study teachers, I attended their classrooms for one observation to gain some insight on the teachers' classroom practices and classroom environment. Through classroom observations, I determined that the two teachers' classroom was the appropriate setting for the study. As I mentioned above, the participants that I wanted to observe would: (1) be experienced ESL teachers, (2) report on the questionnaire that they experience USUs multiple times within a class or at least once per class, (3) report that they respond to the USUs occasionally, often, or always, and (4) report that they believe that USUs play a significant role in the ESL grammar classroom. Moreover, I used the observations to pinpoint three additional criteria for selecting teachers and their classrooms as an appropriate setting for the study: (1) the teacher appeared knowledgeable about and comfortable with the content of the course, (2) the teacher's classroom practices encouraged student participation, and (3) the students in the classroom appeared comfortable to actively participate in discussions. Thus, by observing the teachers selected by the director, I determined that the two teachers' classrooms were the appropriate environments to study USUs.

3.5.2 Teacher questionnaire.

The questionnaire (see Appendix C) was initially planned as the first step in data collection for this study to pinpoint: (1) whether or not USUs occur in ESL grammar classrooms, (2) the frequency in which they occur, and (3) how teachers perceive and respond to these utterances. The results from the questionnaire were also supposed to provide information to help me select the case study teachers. However, since the director of the program assisted me in selecting the two case study teachers, I used the questionnaire to confirm her choices in addition to collecting data from the other ESL teachers. Due to time constraints, data collection for the questionnaire occurred simultaneously with data collection for the case study teachers.

I created a questionnaire on Qualtrics to gain insight into ESL teachers' perceptions of USUs in their L2 grammar classrooms. To receive an adequate amount of data, I sent out the questionnaire to all the ESL teachers in the university's program (32 teachers). A short description of the research project was posted with the questionnaire, as well as an informed consent form that was embedded in the survey.

As I mentioned above, the purpose of the questionnaire was to collect factual, behavioral, and attitudinal questions in the most efficient manner possible (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2009). The questionnaire (see Appendix C) contained a mix of both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative portions of the questionnaire provided demographic information about the teachers, as well as some quantifiable aspects of the research project (e.g., Likert scale, number of USUs). The qualitative portions (e.g., open-ended questions) of the questionnaire focused on getting more detail about the ESL teachers' perceptions of and responses to the phenomenon.

The questionnaire was created through a web-based service called Qualtrics, which allowed for survey creation, data collection and storage, response analysis, and the presentation

of results in a safe and secure system. Furthermore, Qualtrics was approved for use and recommended for use by the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB) because Qualtrics "meets University Data Security standards" (Qualtrics, university website, n.d.).

3.5.3 Teacher case studies.

As I mentioned previously (see Section 3.5.2), data collection for the questionnaire occurred simultaneously with data collection for the case study teachers. Thus, following the preliminary classroom observation of the two case study teachers selected by the director of the program, I began data collection in the teachers' classrooms. Through an interpretive case study, I hoped "to gain a thorough understanding of the phenomenon being studied" (Duff, 2014, p. 237), which in this case was USUs. I stayed in the classrooms for the length of one instructional unit. Through classroom observations and video-taping, I investigated how USUs emerged in the context of an L2 grammar classroom. An interpretative case study of USUs led to a more in-depth understanding of the nature of USUs with possibilities of future research (Duff, 2014).

3.5.4 Informal teacher interviews.

As part of the teacher case study, my data analysis (see section 3.6) occurred simultaneously with my data collection. Because I needed the teacher's insight to verify USUs in the classroom, informal interviews with the teachers occurred after data had been collected. The sequence of data collection for the case studies was as follows: (1) observed and video-taped the lesson, (2) viewed the lesson for moments of USUs and the teacher's responses to the utterances, and (3) used video-based stimulated recall to interview teachers to verify USUs and their responses to

the utterances. These interviews typically occurred one to two days after the class was video-taped. Using video-based stimulated recall to verify and analyze the data was supported in L2 research, especially for “detailed insight into teachers’ decision-making processes and the factors shaping these [processes]” (Borg, 2003, p. 96).

3.5.5 Student focus group interviews.

Additionally, for a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon in the L2 grammar classroom, I also investigated the students’ perceptions of USUs. Accordingly, once moments of USUs had been discussed with the teachers, and the USUs have been verified, I held student focus group interviews following the recommendations of Hatch (2002), and Vaughn, Schumm, and Sinagub (1996). Hatch (2002) describes several advantages of doing focus group interviews in an educational setting. First, since focus group interviews were focused on a specific topic, such as USUs, they provided rich data on the topic. Vaughn et al. (1996) extend Hatch’s argument by stating that group interviews result in rich data because individuals feel more comfortable expressing their opinions as they negotiate and co-constructed information together. Since ESL students participated in the interview in their L2, they felt more comfortable answering questions in a group with the support of their other classmates. Second, focus group interviews “can generate a lot of data in a relatively short period of time as compared to observations and individual interviews” (Hatch, 2002, p. 132). Lastly, Hatch states that focus group interviews are “useful as supplementary data” to triangulate other data sources such as classroom observation and individual interviews (p. 140).

For this study, the student focus group interviews occurred about three to four weeks after the classroom video-tapings took place, mainly due to scheduling issues. The student focus

group interviews consisted of four students who volunteered from each class. Due to time constraints, I met each group from each class one time. We met in the university library in a private room. Some refreshments and food were provided. These focus group interviews were audio-taped and not video-taped to ensure confidentiality, and to make the student more comfortable sharing information (Hatch, 2002).

During the student focus group interviews, I first gave a brief re-introduction to the study. Instructions for the small focus group interviews were also presented. The re-introduction and instructions were written and projected for the students in the room. Next, I began the interviews with some ice-breaker questions about how the students' generally felt about their teacher's methods and their grammar learning (see Student Focus Group Interview protocols Appendix E and F). Then, I used video-based stimulated recall to understand students' perceptions of USUs and their roles in the L2 grammar classroom. Stimulated recall was a useful methodological tool in L2 language research to help participants relive classroom moments (Gass & Mackey, 2000). According to Gass and Mackey (2000), reliving the moments with the participants allows the researcher to ask questions to gain a more detailed understanding of the participants' perceptions of a particular classroom phenomenon. Therefore, to understand the students' perception of USUs, the students in the focus groups were shown videos of instances of USUs and with guiding questions. These guiding questions helped to capture their perceptions about USUs in the L2 grammar classroom. A summary of the data collection methods is outlined in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Data Collection Timetable

<u>Week</u>	<u>Steps</u>	<u>Details</u>
Weeks 1-2: February 8 th -19 th 2017	Case study teacher selection Preliminary observations of case study teacher classes	Met with director about questionnaires and case study teacher selection. Director approved questionnaire and case study teachers. Met with case study teachers about study and received consent. Observed case study teachers classes. Introduced two classes to study. Prepared classes for video- taping of lessons.
Program midterm February 22 nd -26 th	Preparation for classroom observations	Prepared student consent forms and video cameras.
Spring Break February 29 th - March 5 th	Preparation for questionnaires	Prepared questionnaire email and teacher consent forms.

Table 3.5. Data Collection Timetable (continued)

Weeks 3-6:	Case study	Collected questionnaire
March 7 th - April 1 st	Informal teacher interviews	information.
	Questionnaire	Observed classes.
		Examined data.
		Conducted informal
		interviews with the teachers
		about the data.
		Coded data with insight
		from the teacher
		Scheduled student focus
		group interviews
Week 7:	Preparation for student focus	Continued to examine and
April 4 th -8 th	group interviews	code data
		Prepared student focus
		group interviews
Week 8:	Student focus group	Conducted interviews
April 11 th -15 th	interviews	

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

3.6.1 Quantitative data.

The questionnaire produced some quantitative data that was analyzed through Qualtrics. Most of the quantitative data was related to the demographics of the teachers and the students. Although the study was qualitative in nature, there was also some quantifiable data related to my research questions. For example, the teachers were asked if USUs occurred in their classes, how often USUs occurred in their classes, how often they responded to them on average, and what role USUs played in the L2 grammar classroom.

3.6.2 Qualitative data.

3.6.2.1 Questionnaire analysis.

To analyze the qualitative data from the questionnaire, I followed two steps suggested by Dornyei & Taguchi, 2009. First, I read through each respondent's answers and marked any key points that I found. Next, the key points from each respondent were categorized to form broader categories that related to my research questions. Three overarching themes emerged from the qualitative data analysis of the ESL teachers' questionnaire results: the positive role of USUs in L2 teaching, the important role of USUs in L2 learning, and the negative role of USUs in the L2 classroom. I discuss these themes in detail in Chapter Four.

3.6.2.2 Observational analysis.

For the analysis of the information from the preliminary classroom observations, I relied on my expertise as a teacher, as well as a review of my observations notes. Since the purpose of the observations was to pinpoint the teachers that I wanted to use in my case study, I did not do an in-depth analysis of the data.

3.6.2.3 Video-based stimulated recall.

To analyze the data from the case study portion of the study, I used two methods of analysis. First, I used video-based stimulated recall to understand the teacher's decision-making and beliefs about USUs in the L2 grammar classroom (Borg, 2003; see Gass & Mackey, 2000 for more detail). Additionally, stimulated recall was used to understand the students' perceptions of USUs during focus group interviews (see section 3.5.5). To gather rich and accurate data, stimulated recall in the study occurred soon after (i.e., one to two days) the data was collected and the stimulus was video (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Additionally, the stimulated recall was semi-structured to: (1) gather data focusing on the research questions (see Appendix D), and (2) provide participants with some freedom to provide other insights about the data.

In accordance with Gass and Mackey's suggestions and as mentioned in section 3.5, stimulated recall in the study occurred as follows. First, after observing and video-taping the classrooms, I watched the videos for instances of USUs based on my own insights. Next, I required the insight of the teacher to confirm my insights about the lesson. Therefore, the teacher and I re-watched portions of the lesson in which USUs occurred and had the teacher verify the USUs. Together, we also viewed the videos for instances where the teacher responded to the utterances or not, and we discussed the teacher's decisions to respond or ignore such utterances. Once the videos were analyzed with the teacher and USUs were identified, the videos were

transcribed. A similar procedure occurred in the student focus group interviews to understand the students' perceptions of USUs (See 3.5.5).

3.6.2.4 Systemic Functional Linguistic analysis.

The second type of analysis that was used in the study was systemic functional linguistics (SFL) analysis using the three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. As discussed in the literature review, research utilizing SFL to analyze discourse has uncovered the importance of understanding the teacher's discursive moves and patterns of language use for the students' educational goals (Mohan & Beckett, 2001; Sharpe, 2008). Originally, SFL analysis in this study was aimed at providing a fine-grained analysis of the function of USUs in the L2 grammar classroom by understanding how ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings were realized in the interactions between the teacher and the students. After the data was collected and analyzed thoroughly using SFL, what emerged was the importance of the teachers' responses to USUs. Therefore, the SFL analysis of the classroom conversations focused on teacher-student interactions, but mainly, the function of ESL teachers' responses to USUs.

First, the text was analyzed using ideational meanings analysis. As discussed in the review of literature, ideational meanings analysis is accomplished using the Transitivity and Ergativity systems. The ideational metafunction focuses on how the flow of experience is constructed, or in Halliday's (2014) terms, the 'goings-on' of the experience (p. 213). In this case, the ideational metafunction focused on the contents (participants, processes and circumstances) of the interactions and how the conversation around the USUs was constructed through these contents. To begin analysis using the Transitivity system, the text was divided into clauses (This division of clauses was used through all SFL analysis.). Then, the clauses were coded for participants, processes, and circumstances (see Table 2.2). Next, the types of processes

were tallied and written on a chart. By identifying and tallying the different processes, I identified the types of processes used most by the teachers in the interactions and how the flow of experience was constructed by the teachers' responses to the USUs. A similar procedure was carried out using the Ergativity system for a further parsing of the text on the ideational level.

Next, I analyzed the text focusing on the interpersonal metafunction, focusing on the manner in which social roles were enacted in a text (Christie, 2005). According to Halliday (2014), in the interpersonal metafunction, the focus of analysis is on the manner in which the interaction unfolds in the clause. That is, the clause is seen as an exchange. In this analysis, it was important to look at the role of the people (i.e., the teacher and students) in the exchange, as well as the information (i.e., conversation around USUs) that was exchanged.

In this study, Mood analysis occurred in three steps: (1) identifying the Mood of the clauses, (2) counting the number of turns, and (3) counting and noting speech functions. I began Mood analysis by focusing closely on the types of language the teacher and the students used to participate in the conversation around the USU. First, I divided the text into clauses. Second, the Mood Blocks (Subject +Finite) of the clauses were identified. The Mood Block helps to identify the mood of the clause (declarative, interrogative, or imperative) (Droga & Humphrey, 2002). The mood of the clause is important for it reveals "the presence and configuration of certain 'negotiable' elements of clause structure" (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 74). That is, the grammatical patterns of the conversation demonstrate the speech function of the information and the role the speaker takes in the conversation. After coding the Mood Blocks, I identified patterns in the classroom transcriptions.

Continuing with Mood analysis, I counted the numbers of turns taken by the teachers and the students. The frequency of turns in the conversation may provide information about the

dynamics of the classroom. Next, I counted and noted the frequencies of the types of speech functions that the teachers and students used (i.e., initiating or responding roles). By analyzing the speech functions utilized by teachers' and students', I was able to obtain linguistic evidence to support the social roles constructed in the interaction surrounding USUs.

Once the Mood Block was coded, patterns in the classroom transcriptions were identified. Such patterns were connected to the overall context of the L2 grammar classroom. A similar procedure was carried out using Modality and Appraisal Theory for a further parsing of the text on the interpersonal level. In sum, interpersonal meanings analysis, through Mood, Modality and Appraisal Theory, deciphered the meaning of USUs in relation to the interpersonal nature of the L2 grammar classroom.

Lastly, I analyzed the text using textual meanings analysis. The purpose of the textual meanings analysis in this study was twofold: (1) to identify the information that the teachers found to be important to provide to the students in response to the USUs and (2) to identify if there was cohesion in the manner in which the teachers provided this information. To identify the important information and the cohesion in the text, textual meanings analysis occurred in two steps: (1) coding for the Themes and Rhemes of the clauses, and (2) coding for the Thematic development in the conversations. First, the Themes and Rhemes in the classroom conversations were coded to identify the information that the teachers found important to provide the students. The Theme system in SFL consists of two main features: Theme and Rheme. The Theme of the clause is the first part of the clause, also known as the point of departure for the clause. The Rheme of the clause is the rest of the clause. Although the Theme of the clause is identified in SFL to have the distinguished position of providing the most important information in the clause,

the Rheme of the clause can also be of value. The Rheme of the clause provides new information in the text.

The Themes were then further divided into three types: (1) topical, (2) textual, and (3) interpersonal. Topical Themes are the same participants, processes, and circumstances that were identified in ideational meanings analysis. Textual Themes can be conjunctions (e.g., but, so, and) or Continuity Adjuncts (e.g., well, oh,). Interpersonal Themes can be vocatives (e.g., Paul, Mary), a Finite in the interrogative Mood (e.g., do), and Polarity Adjuncts (e.g., yes, no). Each clause can have only one topical Theme, but multiple textual or interpersonal Themes. Once the Theme has been identified, everything in the clause after the topical Theme is the Rheme.

Once the Themes and Rhemes were identified, I analyzed the text for Thematic development. Thematic development is the connection between the Theme and Rheme pairings in a text (Eggins, 1994). Thematic development illustrates the level of cohesion in the conversations and provides an understanding of the flow the conversations in the classroom. Thematic development can occur in three main patterns: (1) Theme reiteration, or repeating the same Theme from clause to clause, (2) the zig-zag pattern, in which the Rheme of a clause becomes the Theme of the next clause, and (3) multiple Rheme pattern, in which the Rheme of one clause contains information that is manifold, creating the subsequent Themes in multiple new clauses that follow.

3.6.2.5 General inductive analysis.

Furthermore, although my research was guided by specific questions, my understanding of the role that USUs played in the classroom and how teachers responded to them developed from the analysis of the raw data. In addition to SFL analysis, through general inductive analysis

(Thomas, 2006), I was able to code the data to identify key themes from the questionnaire, the classroom transcriptions, and the students' focus group interviews.

3.7 VALIDITY

To test the validity of my conclusions and to alleviate any possible threats to my conclusions, I followed advice suggested by Maxwell (1996) for my qualitative research specifically, triangulation of data and feedback. First, Maxwell (1996) suggests triangulation of data. By collecting data through various methods, questionnaire, interviews, classroom observations, video-tapes, and small focus group interviews, I attempted to mitigate any flaws in the data. Second, I utilized the expertise of my committee when analyzing my data to further counterbalance any biases or ungrounded theories that invalidate my conclusions.

Additionally, as suggested by Paltridge (2012), the validity of my research study was dependent on the truth behind the claims that I make. In this qualitative study, my observations and conclusions were limited to my particular context. In addition, it was not possible to make generalizations about adult ESL teachers from my sample size. Although the findings from the study cannot be generalized, the study contributed more empirical research for understanding the unanticipated nature of L2 classrooms.

While qualitative research lends itself to the collection of rich data, it was important as a qualitative researcher to reflect on my role and relationship in the project. In a qualitative study, I had to consider my subjectivity as I interpreted the context and reported on it. Therefore, it was of utmost importance for me to carefully document the research process, any concerns and issues

that arose, and any biases (Duff, 2014). Through careful documentation, I mitigated invalid conclusions and protected my relationships with my colleagues

The next chapter presents the findings from the study. The chapter is divided by the four research questions presented earlier in this chapter (see section 3.1).

4.0 FINDINGS

4.1 RESEARCH QUESTION ONE: WHAT ARE ESL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE ADULT L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?

4.1.1 Questionnaire findings.

To answer the first question, data was analyzed using Qualtrics. Here, the teachers were asked to rank the role of USUs in the grammar classroom and to further elaborate on their perceptions. As reported by the 19 ESL teachers and seen in **Table 4.1**, 19 out of 19 of the ESL teachers agreed that USUs play a role in the ESL grammar classroom. Of the 19 respondents, four reported that they always play a role, 12 reported that they often play a role, and three reported that they occasionally play a role. Interestingly, no teacher reported that USUs do not play a role in the ESL classroom. This favorable finding may hint at the importance of USUs in the ESL grammar classroom, a topic that is discussed in Chapter Five.

Table 4.1. Role of USUs in ESL Grammar Classroom

<u>Role of USUs</u>	<u># of teachers</u>	<u>% of teachers</u>
USUs do not play a role in the L2 grammar classroom.	0	0%
USUs rarely have a role in the L2 grammar classroom.	0	0%
USUs occasionally have a role in the L2 grammar classroom.	3	16%
USUs often have a role in the L2 grammar classroom.	12	63%
USUs always have a role in the L2 grammar classroom.	4	21%
Total	19	100%

To understand the specific type of role that ESL teachers perceived USUs to play in the classroom, the questionnaire was then analyzed through general inductive analysis. General inductive analysis of the questionnaire resulted in three prevalent themes in relation to the role that USUs play in the L2 grammar classroom: (1) the positive role that USUs play in L2 teaching, (2) the positive role that USUs play in L2 learning, and (3) the negative role of USUs in the L2 grammar classroom.

First, 14 of the 20 of the teachers discussed how USUs play a positive role in L2 teaching. One of several teachers reported that USUs are “a good teaching tool” because “they

are a relevant way to review and preview grammar points”. Other teachers stated that USUs provide “perfect teaching opportunities”, or that USUs are “gateways to ‘teachable moments’”. Additionally, USUs “raise the teacher's awareness of grammar problems that she may not have anticipated the students having, thus guiding and shaping her instruction”. What is more, other teachers discussed that USUs demonstrate “misunderstandings that students may have”. The awareness of the students’ misunderstandings provides the teacher with “a jumping off place to elaborate on a concept” and “to model to students” correct grammatical structures.

Second, nine out of 20 ESL teachers discussed the important role that USUs play in L2 learning. USUs provide the students opportunities to struggle “to incorporate new grammatical structures” as part of “the trial and error of the learning process”. While attempting to “interpret information”, students “better understand the grammar”. Furthermore, USUs “indicate the students’ understanding and comfort level of grammar”, or in other words, “the stage at which a student is presently. Their unplanned speech can reveal what they do when not in the context of a controlled exercise”. This particular perception of USUs as favorable for L2 learning may be an interesting point for further investigating the importance of USUs in students’ language development.

While the two previous themes focused on the teachers’ positive perceptions of USUs, not all teachers perceived USUs to play a positive role in the ESL grammar classroom. Four out of 20 ESL teachers discussed how USUs were not always productive in the classroom. One teacher stated that USUs were positive in general, but they could not “get out of control”. In accordance, other teachers gave examples of how USUs could “get out of control”. For example, one teacher stated that USUs could be “rabbit trails” that took the class off track. Another teacher reported that USUs could confuse students more than help them. Yet, another teacher reported

that “sometimes a student just wants attention and often says silly or funny things that are off topic”. Therefore, as a teacher you must “weigh the value of such instances to the overall class - not just to an individual student.”

In conclusion, the questionnaire yielded results supporting the idea that the majority of ESL teachers in this program perceived that USUs played a positive role in both L2 teaching and learning in an adult ESL grammar classroom. Nonetheless, some teachers discussed the negative role that USUs could also play if not managed properly. The implications of these generally positive perceptions of USUs in an adult ESL grammar classroom will be discussed further at the end of the case study results and in the next chapter. The next section delves further into ESL teachers’ perceptions of USUs with additional examples from the classroom.

4.1.2 Case study findings.

The case studies on the two teachers provided examples of USUs and more detailed explanations of individual teachers’ perceptions of USUs in the ESL grammar classroom. In the following two sections, each teacher’s perception of the USUs that occurred in their classrooms is described. Additionally, specific examples of USUs based on the themes that emerged from the interviews are provided. It should be noted that the themes that emerged from the interviews parallel those found in the questionnaire findings discussed above.

4.1.2.1 Ms. Wells’ perceptions.

During Ms. Wells’ four classes on noun clauses, I observed a total of 17 USUs. During interviews about the classes, I asked Ms. Wells about her perceptions of these USUs and the role that they played in her classes. In general, Ms. Wells’ responses aligned with the perceptions of

the 19 ESL teachers from the questionnaire that were summarized above in three overarching themes: the positive role of USUs for L2 teaching, the positive role of USUs for L2 learning, and the negative role of USUs. Lastly, Ms. Wells had a unique perception about USUs that is described under “other themes”.

First, Ms. Wells typically discussed how USUs played a positive role in L2 teaching in the classroom because they provided Ms. Wells with tools to review important grammar points. In one class, a student constructed a sentence using a noun clause, but one that included an adjective-preposition collocation (e.g., confused about). Here, Ms. Wells thought that it was important for the students to know these collocations, so she used the USU as an opportunity to review collocations. She commented that she “had anticipated them to know the collocations” at this level. Additionally, Ms. Wells thought that it was important for her students to have a tool to investigate collocations on their own in the future. Therefore, she reviewed how to use a corpus site with her students. In addition to the tool, Ms. Wells also decided to use this opportunity to review other common adjective-preposition collocations in English such as “interested in” and “excited about”. Thus, the USU provided Ms. Wells with an opportunity to teach the students something new (i.e., the corpus), as well as a tool to review other grammar points of interest (i.e., collocations).

Second, Ms. Wells typically discussed how USUs played a positive role L2 learning in the classroom because they provided students with opportunities to negotiate grammatical forms. For example, at the beginning of one class, Ms. Wells reviewed noun clauses with the students by spontaneously asking students about where the absent students were that day. A student uttered something unanticipated, “Maybe he is sleeping.” In response, Ms. Wells asked the student to say the response again using a noun clause. At first he struggled to respond using a

noun clause, but finally he replied, “I’m not sure where he is.” Here, Ms. Wells reported that the USU provided an opportunity for the student to correct himself and to provide the correct structure using a noun clause.

Although Ms. Wells generally perceived USUs to play a positive role in her grammar classroom, she also felt that sometimes USUs were not relevant or useful to the lesson. For example, during a review of homework, Ms. Wells was surprised that a student did not know the word “upstream”, but chose not to get into an extended conversation about it. Instead, she explain it quickly and moved on in order “to not disrupt the lesson”. Other times, Ms. Wells remarked about not being sure why a student said something. For example, a student asked about whether he could use “was” instead of “mean” in a sentence. She was not certain why the student would make that remark, and so she decided not provide an extended response to the USU. Instead, Ms. Wells quickly commented on the student’s error and moved on with reviewing the exercise.

Lastly, Ms. Wells perceived USUs to be important for another reason in addition to L2 teaching and learning. During another lesson on noun clauses, Ms. Wells had just started class, when a student stated, “I am like thirsty. I mean, I want to learn more.” During our interview, Ms. Wells felt that this USU was relevant because it was “a useful metaphor”. Moreover, Ms. Wells liked to encourage her students’ inquisitiveness. She explained that, “the students have personality too, so I let it flow. You don’t want to shut down the students.” Therefore, in addition to L2 teaching and learning, Ms. Wells felt that USUs provided an opportunity for students to display their personalities.

Ms. Wells’ perceptions of the role that USUs played in her classroom largely supported the general perception of the other ESL teachers in the program, namely that USUs provide the

students opportunities to display their grammar knowledge. This provides the teacher with an opportunity to formatively assess their grammar L2 learning. In addition, Ms. Wells believed that USUs could encourage students' inquisitiveness. On the other hand, Ms. Wells also believed that USUs were not always useful to the lesson and so they should not become the focus of the class.

4.1.2.2 Ms. Palani's perceptions.

During Ms. Palani's three classes on the present progressive, I observed a total of 25 USUs. Like Ms. Wells, I presented Ms. Palani with the USUs from her classes, interviewed her about her perceptions of the USUs from her class and the role that they played in her classes. Similar to Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani also perceived USUs both positively and negatively. Her perceptions also matched those of the other teachers and fell under similar themes of the positive role of USUs for L2 teaching and the negative role that they may play. Lastly, Ms. Palani also had a unique perception of USUs as a way to relate the grammar to the students' lives.

Ms. Palani reported that USUs could function as way to connect grammatical problems to future grammar lessons. She stated, "if a student makes an error that directly relates to something that they will be working on, I could use it as a segue into the next unit." For example, when a student provided a sentence that used the present simple form instead of the present progressive form, Ms. Palani utilized the USU to preview the next unit, which compared present simple versus present progressive.

Additionally, like Ms. Wells, she perceived USUs as being great tools for helping students negotiate form for better L2 learning. For example, during a review of a fill-in exercise from their grammar workbooks on the present simple versus the present progressive, students negotiated the correct form of the verb "have" to complete the sentence. Here, the USU occurred when a student gave the response of "I'm having". "I'm having" was not the correct answer

because “have” functioned as a stative verb in this situation, so Ms. Palani asked the students to think more about their response. Another student said, “I have.” Then, the students continued to negotiate between “I have” versus “I’m having” while Ms. Palani facilitated the discussion. Ms. Palani described this USU as relevant because it was a good point to elaborate on for their unit of study and for “the students to express their thinking process. Sometimes, it is dead on but sometimes it is not complete. Give the ball to the students...but let's direct it a little. As a teacher, it is important to guide and direct focus.” Meaning, the USU provided the students with the opportunity to discuss a confusing grammar point (e.g., active versus stative verbs), as well as a look into how students thought about and negotiated grammar.

On the other hand, similar to Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani did not think USUs were always useful to the lesson. In particular, Ms. Palani reported that if the students were not ready for the grammar point or if it was not the focus of the class, she did not want to spend too much time on the USU. For example, during a review exercise in class, a student uttered, “Sarah is a suitcase”. Ms. Palani had not anticipated this response, but she decided not to delve into it because “the class would have gotten sidetracked” and she “wanted to finish the exercise”. During another exercise, a student uttered a USU about using the gerund form (verb -ing) after certain verbs such as *enjoy* and *prefer*. However, Ms. Palani knew that the students had not formally been introduced to the topic of gerunds yet and that gerunds were not related to the topic of the lesson. Therefore, Ms. Palani acknowledged the student’s USU and continued with the lesson.

Lastly, Ms. Palani found that USUs could relate the grammar to the students’ lives. One student in particular, Monica, had strong opinions and feelings about the weather and Ms. Palani used a USU related to the verb *prefer* to connect the grammar to Monica’s opinion about the weather. When I asked Ms. Palani about how this connection was made, she told me that at one

point in the semester she had complained about the rain, but Monica liked rain. During the discussion of *prefer*, Ms. Palani remembered that Monica liked rain and it was a good opportunity to provide one last example to make it relevant to Monica's life.

Like Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani's perceptions of the role that USUs played in her classroom largely supported the general perceptions of the other ESL teachers in the program. Like the other teachers, Ms. Palani believed that USUs provided the students opportunities to display their struggle with and discuss grammatical structures for better L2 learning. In addition, Ms. Palani believed that USUs could connect the grammar to the student's own lives, a technique that made grammar more meaningful to the students. Conversely, like Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani also believed that USUs were not always useful to the lesson because they were not relevant for the grammar topic; therefore, it was also important to know the appropriate time to address them. The question of when teacher should respond to USUs is discussed in detail in Chapter Five.

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: HOW DO ESL TEACHERS RESPOND TO UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?

4.2.1 Case study findings.

To investigate *how* teachers respond to USUs, I observed and analyzed Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classes and interviewed them about their responses to USUs. As described in Chapter Three, directly after each class, I interviewed the teachers about their classes using video-based stimulated recall. During these interviews, the teachers verified that the student utterances were

indeed unanticipated and discussed their responses to the utterances. Additionally, the teachers discussed *why* they responded to the USUs in the manner that they did. In this section, I analyze Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's responses to USU separately and then conclude with a comparative analysis of both of these teachers.

4.2.1.1 Ms. Wells' responses.

As described under research question one, I observed 17 USUs in Ms. Wells' classes. Out of those 17 USUs, Ms. Wells responded to all 17 USUs, yet as seen in Table 4.2, these responses varied. These responses can be summarized by identifying six types of responses: (1) detailed explanation of the grammar by the teacher, (2) quick error correction by the teacher, (3) asked student to correct form, (4) replied with confusion but attempted to resolve the issue, (5) quick acknowledgement of the utterance, and (6) used USU as a teaching tool.

Table 4.2. Ms. Wells' Responses to USUs

<u>Type of Teacher Response</u>	<u>Number of USUs</u>
Detailed explanation of the grammar by the teacher	7
Quick error correction by the teacher	3
Asked student to correct form	2
Replied with confusion but attempted to resolve issue	2

Table 4.2. Ms. Wells' Responses to USUs (continued)

Quick acknowledgement of the utterance	2
Used USU as teaching tool	1
Total Response Types = 6	Total USUs = 17

The most prevalent response by Ms. Wells was a detailed explanation of the grammar forms related to USUs (described below). In the interviews, Ms. Wells discussed how for some USUs she responded with more elaborate explanations than she did for other USUs because she found that the USU was relevant for the topic of noun clauses or because Ms. Wells found the USU to be important for the students' L2 learning.

An example of an elaborate explanation occurred on the fifth day that I observed Ms. Wells' class on noun clauses.-The classroom conversation I focus on is the conversation between the teacher and the students around the USU, *When I arrived I felt confused *that the Americans spoke faster than I thought* (see Appendix H for full conversation). In this classroom conversation, the students had just finished a review of homework, which required them to write a paragraph about a misunderstanding they had encountered in the United States using the grammar topic of the unit, noun clauses. The task was for the students to exchange homework, and then to identify and underline the noun clauses in their classmates' paragraphs. During this exercise, the teacher asked students to give her examples from the homework for her to prepare for the class discussion that focused on reviewing noun clauses. The USU, *When I arrived I felt confused *that the Americans spoke faster than I thought*, was one example given by a student.

Excerpt 4.1

- 1 T: (*reading an example*) When I arrived I felt confused that the Americans¹⁰.
This—this one I’m not sure. Uh...
- S1: There is a missing word.
- T: Yes.
- 5 S1: Than I thought.
- T: Oh, [than
- S1: [Missing word.
- T: [Thank you. Sorry. That’s correct.
- S1: Yeah.
- 10 T: Confused. We don’t—I don’t think confused takes the noun clause very often. So,
if you look on—on this sheet. There’s—there’s some adjectives but *confused* is
not really one. What do we say [
S2: [Unbelievable.
- T: [with confused. Yeah. Unbelievable is a good one. What do we say
15 with confused? What if we just want a noun? I was confused? (*teacher cues
student*)
- S3: (*student offers an answer*) That.
- T: No. We don’t say, confused that. You know, what we say with confused?
- S3: (*student offers an answer*) With?
- 20 T: No? Anyone know? Okay. So—
- S3: (*student offers the same answer*) With?

¹⁰ The full sentence that the student gave in this one is “When I arrived I felt confused that the American people speak faster than I thought.” This is unique USU because the utterance was given to the teacher before the conversation, the teacher typed it, and reviewed it.

T: No no no... you know that you're not sure of—of something...this is what I would recommend (*teacher gives advice to students for they unsure about a collocation*)... COCA American Corpus? This website? Go to COCA American
25 Corpus. Type in the word. (*typing*) Ooops sorry. That's the answer. (*deleting answer*) You type in a word. (*typing*) This will give you 12,000 sentences with 'confused' in it. So, let's look at these sentences (*scrolling through sentences on computer and this is projected for the students to see*).

In this conversation, first, Ms. Wells attempted to have the student's self-correct by asking "What do we say with confused? What if we just want a noun? I was confused? (Ex. 4.1, line 15)?" However, the students had trouble producing the correct response. Therefore, Ms. Wells decided to provide an elaborate explanation about collocations and how to use a corpus tool to understand how collocations function in English. Again, in our interviews, Ms. Wells discussed that her response to the USU was to elaborate on the topic of collocations because she perceived collocations to be an important aspect of English for the students to know and understand.

This particular USU also fit under another category of response, USU as a teaching tool. After Ms. Wells discussed how to use the corpus tool, she used the USU as an opportunity to test students on their knowledge of other collocations such as "interested in" and "confused about" as seen in Excerpt 4.2 below.

Excerpt 4.2

1 T: So, if you—if you have a question, maybe you can always do collocations or you can do the COCA American Corpus. Those are good strategies, especially with

verbs plus prepositions, right? Because those are confusing. How about interested? I am interested? (*cueing students*)

5 S3: In.

T: In, right. Or I can't think of some good ones. Students are always—Or excited. I'm excited? (*cueing students*)

S4: With.

S3: To.

10 T: You can say to. To do something. You can use an infinitive. What about a preposition? He's excited? (*cueing students*)

S6: About.

T: About. Right. But if you have a question do collocations or do COCA American Corpus, okay?

Again, during our interview, Ms. Wells justified why she responded to the USU by using it as a teaching tool. Ms. Wells discussed that she felt this USU situation was a good opportunity to review these particular collocations, “interested in” and “excited about” because they were frequently used in English, and therefore, important for the students to know.

The second most prevalent response by Ms. Wells was to respond with quick error correction of the vocabulary or grammar. Excerpt 4.3 was an example of this type of response. In this is excerpt, the USU occurred when the student stated that he did not know what the word *upstream* meant.

Excerpt 4.3

1 T: But we're not asking a question. It's the noun clause. So, it's going to be the

question word (*writing on the board*) plus the subject plus the verb.

S1: The verb is *is*.

T1: No, the verb is not *is*. You have to look at the previous one.

5 S1: Why some?

T: What do fish do?

S2: Was

S1: Upstream

S3: Swim

(*Ms. Wells is writing the answer on the board.*)

10 T: Is *is* the verb? I didn't—(*looks in book*) Yeah. It's obvious.

S1: Obvious. I don't know what is *upstream*.

T: (*laughs*) *Upstream* is up. Against the current. So, the river is going this way. The fish is going this way, right?

S1: I think-I think *upstream* is the verb.

15 T: Ah! You thought that was the verb. No, It's got to be swim. Look at the example, right? (*referring to the book exercise*) Why do some fish swim upstream? Mmm. Why some fish swim upstream? It's obvious. So, you take out the *do*, right? It's present tense. That's why we're practicing this. Okay.

Here, the USU occurred when the student asked about the word *upstream* (Ex 4.3, line 11). Ms. Wells had not anticipated this question because she assumed that her students would look up vocabulary words in homework assignments that they did not know. In response to this USU, Ms. Wells quickly defined the word *upstream* and moved on. During our interview, Ms.

Wells discussed that her reasoning for this move was because she did not want to disrupt the class and it was clear to her that the student had not completed the homework.

Ms. Wells' next response to a USU was to ask a student to self-correct, or to have another student peer-correct as seen in the excerpt below. In this excerpt, Ms. Wells reviewed responses from a homework assignment on reported speech with the class. The USU occurred when a student provided an answer "How was it going today?"

Excerpt 4.4

- 1 S1: How—how about she asked me, "How was it going today?"
- T: Okay. She asked me, "How was it going today?" (*typing on the computer to project for the students to see*). Is this what she said, how's it going today?
- S1: Yes.
- 5 T: Okay. Then it (*referring to the S1's example*) has to be in quotation marks. Alright?
- S1: But-but-but you said to write *****
- S2: Reported speech
- T: Yeah. This is—we—this is direct speech.
- 10 S1: Yeah
- T: Direct. Not reported
- S2: *****
- T: Right right. Reported. That means you're telling me what someone said but not in quotation marks. So, Mike, how could we make this reported speech? (*cues student*)
- 15 S3: She asked me...how...it was[

T: Right.

S3: [going that day.

T: Yeah yeah. You can use that day because it's not today, right? It's in the past. She
20 asked me how it was going that day. So, you have to change the tense and you
have to change the today. Can't be today, right? It has to be that day.

In our interview, Ms. Wells stated that she was not sure why the mistake, the unanticipated use of direct speech, happened. Based on her experience, Ms. Wells speculated that perhaps the student did not understand what the term *reported speech* meant. As Ms. Wells discussed, students tended to confuse the terms *direct* and *indirect speech*. Furthermore, she had S3 make the correction because she wanted to “keep the students on their toes and not just give them the answer all the time”.

The last two ways by which Ms. Wells responded to USUs were: (1) to reply with confusion but attempt to resolve issue and (2) to quickly acknowledge the USU and continue with the lesson. Ms. Wells replying with confusion was a unique situation in which Ms. Wells and the students miscommunicated. For one class, the students had to write questions to ask their classmates. Then, their classmates would report the questions using reported speech as a way of practicing noun clauses. When Ms. Wells asked for an example homework question from the class, a student named Hannah, responded with questions about a particular student, Mike. For example, “Who turned off Mike’s computer?” and “Who lives with Mike”? At first, Ms. Wells was confused by why Hannah provided these questions. Ms. Wells was not sure why Hannah was referring to a random person named Mike. Then, she realized that Hannah was incorrectly referring to another student in the class by calling him Mike instead of Matt. So, Ms. Wells

explained to Hannah that the homework questions should refer to a general audience and not to one particular student.

Finally, Ms. Wells would quickly acknowledge the USU and continue with the lesson. In these situations, Ms. Wells discussed that it was typically the end of class and she wanted to finish what she had planned for the day. This begs the question of when teachers respond to USUs, a point discussed in Chapter Five.

4.2.1.2 Ms. Palani's responses.

I observed Ms. Palani's Basic B grammar class a total of four times during which Ms. Palani focused on teaching the present progressive. Like Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani's responses to USUs also varied; however, unlike Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani did not always respond to USUs. Out of the 25 USUs I observed, Ms. Palani responded to 20 out of the 25 USUs. As seen in Table 4.3, the 19 responses that Ms. Palani provided also varied in six response types.

Table 4.3. Ms. Palani's Responses to USUs

<u>Type of teacher response</u>	<u>Number of USUs</u>
Detailed explanation of the grammar by the teacher	7
Quick acknowledgement of the utterance	6
No response	5
Asked student to correct form	4
Used USU as teaching tool	2
Quick error correction by the teacher	1

Table 4.3. Ms. Palani's Responses to USUs (continued)

Total Responses Types = 6

Total USUs = 25

Like Ms. Wells, the most prevalent response type for Ms. Palani was to elaborate on the USU. For example, for one class, the students had to write questions using the present progressive form about a passage they read. During the review of these questions, a student provided a question that was not in the present progressive, "What is Sarah like?" (see Appendix J for full conversation) Ms. Palani decided to elaborate on the student's response, as seen in the excerpt below.

Excerpt 4.5

- 1 S1: What is Sarah like?
 T: What?
- S: What is Sarah like?
- T: What is Sarah like? What is that—when you say what is Sarah like? What is the
 5 meaning of that?
- S2: *****
- T: Hold on, I want to ask it. What is the meaning of that? If you say, what is Sarah
 like?
- S3: What do [
 10 S1: [Only thing. She likes.
 S3: [What does Sarah like?
- T: Okay. Okay. So, you're asking. What does she like?
- S1: Yes.

Here, Ms. Palani's first move was to clarify the question that the student was asking, "What is Sarah like?" (Ex 4.5, line 4). Ms. Palani wanted to clarify the student's question because she discussed in our interviews that the students tended to have trouble with the auxiliary verbs "be" and "do". Next, as seen below, Ms. Palani decided to clarify the meaning of the question, "What is Sarah like?" and how it was different from the question, "What does Sarah like?"

Excerpt 4.6

- 1 T: Okay. If you say what is Sarah like? And especially, in sort of informal spoken English. If—if—for example, if, okay, imagine next semester, right? People—you're going to be registering for classes for next semester and someone asks you, another student, it's like, "Oh, you had Ms. Smith. What is she like?" That means,
- 5 describe me.
- S4: The feeling?
- T: Yeah. Like your feeling about me. What is she like? What does she do? What does she—how does she teach? Like description about [
- S1: [Yes.
- 10 T: [Me. So, when you say, what is Sarah like? That's the meaning. The meaning is different.
- S1: Meaning she like all thing?
- T: If you—Okay. I'm sorry so repeat that again.
- S1: If I say, she, what is Sarah like? That mean all all thing—
- 15 T: It means [
- S1: [not

T: [Describe to me
 S1: [Yes.
 T: [About Sarah.
 20 S: Yes.
 T: Okay. But what you are saying is, what does Sarah like? Meaning what are the things that Sarah likes.
 S1: Mm hm

Once Ms. Palani had clarified that the student wanted to ask the question, “What does Sarah like?”, she made a decision to use this USU situation to compare present simple and present progressive verbs.

Excerpt 4.7

1 T: Okay? And you use this. No. You know what? That’s actually a good example to use here now (*erasing the board*) because our next unit is going to be about the difference when do we use simple present and when do we use present continuous and sometimes there are certain—there are certain verbs that we do not use the –
 5 ing form, okay? And so *like* is one of those. *Like* is one of those verbs.
 S3: Like?
 T: Like. For example, you could say, you could say, what does (*writing on the board*)
 S3: She like.
 T: Sarah like? Okay. And in this question you are asking, right? In general about

- 10 Sarah, what are some of the things that she likes. Right? She likes going to the movies. She likes to travel, right? So, this is the question. Can you say, what is Sarah liking? (*writing on the board*)
- S3: No. Not not you can like.
- S5: No. no.
- ...
- 15 T: Yes, because you cannot use this verb *like*.
- S5: With actions
- T: Exactly. Right? So, there are certain verbs that you do not take the present continuous tense. Okay? And this is one of those. We're going to get to that soon. Okay. Actually that's what we're going to be doing next. So, we'll talk a little bit
- 20 more about that. Okay. Did we get all the questions or are there any others?

Here again, Ms. Palani made a decision to use the USU as a point of discussion of present simple and present progressive verbs. As Ms. Palani explained during our interview, she knew that the simple present and progressive comparison was in the next unit. Therefore, since the student had made an error that related directly to something that they would be studying, she thought the USU was a good segue into the next unit.

Ms. Palani's next most prevalent response was to provide a quick response if the USU was not relevant, or if Ms. Palani felt that it would take the class off course. For example, a student uttered, "Sarah is a suitcase." Ms. Palani explained to the student that the utterance was incorrect and moved forward with the class. She did not think that going into a long explanation about the utterance was beneficial to the students. Another example was when a student provided

the wrong form of the verb. Instead of providing an example of a present progressive question, the student used present simple and uttered, “Who likes to travel?” Here again, Ms. Palani moved on quickly by explaining to the student that she wanted an example with present progressive.

Unlike Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani’s next most prevalent response was *not* to respond to the USU. This occurred mainly during occasions when the students brainstormed ideas or gave multiple answers. One example was when Ms. Palani elicited activities related to traveling from the students. Students responded with utterances such as “driving”, “visiting”, and “eating”. However, there were verbs that Ms. Palani had not anticipated the students saying such as “buying” “camping”, and “playing”. When I asked Ms. Palani why she did not respond to these USUs, she responded, “because the brainstorming was not about directing them to use any particular word” and so it was not necessary to understand why they provided these particular verbs.

Similar to Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani also asked students to negotiate with her and each other to arrive at the correct grammatical form. One example is seen in the excerpt below when the students worked together to figure out the correct question to ask on their homework assignment.

Excerpt 4.8

- 1 S1: Who are they driving?
 T: I’m sorry?
 S1: Who are they driving?
 T: What is the meaning of that sentence? If you say, who are they driving? (*writing*
5 *on the board*) What is the meaning of that sentence?
 S2: I don’t—this answer. They.

T: They are driving. Is—that can be an answer, right? To the question of, right? You know before that, if you—if you ask who are they driving? It's like for example if there are some friends, right? And they're going—they need to go to Washington.

10 S3: Yeah

T: And you are giving them a ride.

S3: Who is he driving?

T: No. You're saying. Who is he driving? You mean, who is in his car and he is driving that person to a place. So, this is—that's not the meaning of what you're trying to say here, okay? That's confusing. But if you look at that sentence,

15 they're driving to Washington DC, right? And you want to ask a who question.

S1: Who's she—who is driving

T: Who is driving to Washington DC? And then you can say, right? Who is driving to Washington DC? Sarah and Mary are driving to Washington DC. Okay? The

20 light? (*turns on the light*) What about?

S3: Who is?

T: The sentence

S3: Who is driving?

T: So, you can say, [who is driving to Washington DC? (*writing on the board*)

25 S1: [who is driving to Washington DC?

T: Who is driving to Washington DC? Oh. Mary

S1: And Sarah

T: And Sarah.

Here, Ms. Palani facilitated the discussion of forming the correct question for the sentence, *Sarah and Mary are driving to Washington DC*. Instead of giving them the response, Ms. Palani provided an opportunity for the students to negotiate with her and each other in order to figure out the correct response. In this excerpt, the students had used present progressive, “are driving”, but they had problems forming the question with the correct subject, “who”. Instead of, “Who is driving to Washington DC?”, the student provided the question, “Who are they driving?” (Ex. 4.8, lines 1 and 3) Here, Ms. Palani gave the students an opportunity to correct the error while she facilitated the discussion. In our interview, Ms. Palani mentioned that since it was “not the beginning of the present progressive lesson” and because students had mentioned that the grammar point was easy, she “expected the students to get at least ‘ing’”. Furthermore, Ms. Palani stated that it was important to direct the students and to leave “an opening for the students to express their thinking process”.

Ms. Palani also responded to the USUs by using the USU directly as a teaching tool. For example, in the next excerpt, Ms. Palani addresses the verb *prefer*. The verb *prefer* was mentioned in another speaking exercise on present progressive that the students completed. It was not a part of Ms. Palani’s plan to discuss the verb *prefer* and she did not think that the students would ask so many questions about *prefer*, so all the questions about the verb *prefer* were unanticipated. However, she decided to do an extra speaking exercise on *prefer* to address her students’ questions.

Excerpt 4.9

1 T: Okay. So, give me a sentence then. Ask—ask your class, okay? Ask you class
 some—about a preference. So, think about something and ask your class.

- S1: Do you prefer—Do you prefer grammar class than more than reading class?
- T: You just have to say or.
- 5 S1: Or?
- T: Yeah. Do you?
- S1: Do you prefer [
- T: [Mm hm
- S1: [Grammar class or reading class?
- 10 T: Okay. Do you prefer grammar class or reading class?

Here, Ms. Palani started by asking the students to provide her with an example using *prefer* (Ex. 4.9, lines 1 and 2). During our interview, Ms. Palani stated that had not expected the question, “Do you prefer grammar class or reading class?” However, she thought that it was a good example for the verb *prefer*, and she decided to use the USU as a teaching tool for the other students in the class to practice using *prefer*.

Excerpt 4.10

- 1 T: Okay. So, do you prefer grammar class or reading class? I won't—my feelings won't be hurt if you choose reading. It's okay.
- S2: Grammar class.
- T: (*laughs*) Okay. So, okay. So you say. She? She?
- 5 S3: Doesn't
- S4: Prefers
- T: She prefers, right? She prefers grammar class. Okay? Monica, do you prefer grammar class or reading class?

- S4: Both.
- 10 (*Everyone laughs*)
- T: Ah! Someone is being diplomatic here (*laughs*). That's okay. We'll say you prefer reading class. Okay?
- S4: No.
- T: If you prefer—then we could say?
- 15 S4: Grammar class. No reading class. Grammar.
- T: Grammar class. So, you would say they?
- S5: Prefer
- S2: Prefers
- (*Students talking at same time.*)
- 20 T: They
- S6: They prefer
- T: They prefer
- S6: Grammar class
- T: Grammar class. Okay? Like that.

Here, Ms. Palani used the USU as a teaching tool to practice the verb *prefer* when she asked S2 about her preference (Ex. 4.10, line 1). Additionally, Ms. Palani mentioned that she liked the humor that ensued due to the question. Because she was the grammar class teacher, Ms. Palani anticipated that the students might enjoy comparing her class to their reading class. As Ms. Palani mentioned previously, she liked USUs that connected the topic of the class to the students' lives and this was a good example of this type of connection.

Finally, like Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani would respond to the USU by quickly correcting the error. For example, one student uttered the question “Do you visit Washington DC?” instead of “Are you visiting Washington DC?” In response to this answer, Ms. Palani quickly corrected the error and moved on with the lesson. In our interview, Ms. Palani stated that the students had studied habit and routine by this point in the semester and so the error was unanticipated; yet, she did not want to elaborate too much on the point, so she decided that quick error correction was the best response.

Table 4.4 summarizes Ms. Wells’ and Ms. Palani’s responses to the USUs in their classes. As seen in the table, Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani responded to their USUs in seven distinct ways.

Table 4.4. Ms. Wells’ and Ms. Palani’s Responses to USUs

<u>Type of Teacher Response</u>	<u>Number of USUs</u>	
	<u>Ms. Wells’ class</u>	<u>Ms. Palani’s class</u>
Detailed explanation of grammar by the teacher	7	7
Quick error correction by the teacher	3	1
Asked student to correct the form	2	4
Replied with confusion and attempted to resolve the issue	2	0
Quick acknowledgement of the utterance	2	6
Used the USU as a teaching tool	1	2

Table 4.4. Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's Responses to USUs (continued)

No response	0	5
Total Response Types= 7	Total USUs in Ms. Wells' class=17	Total USUs in Ms. Palani's class=25

Of the seven distinct ways that the teachers responded to USUs, five of the seven response types were the same. These response types were: (1) detailed explanation of the grammar by the teacher, (2) quick error correction by the teacher, (3) asked student to correct form, (4) quick acknowledgment of the utterance, and (5) used USU as teaching tool. For the majority of the time, both teachers responded in a manner that encouraged conversation and participation about the USU. The most prevalent response to USUs was to provide detailed explanations of the grammar to the students. Both teachers discussed how these explanations were elaborate because the USU was relevant for the grammar topic and important for the students' learning. Both teachers also used the USU as a teaching tool in distinct ways. Ms. Palani used the USU as a teaching tool by connecting the topic of the class to the students' lives while Ms. Wells used the USU as a teaching tool by reviewing an important grammar form unrelated to the unit with the students. Additionally, both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani asked students to correct the form. Student self-correction and peer-correction was important for both teachers because during their interviews, they stated that it was an essential method that challenged the students and enhanced their L2 learning process. These three response types, elaborated explanation of the grammar, USU as a teaching tool, and student correction, encouraged student participation in their L2 learning process. Moreover, Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's responses served as evidence for the importance and relevance of USUs in L2 teaching and learning.

However, not all of the teachers' responses encouraged conversation and participation around the USU. Both teachers discussed how sometimes it was necessary to either quickly fix the student's error or quickly acknowledge the USU and continue with the lesson. Both teachers explained that these types of responses were a result of the relevance of the USU to the grammar topic, or a time management issue. Finally, Ms. Palani did not always respond to the USUs. While Ms. Palani did not mention any particularly unfavorable feelings toward the USUs that she did not respond to, she mentioned that during certain activities, such as brainstorming, it was not necessary to respond to USUs.

In conclusion, Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's responses to USUs supported the overall positive perception of USUs that teachers in this program had, which was discussed in the previous research question. Both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani responded frequently to USUs in a manner that encouraged discussion about grammar. These extended discussions about grammar supported their perceptions of USUs as playing a positive role for both L2 teaching and learning. However, similar to the ESL teachers in research question one, not all USUs were found to be productive for the grammar lesson. This begs the question of when and how ESL teachers make the decision to respond to USUs. One answer could be experience with the language content, as both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani were both experienced teachers in ESL grammar. This question is discussed further in Chapter Five.

4.3 RESEARCH QUESTION THREE: WHAT ARE STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?

To understand how students perceived USUs, a focus group session was conducted with one group of four students from the Basic B class and one group of four students from the Advanced B class. The student interviews occurred four weeks after I observed Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classes. Due to time restrictions, only one interview was conducted with each group; nonetheless, during the one interview session with each group, the students were able to share their thoughts about USU situations and their teacher's responses to USUs. During the interviews, the students first answered some general questions about their classroom and their teacher. In addition to serving as ice-breakers, these questions helped to provide a more complete picture of students' perceptions of conversations around USUs (see Appendix E and F for interview protocols). Before the focus group interviews, three specific conversations around USUs were chosen for each group to watch and to respond to. These conversations around USUs were identified by their teachers (Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani) four weeks prior to the students' interviews during the informal teacher interviews. Additionally, these conversations around USUs were chosen either because the conversations around the USUs were extended, or because the USUs elicited unique responses from the teacher.

4.3.1 Basic B student focus group.

The Basic B student focus group, Ms. Palani's class, discussed three specific conversations around USUs during the focus group interview. These conversations around USUs emerged from

classroom discussions around the grammatical topic of the present progressive. The first conversation around a USU discussed was *What is Sarah like?* (see Appendix J for full conversation). The student that produced this utterance was present during the interview. When asked why he asked this question, he did not remember the reason. However, Ms. Palani and I realized during the interview about this USU that the utterance was most likely made due to the wording on the worksheet. That is, while most of the worksheet used present progressive, there was one instance of present simple usage. In response to the USU, Ms. Palani reviewed the difference between the questions *What is Sarah like?* versus *What does Sarah like?* Her review of the two forms occurred because she realized that it was likely that the student had difficulty using the auxiliary *do* to form a Wh- question in the present to form the question *What does Sarah like?*. Instead, the student formed the question, *What is Sarah like?* As Ms. Palani mentioned during the same interview, Wh- question formation was a difficult aspect of grammar for L2 learners of English.

During the interview, the Basic B focus group students did not directly comment on the USU. However, they commented on their teacher's response to the USU and the conversation around the USU. The students said that they liked when "the teacher doesn't say no, but gives reason". Meaning, they liked when Ms. Palani explained the grammar and gave them a good reason why the answer was incorrect. For example, they liked when Ms. Palani would demonstrate how a structure worked in one situation, but perhaps not in another situation. After Ms. Palani's explanation of *What is Sarah like?* in class, the students said that they understood that the question *What is Sarah like?* was not appropriate for the context of the assignment discussed in class. However, the students were still confused about what the question meant.

Therefore, Ms. Palani's explanation in class alleviated some of the students' confusion about the grammar, but not completely.

The second conversation around a USU that was discussed was, *Are you coming to the cinema later?* (see Appendix K for full conversation). In this particular situation, a student was confused about the use of present progressive to describe a future event. In response to this confusion, Ms. Palani discussed the use of present progressive to signal future events. Ms. Palani also elaborated on the conversation by discussing the use of the future modal *will* to signal future events.

In terms of this second conversation around a USU, the Basic B focus group students were not in complete agreement about the benefits of the teacher's extended explanation involving the use of the present progressive and the modal auxiliary *will* to signal future events. Two out of the four students had learned the future before, so they already knew that present progressive could be used to indicate events that will take place in the future. While the other students, who had not learned the future before, felt like they had benefited from the discussion in response to the student's USU. One even mentioned that he "wanted more". That is, the student wanted to learn more about this particular grammar point.

Finally, the last conversation around a USU was on the use of the verb *prefer*, specifically the question, *Do you prefer grammar class or reading class?* (see Appendix L for full conversation). During our teacher interview, Ms. Palani discussed that when this USU had been uttered, she decided that it was a good question to ask the entire class for two reasons. First, the USU would help the class practice their grammar, and second, because the USU was a question, it helped connect the grammar to the students' lives.

Again, like the second conversation, the Basic B focus group students were not in complete agreement about the benefits of the teacher's response to this particular USU situation. Specifically, the students liked the teacher's approach of asking the question using the verb *prefer* for more grammar practice. One student stated, "the last example [about *prefer*] not good very good". Meaning, that he felt that the teacher's approach to using *prefer* as a teaching tool was very good. Yet, one student said, "I wanted more [explanation] and she write on the [board] but she talk so not hear [the explanation]". This student agreed with the other student in that the example and explanation of the teacher was good and that she wanted more explanation. However, she felt that the teacher should have written some examples on the board to make the content comprehensible for the student.

In conclusion, the Basic B student focus group had mixed feelings about the three conversations around the USUs. On one hand, they found these conversations to be beneficial to their L2 learning, but only when the teacher provided specific responses to the USUs. The focus group students perceived Ms. Palani's responses that compared grammar points, elaborated on grammar points, provided examples of the grammar, and connected the grammar to their lives as helpful to their L2 learning. However, the focus group students also mentioned that sometimes they were still confused after the teacher's explanation, and that they wanted more explanations about the grammar.

Additionally, the Basic B students had mixed feelings about the benefits of their classmates' utterances. One student said that in general she learned from her classmates' questions; while another mentioned that his friends' questions made him more aware of grammar "when his friends ask good questions." However, two students mentioned that they did not like to participate in full group discussions, in general. One student mentioned that full group

discussions were difficult to participate in because it was “hard to focus” during such discussions. Another student mentioned that she did not like listening to others. In sum, the Basic B focus group students did not directly evaluate the value of the specific USUs that I presented. However, they perceived that their classmates’ utterances could be beneficial, and that their teacher’s responses to USUs was an important factor for their L2 learning.

4.3.2 Advanced B student focus group.

The Advanced B student focus group, Ms. Wells’ class, also discussed three specific USUs situations during the focus group interview. These USU situations emerged from classroom discussions around the topic of noun clauses. The first USU discussed was, *I suggest that you go to China Wok* (see Appendix G for full conversation). Here, Ms. Wells explained during our interview that she had wanted the students to practice giving suggestions using noun clauses, but omitting the relative pronoun *that*. For example, *I suggest you go to Subway for lunch*. Therefore, she asked for a suggestion for a restaurant where she could eat lunch as a way to connect the grammar to the students’ lives. When the student uttered his sentence, *I suggest that you go to China Wok*, Ms. Wells responded by saying, “You don’t need to use *that*”, and proceeded to give the students another example of a noun clause in which the relative pronoun *that* can be omitted.

In regard to the first USU situation, the Advanced B focus group students liked that the teacher addressed the student’s error in using the relative pronoun, and provided the student with another example. Additionally, similar to the Basic B students, they liked when the teacher tried to connect the grammar to their lives. One student said, “I think it's good and helpful because ...when I wanted to memorize ... this grammar, I can remember this example”. However,

another student stated that he would not have remembered this example because “it’s not related to [his] life”. Instead, this student commented that he would have told his teacher to go to another restaurant, “Chipotle”.

The second USU situation that was discussed during the student focus group interview was the conversation surrounding the phrase, *confused that* (see Appendix H for full conversation). During this particular lesson, a student gave an example of a sentence with a noun clause, *When I arrived I felt confused *that the Americans spoke faster than I thought*. The student had made a mistake with the adjective plus preposition collocation (e.g., confused about) and had written, *confused that*. Her teacher Ms. Wells recognized the mistake and then suggested online tools that the students could use to provide them with information about collocations.

During the Advanced B student focus group interview, I asked the students what they thought about this USU situation involving collocations. The student who had uttered the sentence was present and discussed how she thought “the words after the adjectives [were] confusing”. I then asked the students about the corpus. First, I asked if the teacher had mentioned the corpus before, and the students responded with “Yes.” Then, I asked the focus group if they found the corpus helpful. Three of the four students stated that they had not used the corpus. One student, who had used the corpus, said, “Sometimes, when we need to write a new sentence [it is helpful].” Two other students discussed how they used similar websites for English grammar and how they found the websites helpful. However, one student discussed the difficulty of using the corpus by saying, “But the examples are hard...I see how they use it but I don’t know...” Another student mentioned that she did not use the corpus and she learned collocations by memorizing them. In sum, the students in the focus group did not seem to agree on the benefits of the corpus tool presented by the teacher in this USU situation.

The last USU examined was, *Where have you been on Spring Break?* (see Appendix I for full conversation). Here, Ms. Wells had elicited example questions from the students to practice embedded questions in noun clauses. For example, a teacher could ask, “Where does she live?” The student would respond, “I don’t know where she lives”. In the student’s response, “where she lives” is an embedded question. In Ms. Wells’ class, one student provided the question, *Where have you been on Spring Break?* This question, discussed earlier in the chapter, was grammatically incorrect and should have been, *Where did you go on Spring Break?* because the student referred to the Spring Break that had just occurred in their semester (past simple), and not any Spring Break in the past (present perfect). During our interview, Ms. Wells stated that she decided to review the past simple and present perfect at this point in the class because the difference between the two forms was always a point of confusion for the students.

During the Advanced B student focus group interview, I asked the students what they thought about this USU situation and their teacher’s response to the USU. When I asked them about Ms. Wells’ response to the USU, the students said that, in general, they liked when the teacher corrected the mistakes. Some students found the review of past simple and present perfect beneficial. One student mentioned how she thought the repetition by the teacher was helpful by saying, “I feel it’s okay for me...I think that this semester I can use all of the grammar in my writing.” However, another student did not like the review of the past simple and present perfect grammar. This student felt confused by the teacher’s response saying, “I feel like I mix things together”. She preferred that the teacher stay focused on the unit grammar point, noun clauses, instead of discussing another grammar point. In sum, the students had mixed feelings about this USU situation and the teacher’s response to the USU.

In conclusion, like the Basic B student focus group, the Advanced B students had mixed feelings about the three conversations around the USUs. On one hand, they found these conversations to be beneficial to their L2 learning, but only when the teacher provided specific responses to the USUs. For example, the students liked when their teacher tried to connect the grammar to their lives, provided them with a tool to understand the grammar, and re-explained previous grammar. However, not all of the students agreed with these responses by the teacher. For these students, the examples from the grammar were not meaningful, the corpus tool was difficult to use, and re-explaining grammar that was unrelated to the topic was confusing.

Nonetheless, when I asked the Advanced B students how they felt about their experience learning noun clauses, most of their responses were positive. While they did not mention how the individual USUs affected their L2 learning, the students described how they learned to use noun clauses more accurately. The focus group students mentioned how their “writing [was] improving” and how “describing something...[was] easy”. Furthermore, they discussed how full group discussions were valuable and that their classmates helped them learn better. One student stated, “Sometimes, your classmates will make some questions that you want to know about and you can’t make the question”. However, like the Basic B students, one student said that their classmates’ utterances were not always helpful because “sometimes, ... they go out of the subject”. Lastly, the group felt positive about their teacher’s teaching methods in general. The students liked how “[the teacher] tried to give [them] the information in many different ways”. For example, one student described how she liked when “[the teacher] used the [time]lines to describe the tenses”. Another student mentioned the usefulness of the grammar charts that the teacher created and that “[the teacher] make it easy than the book”.

In conclusion, both the Basic B student focus group and Advanced B student focus group had mixed feelings about the USU conversations in their grammar classrooms. Under the umbrella of USU conversations, both student focus groups discussed the positive and negative value of their classmates' utterances to their own learning. Additionally, the two student focus groups discussed how they both liked and disliked the manner in which their teachers responded to student utterances. These student discussions raise the questions of: (1) what USUs are beneficial to students' L2 learning, (2) how teachers evaluate USUs, and (3) how teachers make the decision to respond to USUs. I discuss these questions in detail in Chapter Five.

4.4 RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR: WHAT IS THE FUNCTION OF ESL TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO UNANTICIPATED STUDENT UTTERANCES (USUS) IN THE L2 GRAMMAR CLASSROOM?

Research question four focused on the function of ESL teachers' responses to unanticipated student utterances (USUs) in the L2 grammar classroom. As previously stated, the original intent of this research question was to focus on the function of USUs during a particular grammar point. However, what emerged from the data was the importance of the function of the teachers' responses to USUs. Therefore, SFL analysis in this study provided a fine-grained analysis of the function of the teachers' responses to USUs in the L2 grammar classroom by understanding how ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings were realized in the interactions between the teacher and the students. These three metafunctions were analyzed in the context of USUs to better understand how the conversation around the USU was constructed (i.e., the ideational

metafunction), the role that the teachers and students played in the conversation (i.e., the interpersonal metafunction), and the manner in which the conversation unfolded (i.e., the textual metafunction). To understand the function of the teachers' responses to USUs in the L2 grammar classroom, six classroom conversations (see Appendix G, H, I, J, K, and L for full conversations) that were identified by the teachers as unanticipated, three interactions from Advanced B class and three interactions from Basic B class, were coded and analyzed for three metafunctions of SFL: (1) ideational, and (2) interpersonal, and (3) textual. These six classroom conversations were previously discussed in the section on students' perceptions of USUs (see section 4.3). Although the six classroom conversations were analyzed for the three metafunctions, what is presented here are the most prevalent aspects of the metafunctions, in each of the teacher's three classroom conversations. Table 4.5 provides a summary of this comparative analysis.

Table 4.5. Summary of Function of ESL Teacher Responses to USUs

<u>SFL metafunction</u>	<u>Ms. Wells' responses</u>	<u>Ms. Palani's responses</u>
Ideational	Relational processes to identify and define the grammar	Verbal processes to provide contextualized examples of the grammar
Interpersonal	Extended turns; disparity between teacher-student turns and clauses influence classroom power dynamics	Extended turns; disparity between teacher-student turns and clauses influence classroom power dynamics
Textual	Multiple Rheme development for cohesive	Multiple Rheme development for cohesive responses

Table 4.5. Summary of Function of ESL Teacher Responses to USUs (continued)

responses (e.g., online strategies for self-inquiry about grammar)	(e.g., contingent explanations to students' questions about grammar)
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In the sections below, I discuss how SFL analysis identified the function of the teachers' responses to USUs within each metafunction. Within each metafunction's section, I first discuss the findings from Ms. Wells' Advanced B classroom conversations. Then, I compare Ms. Wells' class conversations to Ms. Palani's Basic B classroom conversations. I also discuss the connections among the findings from the ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings analysis because findings from one type of analysis complement findings from another type of analysis for a comprehensive understanding of the context.

4.4.1 Ideational metafunction.

First, the classroom conversations were analyzed using ideational meanings analysis. As discussed in the review of literature and methodology chapters, ideational meanings analysis is accomplished using the Transitivity and Ergativity systems. The ideational metafunction focuses on how the flow of experience is constructed, or in Halliday's (2014) terms, the 'goings-on' of the experience (p. 213). In this case, the ideational metafunction focused on the contents (participants, processes and circumstances) of the interactions and how the conversation around the USUs was constructed through these contents.

To review, the classroom conversations were first divided into clauses. Then, using the Transitivity system, the clauses were coded for participants, processes, and circumstances. Next, I tallied the different processes to identify the types of processes used most in the interactions

between the teacher and students about the USU and how the interactions constructed the experience of teaching or reviewing L2 grammar. Because the Transitivity system provided enough data to understand the content of the conversations around USUs, the Ergativity system was not used for a further parsing of the classroom conversations on the ideational level.

I present the findings from the Transitivity system analysis in which I focused on the processes most evident in each of the teacher's three classroom conversations. Understanding the processes used in the interactions is relevant because it reveals the building blocks of the conversation about the grammar. For example, the conversation about the grammar may be predominantly teacher-fronted and didactic as evidenced by the teacher's use of relational processes (e.g., *mean* or *is*) for a direct explanation of the grammar, or the teacher's use of verbal processes (e.g., *say* or *ask*) to provide examples of the grammar in use or to ask for students' thinking or responses to teacher questions.

4.4.1.1 Ms. Wells' classroom conversations.

After coding for the ideational metafunction in Ms. Wells' Advanced B classroom conversations, I found that the most prevalent type of process in all three conversations after the USU was relational. In SFL, a relational process is an intricate feature of the Transitivity system consisting of many sub-types. Yet in simple terms, the role of relational processes is to identify, define, and classify information (Eggins, 2004). As discussed in Chapters Two and Three, a process in SFL is understood by identifying the process, as well as the participants and the circumstances of the process. In relational processes, depending on the sub-type of process, identifying or attributive, the clause may have one or two participants. An example (all examples are taken from the data set) of an attributive process is found in the utterance *Those are good strategies*. In this utterance, the participant is *those*, the process is *are*, and *good strategies* is an attribute of the participant. In

SFL terms, the participant is the Carrier and the process realized in the relational verb are connects the carrier Those to the attribute good strategies. An example of an identifying process can be seen in the utterance That's the answer, the participant is that, the process is is, and the second participant is the answer. The distinction between the process is in the latter example and the process are in the former example is that the process is does not function to attribute something to the participant, but functions to identify the participant. The answer is not an attribute of the participant that, but functions as its identity.

It is important to note that in Ms. Wells' classroom conversations, because she used more extended turns and used more language than her students, Ms. Wells' processes were more prevalent in the conversations. This point will be discussed in more detail in the interpersonal metafunction section (section 4.4.2). However, since the most prevalent type of process in all three conversations after the USU was relational and Ms. Wells had more extended turns than her students, I focus on one classroom conversation and Ms. Wells' use of the relational process to provide a detailed analysis of the language of her responses when USUs arose in the discussion.

The classroom conversation I focus on to discuss Ms. Wells' use of relational processes is the conversation between the teacher and the students around the USU, *When I arrived I felt confused *that the Americans spoke faster than I thought* (see Appendix H for full conversation). In this classroom conversation, the students had just finished a review of homework, which required them to write a paragraph about a misunderstanding they had encountered in the United States. A requirement of the homework was to use the grammar topic of the unit, noun clauses. The task was for the students to exchange homework, and then to identify and underline the noun clauses in their classmates' paragraphs. During this exercise, the teacher asked students to give

her examples from the homework for her to prepare for the class discussion that focused on reviewing noun clauses. The USU, *When I arrived I felt confused *that the Americans spoke faster than I thought*, was one example given by a student. In our interview, Ms. Wells identified the example as a USU because she was surprised that the students at the advanced level did not know the collocations appropriate with the adjective, *confused*. Ms. Wells expected that the student would have known at this point, because of previous English grammar classes, that *confused* is typically followed by prepositions such as *about* or *by* before a noun clause. To use *that* after *confused* and before a noun clause, *confused* would need to be followed by a non-finite verb such as *confused to hear that* or *confused to find that*, as in *I was confused to find that Americans spoke faster than I thought*.

The excerpts from this particular conversation provide evidence of Ms. Wells' use of relational processes to identify and define collocations appropriate with the adjective *confused*. The three excerpts provide examples of relational processes from the beginning, middle, and end of the classroom conversation. In the first excerpt, Ms. Wells searched to provide students with examples of collocations with *confused* using an on-line corpus. In our interview, Ms. Wells stated that she often presented her students with examples from on-line resources such as a corpus because students found the examples from on-line resources useful. Then, Ms. Wells discussed which prepositions were appropriate to follow the adjective *confused*. The relational processes are underlined in the conversation for clarity.

Excerpt 4.11

1 T: There we go. Confused about. Let's see—what was our sentence? No. Confused about wouldn't fit here, right?

S4: Yeah

T: Confused.

5 S4: With

T: With. A number of newcomers are easily confused with. Okay. Ethnicity gets confused with socioeconomic, so that's when you're comparing two things. That's not what we want. Confused as to why. So, that's looking at why. Oh my goodness I'm not getting what I expected actually. Let me—let me try it in just

10 Google.

Here, as Ms. Wells attempted to provide students with the proper collocations, she used relational processes such as *was*, *fit*, *are*, *gets*, and *is*. She discussed how the student's example with *confused* would not fit with the examples she had found, such as *confused about*. Ms. Wells stated, "Confused about wouldn't fit here, right?" (Ex 4.11, line 2). In SFL terms, the relational process is *wouldn't fit*, which functions as an identifying relational process. Therefore, the participant, *confused about*, was identified by the teacher, as not appropriate for the participant, *here*, with *here* indicating the sentence that appeared in the USU. In this excerpt, Ms. Wells continued to identify how the examples she found on the corpus did not match the USU given by the student. She provided the students with the example sentence, *Ethnicity gets confused with socioeconomic*, and then she realized that the collocation *confused with* could not be substituted in the student's USU and for the student's intended meaning by stating, "so that's when you're comparing two things. That's not what we want" (Ex. 4.10, lines 7 and 8). That is, she first read the example clause from the corpus, *Ethnicity gets confused with socioeconomic*. Then, she defined the use of *confused with* for comparing two things using the relational process *is*. Finally, she identified that this was not an appropriate example for the USU using the relational process

is by stating, “That’s not what we want,” indicating implicitly to students the context-sensitive nature of grammatical rules.

In the next excerpt, the discussion about collocations and Ms. Wells’ use of relational processes to identify the appropriate use of collocations with the adjective *confused* continue. In this excerpt, Ms. Wells decided to use another resource to illustrate to her students the appropriate collocations with the adjective *confused*. The relational processes are underlined in the conversation for clarity.

Excerpt 4.12

1 T: Did someone tell you about collocations? Okay. Let’s look at confused with
 collocations. Ummmmm. Oxford dictionary is good. Oh, here. Prepositions.
 Confused—confused about plus a noun. Or confused by plus a noun. So, those are
 the two ones we use. But we can’t use *that*. So, we can use *by* or *about*. So, if
5 you—if you have a question, maybe you can always do collocations or you can do
 the COCA American Corpus. Those are good strategies, especially with verbs
 plus prepositions, right? Because those are confusing. How about interested? I am
 interested?

S3: In.

10 T: In, right. Or I can’t think of some good ones. Students are always—Or excited.
 I’m excited?

S4: With.

S3: To.

T: You can say to. To do something. You can use an infinitive. What about a
 preposition? He’s excited?

15 S6: About.

T: About. Right.

In this excerpt, Ms. Wells first used relational processes to identify a good resource and good examples of collocations. She stated, “Oxford dictionary is good” (Ex. 4.12, line 2). Again, like the previous excerpt, the relational process *is* signified that Ms. Wells attributed *good* to the participant *the Oxford dictionary*. That is, Ms. Wells identified the Oxford dictionary as a good resource. She also used the relational process *are* in a similar fashion to identify *confused about* and *confused by* as two appropriate collocations that can be used. She stated, “So, those are the two ones we use” (Ex. 4.12, lines 3-4). Second, Ms. Wells used this opportunity to provide her students with example sentences containing relational processes with other examples of adjective collocations. In these examples, “I am interested” (Ex. 4.12, lines 7 and 8) and “I’m excited” (Ex. 4.12, line 11), Ms. Wells did not use the relational process *am* to identify resources for her students to use or to identify appropriate examples to use with the adjective *confused*. In this case, Ms. Wells’ use of the relational process *am* provided students with an opportunity to identify other examples of adjective collocations with the adjectives *interested* and *excited*. In our interview, Ms. Wells stated that she understood that collocations were difficult and confusing for students; however, by the advanced level, she expected her students to know certain collocations such as *interested in* and *excited about*. She stated that she wanted to assess if her students knew the other collocations, or if they were confused about those collocations as well, which explains in part why the student’s original sentence produced this grammatical sidebar review of collocations with adjectives.

The last excerpt illustrates Ms. Wells' use of relational processes to conclude the conversation about the USU. After demonstrating to the students how they could use on-line resources to help them with collocations, Ms. Wells returned to the original USU again that prompted the previous interactions.

Excerpt 4.13

- 1 T: Confused. I felt confused that Americans... (*typing answer*)
- S1: Because.
- T: Because. I think it's better. Good. It's explaining why, right? Yeah. And what is—what is 'because'? What kind of clause is this? What does 'because' mean? Is
- 5 it what, when, why, how?
- S3: Why.
- S7: Why.
- T: Why. And what is 'why'?
- S4: Adverb.
- 10 T: Adverb clause. Not a noun clause, right? Not a noun clause. Good.

In this excerpt, Ms. Wells did two things. First, she went back and addressed the USU, *When I arrived I felt confused *that the Americans spoke faster than I thought*. With the help of a student (Ex. 4.13, line 2), Ms. Wells used the conjunction *because* and changed the sentence to using the conjunction to *When I arrived I felt confused because Americans spoke faster than I thought*. This change was not evident in the transcript; however, this change was noted during the classroom observation when Ms. Wells typed the new sentence on the computer for the class to see. Ms. Wells was not interviewed about this specific change; yet, it could be possible that

Ms. Wells' attempt at using a noun clause to convey the message of the USU did not work, and therefore she changed the clause to an adverb clause to preserve the student's intended meaning, and to stay focused on the topic of the lesson. Second, Ms. Wells used the new clause as a teaching point to review a previous grammar point that the students had learned in the course, adverb clauses. She used the relational process, *is*, in clauses such as, "what is 'because'?" (Ex. 4.13, line 4), "What kind of clause is this?" (Ex. 4.13, line 4), and "And what is 'why'?" (Ex. 4.13, line, 8) to elicit from the students information to identify the new clause. She also used the relational process, *mean*, in the statement, "What does 'because' mean?" (Ex. 4.13, line 4) for the related purpose of defining the new clause. Ms. Wells was successful in eliciting the fact that the new clause, *because Americans spoke faster than I thought*, was now an adverb clause and not a noun clause, and retained the student's intended meaning of the utterance, albeit not in the context of this lesson on noun clauses.

In summary, Ms. Wells' prevalent use of relational processes in this particular classroom conversation demonstrated that she used the USU as an opportunity to engage in direct instruction of a confusing grammar point, adjective collocations, with her students. Although the other two classroom conversations were not discussed here, Ms. Wells' use of relational processes in those conversations were also used in a similar manner. Relational processes in all three classroom conversations about USUs functioned to identify or define a confusing grammar point whether it was adjective collocations, relative pronoun omission, or tense/aspect. In other words, the ideational metafunction revealed that Ms. Wells' responses to USUs through the use of relational processes constructed a didactic conversation featuring explicit grammar instruction to clarify confusing grammatical concepts. The importance of the teacher's response to USUs and whether these extended grammatical reviews in the context of a topical discussion that is

intended to compel a particular grammatical structure are actually beneficial to learners and make a difference in their grammatical knowledge will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

4.4.1.2 Ms. Palani's classroom conversations.

The ideational meanings analysis of Ms. Palani's classroom conversation also illustrated a prevalent use of didactic language. Yet, in comparison to the ideational meanings analysis of Ms. Wells' classroom conversations, which revealed a prevalent use of relational processes, analysis of Ms. Palani's classroom conversations revealed a prevalence of verbal processes across all three conversations. Additionally, like Ms. Wells' conversations, Ms. Palani had more extended turns than her students, a point that will be discussed in more detail in the interpersonal metafunction section (section 4.4.2). Since Ms. Palani had more extended turns than her students and the most prevalent type of process across all three conversations after the USU was verbal, in this section, I analyzed data from one conversation from Ms. Palani's Basic B class in depth to illustrate meanings from her use of verbal processes following a USU.

After coding Ms. Palani's classroom conversations in her Basic B class for the ideational metafunction, I found that the most prevalent type of process across all three conversations after the USU was verbal. In SFL, verbal processes can be identified in two ways: (1) a process "of verbal action", or (2) part of a clause complex, "projecting a second clause by either quoting or reporting" (Eggins, 2004, pp. 235-236). In addition, as discussed in the previous section, a process in SFL is understood by identifying the process, as well as the participants and the circumstances of the process. In the first case, the verbal process denotes a verbal action and could have up to three participants: Sayer, Receiver, and Verbiage. For example, in the clause, *The teacher told the student her grade*, *the teacher* is the Sayer, *told* is the process, *the student* is the Receiver, and *her grade* is the Verbiage. Here, the process focuses on the teacher's action of

telling her student her grade. In the second case, the verbal process functions to report or quote speech. Here, the sentence would be separated into two clauses and each clause would be analyzed separately. For example, in the sentence, *The student asked, "Can I know my grade?"*, the first clause, *The student asked* contains a verbal process, *ask*, and *the student* is the participant. This first clause functions to report the second clause, *Can I see my grade?*, which does not contain a verbal process, but a material process, *see*. These two types of verbal processes both appeared in the ideational analyses of Ms. Palani's classroom conversations, one of which I detail in the following paragraphs.

The classroom conversation I focus on to discuss Ms. Palani's use of verbal processes is the conversation between the teacher and the students around the USU, *But we have later* (see Appendix K for full conversation). In this classroom conversation, the students had just finished a grammar worksheet on the topic of the present simple versus the present progressive. The worksheet focused on writing the correct forms of verbs using the topic of the unit, the present simple (*I eat*) versus the present progressive (*I am eating*). Each sentence provided the students with a pronoun (e.g., *he* or *you*) and the base form of the verb (e.g., *eat* or *work*) and other information. The task was to write the correct form of the verb (simple or progressive) as a statement or a question depending on the other information in the sentence. One worksheet example caused confusion for the students: *(You/come)_____ to the cinema later?* The correct answer to this question would be: *Are you coming to the cinema later?* using the progressive form of the verb *come*. However, during the review of the worksheet, the students could not agree on the answer. Some students said, *Do you come to the cinema?** while one student said, *Are you coming to the cinema?* When this student stated, *Are you coming to the cinema?*, The teacher confirmed that the correct answer was *Are you coming to the cinema later?* In this

moment, a student uttered the USU, *But we have later*. Here, the student recognized that adverb *later* implied a future action; yet, according to Ms. Palani, the students in this level had not discussed the use of present progressive for future actions. Thus, the presence of the adverb *later* in the context of a worksheet on the present progressive confused the student. When choosing the worksheet, Ms. Palani mentioned that she had not noticed the use of future markers in the examples, so she had not anticipated the student's remark about *later*.

Ms. Palani's use of verbal processes after the USU suggested an attempt to explain to students how to use the present progressive to convey future meanings with examples. It is important to note that like Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani attempted to clarify her students' confusion about a specific grammar point; however, Ms. Palani utilized verbal processes instead of relational processes. I provide three excerpts from the classroom conversation to demonstrate Ms. Palani's use of verbal processes to explain the grammar. Similar to Ms. Wells' conversations, Ms. Palani's turns were longer than her students, which limited their use of processes. As a result, the following excerpts focus on Ms. Palani's use of verbal processes.

Before the USU was uttered, the students did not agree on an answer to a question from the worksheet. In fact, the students initially answered with the present simple form of the answer, *Do you come?*, and after several turns, one other student said the present progressive form of the answer, *Are you coming?*. In the following first excerpt of the conversation, Ms. Palani verified the answer as, *Are you coming to the cinema?* This answer was followed by the USU, *But we have later*. Ms. Palani's verbal processes are underlined for clarity.

Excerpt 4.14

- 1 T: Are you coming to the cinema—to the movie?
 S3: But we have 'later'.

- T: I'm sorry?
- S3: Not now, later.
- 5 T: Later. Yes. Because when you're saying. It's still asking about an action—about coming. Remember we're talking—when we were saying that the present progressive does not necessarily mean at this particular moment. Right? Are you? If I asked you, are you cooking dinner tonight?
- S3: Yeah.
- 10 T: I would say, are you cooking—cooking dinner even though I'm talking about tonight. Because I'm asking about an action that is still in the [
- S3: [Near.
- T: Near mm hmm.

Unlike Ms. Wells' conversations in which she used relational processes, Ms. Palani used mostly verbal processes in this excerpt such as *say*, *ask*, and *talk*. Instead of using relational processes such as *is* or *means* to explain how present progressive was used to convey the future, Ms. Palani used verbal processes to explain and give specific examples of how the grammar could be used in a conversation. As I previously explained, in these examples, the verbal process either denoted a verbal action, or functioned to report or quote speech. For example, in the clause, "It's still asking about an action" (Ex. 4.14, line 5), the process *ask* denotes a verbal action. The process refers to how the participant, *It* (or *Are you coming to the cinema later?*) functions to ask a certain question. Ms. Palani clarified this point with another verbal process, "we were saying that the present progressive does not necessarily mean at this particular moment" (Ex. 4.14, lines 6-7). In this example, the verbal process *say* functions to quote the

clause “that the present progressive does not necessarily mean at this particular moment”. It is also important to note the use of the participant *we* in the clause, as *we* refers to Ms. Palani and her students, and a previous conversation the class had about the present progressive did not always mean *right now*. Therefore, Ms. Palani first used a verbal process *ask* to explain the function of the question, *Are you coming to the cinema later?* Then, Ms. Palani used a verbal process *say* to report a conversation that the class had previously had about the function of present progressive.

In this next excerpt, the same student who uttered the USU, *But we have later*, continued to ask more questions about future actions.

Excerpt 4.15

1 S3: I can't use 'will'?

T: You can. You can use 'will'. Are you saying like—if I'm asking— so instead of saying, are you cooking dinner tonight? I can say, will you cook dinner tonight?
And that's in the future.

5 S4: Yes. The question is now and the answer [

T: [Right.

S4: [is future.

T: In the future.

In continuation of the conversation after the USU, Ms. Palani again used verbal processes to explain the use of the modal *will* to express a future action. She first used *say* to report the previous example used with present progressive, “are you cooking dinner tonight?” (Ex. 4.15, line 3) Then, she used *say* to report the use of *will* to express the same meaning with “will you

cook dinner tonight?” (Ex. 4.15, line 3). Here, Ms. Palani used verbal processes to reiterate the first example, and then, to provide another example with the new form *will*.

Finally, the conversation about the use of present progressive for future actions ended with Ms. Palani attempting to keep the students focused on the grammar point.

Excerpt 4.16

- 1 T: But for right now, when you want to—when you say it like this, are you—I’m sorry I lost—
- S5: Are you coming?
- T: Yeah. Are you coming?
- 5 S5: To the cinema
- T: Are you coming? I’m asking about an action that is going to happen. Are you coming? Okay.

In the above excerpt, Ms. Palani used the verbal processes *say* and *ask* to reiterate how the grammar form, present progressive, was used in the question to convey future actions. First, Ms. Palani used the verbal process *say* in the clause, “when you say it like this” (Ex. 4.16, line 1) to illustrate the context for and manner of asking the question, *Are you coming to the cinema?*. In this clause, *when* is the time and *like this* is the manner. By using the verbal process *say* and marking time and manner, Ms. Palani set up a situation to discuss the importance of context for the grammar point. Then, she used the verbal process, *ask* in the clause “I’m asking about an action” (Ex. 4.16, line 6) to denote how the verbal process *ask* is used in a future context, or “an action that is going to happen”. One could say, that Ms. Palani used the verbal processes in the end to reiterate the function of the grammar point and to wrap up the question about the USU.

Ms. Palani's prevalent use of verbal processes in the classroom conversation demonstrated that she used the USU as an opportunity to engage in direct instruction of a confusing grammar point with her students, the present progressive for future actions. Although I did not detail Ms. Palani's use of verbal processes from the other two conversations, I found that in all three of her classroom conversations these verbal processes functioned to provide contextualized examples of a confusing grammar point whether it was the concept of time/aspect, question formation using present progressive, or the meaning the verb *prefer*. In other words, the ideational metafunction revealed that, like Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani's response to USUs with verbal processes constructed a didactic conversation featuring explicit grammar instruction to clarify confusing grammatical concepts. The importance of the teacher's response to USUs will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

In sum, my analyses of the ideational metafunction revealed that, despite differences in types of processes, both Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's responses to USUs constructed a didactic conversation featuring explicit grammar instruction to clarify confusing grammatical concepts. For instance, Ms. Wells used primarily relational processes to identify and define the grammar, and Ms. Palani used verbal processes to provide contextualized examples of the grammar for her students. This difference may be attributed to the context of the classrooms and the students' levels. That is, Ms. Wells was able to use relational processes to discuss abstract grammar terms with her Advanced level students while Ms. Palani resorted to providing her Basic level students concrete examples of the grammar through verbal processes. It is interesting to note that SFL analysis allowed for this type of in depth understanding of the teacher's language, a point I discuss further in Chapter Five. Regardless of type of process utilized, both teachers responded to the USUs in an instructive manner, which constructed their students' experience of learning in

the grammar classrooms. The importance of how and when teachers respond to USUs will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

4.4.2 Interpersonal metafunction.

In this section, I briefly define the process of Mood analysis before I continue with the discussion of the analysis of the classroom conversations. After analyzing the six classroom conversations using ideational meanings analysis, I analyzed the texts using interpersonal meanings analysis, specifically Mood analysis. According to Halliday and Mattheissen (2014), in the interpersonal metafunction, the focus of Mood analysis is on the manner in which the interaction between the speakers unfolds in the clause. In Mood analysis, the clause is seen as an exchange. In the case of this study, the clauses illustrate the exchange of information between the teacher and the students around the USU. Analyzing the exchange of information provides an understanding of the roles and relationships of the teacher and students in the conversation.

In this study, Mood analysis occurred in three steps: (1) identifying the Mood of the clauses, (2) counting the number of turns, and (3) counting and noting speech functions. I began Mood analysis by focusing closely on the types of language the teacher and the students used to participate in the conversation around the USU. First, I divided the text into clauses. Second, the Mood Blocks (Subject +Finite) of the clauses were identified. The Mood Block helps to identify the mood of the clause (declarative, interrogative, or imperative) (Droga & Humphrey, 2002). The mood of the clause is important for it reveals “the presence and configuration of certain ‘negotiable’ elements of clause structure” (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 74). That is, the grammatical patterns of the conversation demonstrate the speech function of the information and the role the speaker takes in the conversation. For example, the teacher’s use of declarative mood

translates to the teacher taking an active initiatory role. A student's use of interrogative translates to the student's dependency on the teacher for information. After coding the Mood Blocks, I identified patterns in the classroom transcriptions.

Continuing with Mood analysis, I counted the numbers of turns taken by the teachers and the students. The frequency of turns in the conversation may provide information about the dynamics of the classroom. For example, more teacher turns than student turns may indicate a teacher-centered environment whereas more student turns than teacher turns may indicate a student-centered environment, or a classroom environment in which the teacher promotes dialogic inquiry and discussion. Next, I counted and noted the frequencies of the types of speech functions that the teachers and students used (i.e., initiating or responding roles). By analyzing the speech functions utilized by teachers' and students', I was able to obtain linguistic evidence to support the social roles constructed in the interaction surrounding USUs. For example, traditionally, the teacher may take an initiatory role in a conversation to provide information to the student while the student may take a compliant role and accept the information in conversation.

What I present in the next section is the most prevalent findings from Mood analysis. I focused on Mood analysis because what I found to be most prevalent in Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classroom conversations were: (1) the use of declarative clauses by the teacher and (2) the disparity between the teacher and students turns and the number of clauses used by the teacher and students. The discussion of declarative clauses and the disparity between turns and clauses complements the findings from the ideational metafunction analysis in which the teachers typically responded in a didactic manner to the USUs. In this section, because Ms.

Wells' and Ms. Palani's data were similar, I present the findings from both Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classrooms together.

4.4.2.1 Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classroom conversations.

After coding Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's conversations using Mood analysis, I found that during all three classroom conversations, both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani used primarily declarative clauses in their conversations with the students. As Eggins and Slade (1997) discuss, the use of declaratives has certain implications in terms of constructing speaker roles and power dynamics in the classroom. First, the use of declaratives suggests that the speaker wants to continue his/her turn. In both Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classroom conversations, the teachers may have used declaratives to suggest that they wanted to provide direct explanations of the grammar. That is, the teachers may not have been willing to release their turns to the students about the grammar point in order to provide a well-developed explanation of the grammar point. Second, the use of declaratives "construct the speaker as taking on an active initiatory role" with factual information (p. 85). This again supports the prior claim that the teachers wanted to continue their turn to provide direct explanations of the grammar. An example of these two implications are seen in the following excerpt of Ms. Wells' classroom conversation about collocations (see Appendix H for full conversation), which was mentioned in Section 4.4.1.1 as well.

Excerpt 4.17

1 T: Did someone tell you about collocations? Okay. Let's look at 'confused' with collocations. (*typing and looking at sites on the computer*) Oxford dictionary is good. (*look at more sites*) Oh, here. Prepositions. 'Confused'—'confused about' plus a noun. Or 'confused by' plus a noun. So, those are the two ones we use. But

- 5 we can't use 'that' (*the word in the student's original sentence*). So, we can use 'by' or 'about'. So, if you—if you have a question, maybe you can always do collocations or you can do the COCA American Corpus. Those are good strategies, especially with verbs plus prepositions, right? Because those are confusing. How about interested? I am interested? (*cueing students*)
- 10 S3: In.
- T: In, right. Or I can't think of some good ones. Students are always—Or excited. I'm excited? (*cueing students*)
- S4: With.
- S3: To.
- 15 T: You can say to. To do something. You can use an infinitive. What about a preposition? He's excited? (*cueing students*)
- S6: About.
- T: About. Right.

In this excerpt, Ms. Wells' use of declaratives illustrates her wanting to take an initiatory role to provide direct explanations of the grammar. This is strongly evident in her first turn where she used nine declarative clauses during her explanation of collocations. After her explanation, she engaged with the students about the grammar by asking the students to provide examples of collocations. However, in this excerpt, and throughout the other two conversations, Ms. Wells maintained her turn using predominately declarative clauses to provide direct explanations of the grammar. This type of language was prevalent in both hers and Ms. Palani's classroom conversations.

Although the findings focus on the teacher's responses and use of language, it is important to note that Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani's use of declarative clauses and the implications of these clauses are further supported by the students' use of minor clauses, phrases to complete the teacher clause (cueing as in the above example), or respond with a *yes* or *no*. In SFL, minor clauses do not have the same negotiating power as full clauses, and therefore, minor clauses position the speaker in a submissive role. That is, "most minor clauses position the speakers as a compliant supporter of the prior interaction" (p. 95). Additionally, the Mood Block (Subject + Finite) carries the negotiating power of the clause. Therefore, the student completion of the clause (also known as Residue in SFL) does not carry as much weight as the Mood of the clause.

The positioning of the students as compliant supporters of the teachers' explanation of the grammar is seen in an excerpt from Ms. Palani's classroom conversation about using the present progressive to convey a future meaning (e.g., I'm going shopping tomorrow) (see Appendix K for full conversation).

Excerpt 4.18

- 1 T: Are you coming to the cinema—to the movie?
- S3: But we have 'later'.
- T: I'm sorry?
- S3: Not now, later.
- 5 T: Later. Yes. Because when you're saying. It's still asking about an action—about coming. Remember we're talking—when we were saying that the present progressive does not necessarily mean at this particular moment. Right? Are you? If I asked you, are you cooking dinner tonight?
- S3: Yeah.

- 10 T: I would say, are you cooking—cooking dinner even though I’m talking about tonight. Because I’m asking about an action that is still in the [
- S3: [Near.
- T: Near mm hmm.

In this excerpt, examples of minor clauses, yes/no responses, and students completing the teacher’s turn are seen. For example, S3 stated, “Not now. Later.” (Ex. 4.17, line 4). These are two examples of minor clauses. One turn later, the same student responded to Ms. Palani’s turn with, “Yeah.” (Ex. 4.17, line 9). Again, one turn later, the same student completed Ms. Palani’s turn with, “Near.” (Ex. 4.17, line 12). While Ms. Palani used mostly full declarative clauses such as, *It’s still asking about an action about coming*, her students’ turns consisted of minor clauses, yes/no responses, and completing Ms. Palani’s turn. This type of language was prevalent in both hers and Ms. Wells’ classroom conversations.

In addition to the use of declarative clauses, the disparity between the number of teacher and student turns and the number of teacher and student clauses was significant. As seen in Table 4.6, the number of teacher and student turns was nearly equal in all three conversations; yet, the number of teacher and student clauses was not.

Table 4.6. Comparison of Teacher-Student Turns and Teacher-Student Clauses

	Ms. Wells teacher-student		Ms. Palani teacher-student	
	<u>turns versus full clauses</u>		<u>turns versus full clauses</u>	
	Turns	Clauses	Turns	Clauses
USU conversation 1	T = 9	T = 65	T = 21	T = 66
	Ss = 10	Ss = 6	Ss = 25	Ss = 9
USU conversation 2	T = 20	T = 82	T = 9	T = 29
	Ss = 22	Ss = 5	Ss = 8	Ss = 5
USU conversation 3	T = 13	T = 75	T = 33	T = 87
	Ss = 16	Ss = 14	Ss = 29	Ss = 15

Again, it was mentioned that both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani used primarily declarative clauses in their conversations while their students mostly used minor clauses, completed the teacher's clause, or responded with a *yes* or *no*. That is to say, although the teacher and the student turns were nearly equal in number for the three conversations, Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani had more extended turns than their students.

The disparity between the number of participant turns and the number of participant clauses complements the findings from the analysis of the ideational metafunction. As discussed in section 4.4.1, both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani attempted to respond to USUs with a direct explanation of the grammar point in question. These direct explanations of grammar resulted in Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani taking longer turns than their students, and consequently, having more clauses than their students. Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's extended turns appear to suggest that their conversations around USUs were dominated by teacher-led explanations suggesting the

need for the teacher to remain in control of the interaction. The dominance of the conversation by the teacher raises questions about best approaches to addressing grammatical issues when they arise in USU and the place of teacher-led explanations in the classroom, a point that will be discussed in Chapter Five.

The disparity between the number of participant turns and the number of participant clauses also raises questions about classroom power dynamics. Findings from the ideational meanings analysis and Mood analysis both support the idea that Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani took longer turns than their students in an attempt to explain the grammar to their students. It may be that the USU shifted the power dynamic of the classroom by presenting the teacher with an unexpected utterance. That is, by making the USU, the student took the initiating role in the conversation, a role traditionally given to the teacher (Eggins & Slade, 1997). This unexpected utterance shifted the traditional role of the teacher as the initiator. Thus, it could be that in an attempt to regain control of their thoughts and their explanations, Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani needed to take longer turns to regulate their mental activity in the emergent interaction. By no means does this suggest ill-intent on the part of the teacher. In fact, Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's willingness to respond to the USUs demonstrates their willingness to attend to their students' needs. However, what remains to be investigated is if these types of responses are effective for grammar learning.

In conclusion, analysis of the interpersonal metafunction revealed that both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani used primarily declarative clauses and extended turns in their conversations around USUs to maintain their control of the conversation and their role as knowledgeable instructors as they explained the grammar to their students. The teachers' use of declarative clauses and extended turns complements the findings in the ideational metafunction in which the

teachers typically responded in a teacher-fronted didactic manner to the USUs in their attempts to clarify confusing grammatical concepts. These extended turns, use of declarative clauses, and bids for minor clauses by the students may suggest that teachers were challenged at the moment of an USU and needed time to formulate a coherent and clear explanation of the students' grammatical difficulties. Findings from the next section on the textual metafunction further complement the findings of the ideational and interpersonal metafunction by analyzing the thematic progression of the conversations around USU. Specifically, the section focuses on the teachers' responses to the USUs and the coherence of their responses.

4.4.3 Textual metafunction.

In this section, I briefly define the process of textual meanings analysis before I continue with the discussion of the analysis of the classroom conversations that took place because of USUs. After analyzing the six classroom conversations using the ideational meanings analysis and the interpersonal meanings analysis, I analyzed the texts using the textual meanings analysis. While the ideational metafunction explained how the teachers' addressed the USUs with direct explanations of the grammar through relational and verbal clauses (see section 4.4.1), and the interpersonal metafunction explained the teachers' use of declaratives and extended turns to situate themselves as the authority figure in the classroom (see section 4.4.2), analysis of the textual metafunction focused on the organization of the classroom conversations that took place based on unanticipated statements or questions by the students.

The purpose of the textual meanings analysis in this study was twofold: (1) to identify the information that the teachers found to be important to provide to the students in response to the USUs and (2) to identify if there was cohesion in the manner in which the teachers provided

this information. To identify the important information and the cohesion in the text, textual meanings analysis occurred in two steps: (1) coding for the Themes and Rhemes of the clauses, and (2) coding for the Thematic development in the conversations. First, the Themes and Rhemes in the classroom conversations were coded to identify the information that the teachers found important to provide the students. The Theme system in SFL consists of two main features: Theme and Rheme. The Theme of the clause is the first part of the clause, also known as the point of departure for the clause. The Rheme of the clause is the rest of the clause. Although the Theme of the clause is identified in SFL to have the distinguished position of providing the most important information in the clause, the Rheme of the clause can also be of value. The Rheme of the clause provides new information in the text.

The Themes were then further divided into three types: (1) topical, (2) textual, and (3) interpersonal. Topical Themes are the same participants, processes, and circumstances that were identified in ideational meanings analysis (see section 4.4.1). Textual Themes can be conjunctions (e.g., but, so, and) or Continuity Adjuncts (e.g., well, oh,). Interpersonal Themes can be vocatives (e.g., Paul, Mary), a Finite in the interrogative Mood (e.g., do), and Polarity Adjuncts (e.g., yes, no). Each clause can have only one topical Theme, but multiple textual or interpersonal Themes. Once the Theme has been identified, everything in the clause after the topical Theme is the Rheme. For example, in the clause, *Learning a second language is important for finding a job*, *Learning a second language* is the topical Theme and *is important for finding a job* is the Rheme. In another example, *Adam, turn in your test!*, the clause has multiple Themes. *Adam* is the interpersonal Theme, *turn* is the topical Theme, and *in your test!* is the Rheme. Although the textual and interpersonal Themes play a role in the organization of the text, the topical Theme is considered to be the important information of the clause and the point

of the departure for the clause. The topical theme also reveals the focus of the teacher's comment and the point of departure of her reaction to the USU.

Once the Themes and Rhemes were identified, I analyzed the text for Thematic development. Thematic development is the connection between the Theme and Rheme pairings in a text (Eggins, 1994). Thematic development illustrates the level of cohesion in the conversations and provides an understanding of the flow the conversations in the classroom. Thematic development can occur in three main patterns: (1) Theme reiteration, or repeating the same Theme from clause to clause, (2) the zig-zag pattern, in which the Rheme of a clause becomes the Theme of the next clause, and (3) multiple Rheme pattern, in which the Rheme of one clause contains information that is manifold, creating the subsequent Themes in multiple new clauses that follow. For example, in the clause *Learning a second language is important for finding a job*, the Rheme of the clause is *is important for finding a job*. In a multiple Rheme pattern, *is important for finding a job* becomes the subsequent Themes in multiple new clauses that follow such as: *A social worker needs a second language to work in a multi-lingual community.* and *A businesswoman needs two or more languages to work for a global company.* The Themes *A social worker* and *A businesswoman* relate to the Rheme of the initial clause *is important for finding a job* because they are examples of jobs that need a second language.

In this study, I used the system of Theme to identify the organization of the classroom conversations around USUs. What I was interested in discovering through this analysis was the information that the teachers found to be important to provide to the students in relation to the USU and whether or not the teachers' provided this information to their students in a cohesive manner. What I found to be most prevalent in these conversations was the teachers' response to the students' confusion about grammar points by providing strategies to understand the grammar

and explanations of the grammar through the use of multiple Rheme development. The discussion of the teachers' response to the students' confusion about grammar-through multiple Rheme development complements the findings from the previous two sections by illustrating the information that the teachers found most important in their responses to the students' USUs. More importantly, multiple Rheme development illustrated whether or not the teachers' extended didactic responses to the grammar provided the students' with clear and cohesive explanations to better understand the grammatical problem. In the next sections, I present the findings from both Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classrooms to illustrate their use of multiple Rheme development.

4.4.3.1 Ms. Wells' classroom conversation.

After coding Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's conversations using Theme and Thematic development, I found that during all three classroom conversations, many of both Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's extend turns provided didactic explanations of the grammar that directly addressed their students' confusion about the grammar through multiple Rheme development. To review, in both classrooms, Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani provided direct explanations of the grammar by maintaining extended turns in their conversations around USUs. Theme analysis of these extended turns demonstrated that the teachers maintained the cohesion of their explanations through multiple Rheme development. The following examples of Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's responses to their students' confusion about the grammar points through the use of multiple Rheme development were noted in the conversations discussed previously for ideational meanings analysis (see section 4.4.1). First, I present analysis of Ms. Wells' conversation followed by analysis of Ms. Palani's conversation.

To review, Ms. Wells' classroom conversation was a discussion around the USU, *When I arrived I felt confused *that the Americans spoke faster than I thought* (see Appendix H for full

conversation). In our interview, Ms. Wells identified the example as a USU because she was surprised that the students at the advanced level did not know the collocations appropriate with the adjective, *confused*. Ms. Wells expected that the student would have known at this point, because of previous English grammar classes, that *confused* is typically followed by prepositions such as *about* or *by* before a noun clause. To clarify the confusion, Ms. Wells provided students with strategies and examples of collocations using an online corpus and an online dictionary site.

The excerpt is from the beginning of this conversation during which Ms. Wells attempted to elicit the correct collocations from a student. In the excerpt, Ms. Wells addressed the student's confusion after three turns during which the student could not provide the correct response to what collocation goes with *confused*.

Excerpt 4.19

1 T: What do we say with confused? What if we just want a noun? I was confused?

(teacher cues student)

S3: *(student offers an answer)* That.

T: No. We don't say, confused that. You know, what we say with confused?

5 S3: *(student offers an answer)* With?

T: No? Anyone know? Okay. So—

S3: *(student offers the same answer)* With?

T: No no no... you know that you're not sure of—of something...this is what I would recommend *(teacher gives advice to students for they unsure about a collocation)*... COCA American Corpus? This website? Go to COCA American
10 Corpus. Type in the word. *(typing)* Ooops sorry. That's the answer. *(deleting answer)* You type in a word. *(typing)* This will give you 12,000 sentences with

‘confused’ in it. So, let’s look at these sentences (*scrolling through sentences on computer and this is projected for the students to see*). There we go. ‘Confused
15 about’. Let’s see—what was our sentence? No. ‘Confused about’ wouldn’t fit here, right (*teacher realizes that the collocation would not work in the student’s sentence*)?

In the first six turns of the excerpt, Ms. Wells and her student search for the correct collocation. In turn seven, Ms. Wells recognized her student’s confusion and decided to provide a strategy for the students to use, COCA American Corpus. The first mention of COCA American Corpus was implicit in the Rheme of the clause, *this is what I would recommend* (Ex. 4.19, lines 9-10). The Rheme, *is what I would recommend*, referred to COCA American Corpus, which she directly stated after using a minor clause. Continuing with Ms. Wells’ turn, COCA American Corpus provided the Themes for the next six clauses in her turn. That is, the next six clauses had different Themes that related to the COCA American Corpus. For example, the Themes *go*, *type*, and *this* in the clauses *Go to COCA American Corpus*, *Type in the word*, and *This will give you 12,000 sentences with ‘confused’ in it* all referred to how to use the corpus and how it might be helpful to resolve the student’s confusion. Then, the Themes *look*, *there*, and *confused about* in the clauses *So, let’s look at these sentences*, *There we go*, and *‘Confused about’ wouldn’t fit here* referred to the results of using the corpus.

Additionally, the Rhemes of these new clauses each provided new information about the corpus, despite the fact that the corpus was not particularly useful as a way to solve the student’s grammatical problem. The first three Rhemes each provided new information on how to use the corpus. For example, one Rheme provided information about where to go (*COCA American*

‘by’ or ‘about’. So, if you—if you have a question, maybe you can always do collocations or you can do the COCA American Corpus. Those are good strategies, especially with verbs plus prepositions, right? Because those are confusing.

The first mention of finding collocations online occurred as the Rheme of the clause, *Did someone tell you about collocations?*(Ex. 4.20, line 1) The Rheme, *tell you about collocations*, provided the Themes of most of the new clauses in her turn. For example, *Oxford Dictionary* in the clause *Oxford Dictionary is good* referred to a site for finding collocations. *Those* in the clause *Those are the two ones we use* referred to examples of collocations. These clauses also provided new information about the online dictionary sites in their Rhemes. For example, Ms. Wells identified Oxford dictionary as a good site with the Rheme *is good*. She also identified the correct collocations through the Rheme *are the two one we use*. Additionally, Ms. Wells accomplished two more tasks in this excerpt. First, the clause *We can't use 'that'* referred back to the original problematic USU in which the student used the collocation *confused that*. Second, Ms. Wells referred back to the last example of Thematic development, the COCA American Corpus, with the complex clause, *if you have a question, maybe you can always do collocations or you can do the COCA American Corpus*.

Like the last excerpt, in this excerpt, Ms. Wells did not provide a cohesive extended explanation of the grammar, but a cohesive set of directions to advise the students. First, the Themes of the new clauses mostly related to using an online dictionary site for identifying correct collocations. Second, the Rhemes of the new clauses provided new information about the online dictionary site in her attempt to provide her students with a strategy to address their

grammatical questions and difficulties. In addition, in this excerpt, Ms. Wells accomplished two more tasks that brought further cohesion to her advice about finding correct collocations after adjectives. First, she reminded the students about the initial strategy (the online corpus) that they had discussed. Second, she connected the conversation back to the student's USU about the use of *confused that*. By connecting the conversation back to the student's original grammatical problem, Ms. Wells puts closure on the conversation prompted by the USU and re-directs the students' attention to the correct collocation "confused about". Despite the fact that this particular collocation still did not correct the student's ungrammatical sentence, the textual analysis indicates that the student's USU provided the teacher with an opportunity to remind students about the various resources they have to answer their own grammatical queries and check their use of collocations.

4.4.3.2 Ms. Palani's classroom conversation.

Similar to Ms. Wells' conversation, Ms. Palani's classroom conversation illustrated how she addressed her student's confusion about a grammar point through multiple Rheme development. However, unlike Ms. Wells, who provided strategies for her students to use to verify the accuracy of their grammar or to inform themselves about a grammatical issue, Ms. Palani addressed her student's grammar confusion directly with precise definitions and local examples of the grammar in the context of the student's utterance.

The example classroom conversation for Ms. Palani was a discussion around the USU, *But we have later* (see Appendix K for full conversation). In this classroom conversation, the students had just finished a grammar exercise on the topic of the simple present versus the present progressive. One worksheet example caused confusion for the students: *(You/come)_____ to the cinema later?* The correct answer to this question would be: *Are you*

Then, Ms. Palani expresses the Rheme as the Themes for the other clauses in her turn. In this case, the Theme was future time. The Theme of future time is seen in Ms. Palani's subsequent clauses with the Themes *It* (referring to the utterance), *when*, and *the present progressive* in the clauses *It's still asking about an action about coming* and *when we were saying that the present progressive does not necessarily mean at this particular moment*. In these clauses, the Themes related back to the concept of future time while the Rhemes provided new information about the definition of present progressive for future actions. Ms. Palani continued with the Theme of future time by providing an example question, *are you cooking dinner tonight*, which used the present progressive for expressing future actions.

As shown in this excerpt, Ms. Palani's uptake of the student's Rheme, *Later*, as the Theme for the clauses of her extended explanation of the grammar was cohesive in two ways. First, Ms. Palani addressed the concept of future time in each clause through the Themes of her clauses. Second, Ms. Palani provided new information about future time in each clause as seen in the Rhemes of her clauses. Like Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani provided a cohesive explanation related to the grammar. Yet, unlike Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani provided her students with definitions and examples related to the student's question to clarify the grammatical confusion. What is also apparent from this interaction is that, unlike Ms. Wells, Ms. Palani appeared to understand the nature of the grammatical confusion and ways to go about addressing it directly and succinctly.

Continuing with the conversation, Ms. Palani again utilized her student's question as the Theme for most of the other clauses in her turn. This time, Ms. Palani responded to the student's question about using the auxiliary verb *will* to express future time.

Excerpt 4.22

1 S3: I can't use 'will'?

T: You can. You can use ‘will’. Are you saying like— if I’m asking— so instead of saying, are you cooking dinner tonight? I can say, will you cook dinner tonight?
And that’s in the future.

In this excerpt, the student uttered the clause, “I can’t use will” (Ex. 4.21, line 1). In this clause, *can’t use will* is the Rheme of the clause. Ms. Palani responded to the student by repeating the Rheme of the clause with, “You can. You can use will.” (Ex. 4.21, line 2). The use of the student’s Rheme shows that her responses respond directly to the student’s contribution and works with it in her examples that follow. The Theme of her next two clauses continued with comparing two examples of the grammar that incorporate the student’s question about *will*: *are you cooking dinner tonight* and *will you cook dinner tonight*. With this comparison, Ms. Palani accomplished two things. First, Ms. Palani restated a previous example of using the present progressive to express future actions (*are you cooking dinner tonight*). Second, Ms. Palani compared the example (*are you cooking dinner tonight*) with another option for indicating an action in the future (*will you cook dinner tonight*). Finally, Ms. Palani concluded the Thematic development with, “And that’s in the future” (Ex. 4.21, line 4). The pronoun *that* referred to the question, *will you cook dinner tonight?*, and therefore, Ms. Palani continued using the student’s Rheme until the end of her turn. In this excerpt again, Ms. Palani’s uptake of the student’s question through an extended explanation of the grammar was cohesive. First, Ms. Palani used the student’s Rheme as the Theme of her clauses. Second, Ms. Palani provided new information with each clause to clarify the grammar in her own way. This new information was either definitions of the grammar or examples of the grammar. Thus, Ms. Palani’s cohesive explanation

of the grammar provided definitions and examples of the grammar to clarify the grammatical question posed by her student.

In sum, my analysis of the textual metafunction revealed that both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani responded to their students' confusion about grammar with extended explanations about grammar through multiple Rheme development. While both Ms. Wells and Ms. Palani responded to their students' confusion through multiple Rheme development, the difference between the teachers was that Ms. Palani's multiple Rheme development provided the student with definitions and examples of the local grammatical issue. Conversely, Ms. Wells' multiple Rheme development did not directly address the grammatical issue but rather provided the students with strategies to answer their own grammatical queries. Based on these findings, it appears that Ms. Palani addressed her student's grammar confusion directly with explanations and examples, while Ms. Wells addressed her student's grammar confusion indirectly with problem-solving strategies for checking for the accuracy of their collocations. However, these examples are only a few snapshots of the teachers' responses to USUs. Earlier in the chapter, I explained that the teachers responded to USUs in many ways (see Section 4.2). SFL analysis of all the response types can paint a clearer picture of how the teachers responded to their students' USUs, the ways that clarify immediate problems or maintain confusion, and the kind of knowledge and experience teachers need to address the unexpected. Nonetheless, the two different responses revealed here raise the question of the quality of the teachers' responses to USUs, a point I will discuss in the next chapter.

4.4.4 Conclusion.

Research question four focused on the function of ESL teachers' responses to unanticipated student utterances (USUs) in the L2 grammar classroom. SFL analysis in this study provided a fine-grained analysis of the usefulness and function of the teachers' responses to USUs by understanding how ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings were realized in the classroom conversations. These three metafunctions were analyzed in the context of USUs to better understand how the conversation around the USU was constructed (i.e., the ideational metafunction), the role that the teachers and students played in the conversation (i.e., the interpersonal metafunction), and the manner in which the conversation unfolded (i.e., the textual metafunction).

In the study, all three levels of meaning complemented each other to understand teacher-student interactions in Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's grammar classes when USUs occurred. The ideational metafunction of the conversations revealed that both Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's responses to USUs constructed didactic conversations featuring explicit grammar instruction to clarify confusing grammatical concepts. This point was further supported by findings related to the interpersonal metafunction of the teachers' responses to USUs. The interpersonal metafunction revealed that the teachers had more extended turns than their students, and that the teachers' language allowed them to maintain their turns and their position as grammar authorities and sources of information in the classroom. However, the textual metafunction of the conversations revealed a positive characteristic of these extended didactic turns. Although the teachers had extended didactic turns in the conversations around the USUs, their extended turns responded to the students' concerns about the grammar in a cohesive manner. Thus, both Ms. Wells' and Ms. Palani's classrooms appeared to be places in which the teachers responded to the

students' USUs (mostly confusion about the grammar) with mainly cohesive explanations related the confusing grammar points, albeit in different ways (strategies vs. explanation and clarification). What remains to be determined is whether or not these cohesive, extended, and didactic explanations of the grammar are beneficial to grammar learning. The advantages and disadvantages of teacher responses to USUs for grammar learning will be discussed in the next chapter.

5.0 DISCUSSION

In this study, I explored the role of unanticipated student utterances (USUs) in an adult ESL grammar classroom. Specifically, the study focused on teachers' perceptions of and responses to USUs, the students' perceptions of USUs, and the function of teachers' responses to USUs in the ESL grammar classroom through SFL analysis. The findings suggested that overall the ESL teachers in the study had more positive perceptions of USUs than negative. Additionally, most teachers were receptive to responding to USUs in their classrooms. However, the teachers' receptiveness to responding to USUs in their classrooms depended on the USUs' relevancy to the course content (e.g., the grammar point), or the perceived impact of the USUs on their students' L2 learning. Furthermore, the findings from the two case studies of the teachers' classrooms provided insight into how teachers respond to USUs, the students' perceptions of how their teachers responded to USUs, and the function of the teachers' responses to the USUs in the L2 grammar classroom.

This chapter presents a discussion based on the findings from the study. The chapter is organized in three sections. First, the chapter presents findings that emerged from the study and discusses them in the context of the literature on second language (L2) learning and teaching, specifically, teacher improvisation, teacher education, and discourse analysis of ESL classrooms. Three main topics of interest for discussion emerged from the findings on USUs in an adult ESL grammar classroom: (1) the critical role of teacher responses to USUs, (2) the critical role of

teacher education for both novice and experienced L2 teachers for preparing them to respond to USUs, and (3) the power of SFL analysis of classroom conversations as an alternative in-depth approach for understanding teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom when USUs occur. After I discuss the three main topics, I propose future research related to the topic of understanding teacher responses to USUs and to their potential for language learning.

5.1 THE CRITICAL ROLE OF TEACHER RESPONSES TO USUS

Although the original task of the research was to discover the role of USUs in the ESL grammar classroom, what emerged as an important finding was the critical role of teacher responses to the USUs. USUs were identified by the teachers in this study as occurring frequently and playing both a positive and negative role in the classroom. It was also revealed during this investigation that the true value of addressing USUs during L2 teaching and their potential role in grammar learning relied on the ways that teachers responded to their students' unanticipated statements and questions. This finding extends the previous research on the effect of unanticipated language on L2 teaching (Bailey, 1996; Boyd, 2012; Cadorath & Harris, 1998) by providing further evidence of the significance of teacher responses to USUs. To understand the importance of this finding, two additional questions are taken under consideration: When and how should L2 teachers respond to USUs?

The questions of when and how L2 teachers respond to USUs relates to the concept of teacher decision-making in the classroom. Due to the unanticipated nature of USUs, L2 teachers need to be able to make *in-the-moment* decisions about how to respond to USUs. Some researchers have discussed teacher in-the-moment decision making in terms of teacher

improvisation in the classroom (Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986; van Lier, 1991). These researchers advocate the idea that teachers need to be prepared to react to the unpredictable situations of the classroom, and at times, improvise and depart from their lesson plans to support student learning. In order for L2 teachers to improvise to support student learning, the findings of this study suggest that teachers need to: (1) promptly determine the value of the USUs to grammar learning and (2) respond to the USU in a manner that facilitates L2 grammar learning.

As a first step, L2 teachers need to promptly determine the value of the USUs to grammar learning. The teachers in the study reported that although they would frequently respond to USUs, not all USUs were of value to the classroom. For example, the teachers discussed the importance of the USU being relevant to the grammar topic and the focus of the grammar lesson and the importance of responding to some USUs based on their belief that deviating from their lesson plan to address the issue will actually promote L2 learning. Previous literature on the topic of teacher improvisation in the classroom claims that the teacher's ability to determine the relevancy and effectiveness of the unplanned nature of the classroom can be linked two factors: (1) to the teacher's knowledge of the content of the course (Sawyer, 2004) and (2) to the teacher's knowledge of his or her students' abilities (Harlow, 2009; Windschitl, 2009). In relation to this study, I would argue that for L2 grammar teachers to make effective in-the-moment decisions about USUs that support L2 learning, they should have both a thorough conceptual understanding of grammar topics in the curriculum and the ability to diagnose their students' actual and potential grammatical knowledge and abilities (i.e., the students' ZPDs). I discuss these two points in detail in the next section on teacher education.

Second, L2 teachers must consider if a response to an USU would facilitate L2 grammar learning. The findings of this study revealed that the majority of the teachers in the program

reported that they responded frequently to USUs in a manner that encouraged discussion about grammar with their students if the USU was relevant to the grammar topic and students' learning (see section 4.1). The two teachers in this case study attempted to implement such action in their teaching (see section 4.2). The three common response types of the two teachers in the case study -- elaborated explanation of the grammar, USU as a teaching tool, and student self- or peer- correction -- seemingly encouraged student participation in the L2 learning process. That is, the teachers' common response types seemingly encouraged collaborative learning between the teacher and the students. Collaborative L2 grammar instruction between teachers and students is supported by recent research that argues that L2 learning and development occurs through dialogic interactions between the teacher and the students (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992; Glisan & Donato, 2017; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). The role of the teacher in such collaborations is to diagnose his or her students' ZPDs and to then provide mediation that the students require for L2 learning and development. It was not within the capacity of this study to investigate the students' L2 learning and development. Nonetheless, the teachers' common responses to the USUs, which encouraged collaborative learning, may have had potential for facilitating their students' L2 learning and development.

Although the teachers attempted to encourage collaborative learning between the teacher and the students, close examination of the two teachers' conversations around the USUs demonstrated that not all of the interactions between students and teacher were collaborative. SFL analysis of the two teachers' classroom conversations revealed that at times the teachers would provide extended didactic explanations of the grammar without ever collaborating with their students or involving them in the discussion through, for example, questioning, prompting, or providing clues and hints. Such extended didactic turns appear to go against recent trends in

collaborative L2 grammar learning; yet, it could be argued that such extended turns by the teacher may have an important role to play during instruction.

Walsh (2006) argues that extended teacher turns for explanations (in Walsh's terms *managerial mode*) have a place in the L2 grammar classroom based on his framework for analyzing teacher talk in L2 classroom interactions. According to Walsh, if the teacher's goal is to "refer learners to specific materials" (p. 67) such extended teachers turns are useful. In this study, one of Ms. Wells' extended turns referred her students to online resources that could help them answer their own grammatical queries. However, based on Walsh's classroom modes of instruction, it could also be argued that Ms. Wells' timing of the information was not appropriate. *Managerial mode* tends to occur at the beginning of the lesson, or when changing from one activity to another. Ms. Wells' extended turns occurred during a homework review with the objective of checking for students' accuracy with a specific grammatical form. In Walsh's framework, reviewing homework for grammatical accuracy would not be considered a *managerial mode* of instruction but rather the *skills and systems mode*. In this mode, the teacher may still use extended turns to scaffold L2 learning. However, in contrast to *managerial mode*, the pedagogical goal in *skills and systems mode* is to provide language practice through different pedagogical moves such as corrective feedback, and not to refer students to resources. In terms of this study, Walsh would agree that extended teacher turns in response to USUs for grammar explanations have a place in the L2 grammar classroom. However, based on his framework, Walsh would most likely also argue that the teachers in this study need to align their classroom modes and pedagogical goals in order to better support their students' L2 grammar learning.

Walsh's classroom modes and pedagogical goals fall under the umbrella of goal-oriented teacher talk and return us to the initial questions of when and how USUs are addressed by L2

teachers. It appears that in addition to the L2 teacher's knowledge of the grammatical concepts and the L2 teacher's knowledge of his or her students' abilities, the L2 teachers' awareness of their talk during teacher-student interactions also factor into determining when and how L2 teachers respond to USUs to support L2 grammar learning. Based on these three factors, it may be sufficient to say that making decisions to respond to USUs and providing a response to USUs that facilitates L2 grammar learning is not a simple task. The complexity of responding to USUs requires training that prepares L2 teachers to address USUs appropriately by becoming aware of the goals of their responses, when a response is appropriate, and how their responses are discursively constructed.

5.2 THE CRITICAL ROLE OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education must prepare both novice and experienced L2 teachers to address USUs effectively in their grammar classrooms given the frequency of their occurrence. As discussed in the previous section, teacher education needs to address three factors to prepare L2 teachers to respond to USUs: (1) L2 teacher's conceptual knowledge of grammar, (2) the L2 teacher's knowledge of his or her students' abilities, and (3) the L2 teacher's awareness of teacher talk in response to USUs.

First, L2 teachers need to have strong conceptual knowledge of the grammar content of their courses. Currently, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) standards for ESL teachers of adults and children both emphasize the importance of a teacher's native-like proficiency in social and academic English (Staehr Fenner & Kuhlman, 2012; TESOL International Association, 2008). However, the TESOL standards simply require ESL teachers to

take basic courses in linguistics (Staehr Fenner & Kuhlman, 2012) or sit for formal language testing (e.g., TOEFL or IELTS) (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014) to demonstrate their native-like proficiency in the English language. Staehr Fenner and Kuhlman (2012) state that introductory courses in linguistics do not by themselves provide the teachers with conceptual knowledge of the language as a system of meanings. Lantolf and Poehner (2014) advance the idea of a “formal study [of conceptual knowledge of the language] in teacher education programs” that goes beyond a focus on forms and grammar rules (p. 210). They argue that these formal courses should require in-depth language analysis focusing on the relationship of form, function, *and* meaning, an argument that is also made by Larsen-Freeman (2003).

To prepare L2 teachers with the conceptual knowledge of the grammar content necessary to respond to USUs, I also argue for rigorous L2 teacher education that focuses on the form, function, and meaning of grammatical forms. Lantolf and Poehner (2014) argue for the teaching of theories of cognitive linguistics (CL) in teacher preparation programs or advanced grammar courses in modern language departments to support a teacher’s comprehensive understanding of the grammatical relationship of form, function, and meaning. In addition to CL, I would also propose Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as a viable option for developing L2 teachers’ conceptual knowledge of language. As systematic theory of language, SFL provides multiple dimensions of meaning-making to assist teachers in understanding the grammatical relationship of a particular form to its meaning and function in texts. Recent research on SFL-based ESL instruction has demonstrated that ESL teachers’ knowledge of SFL provides teachers with a powerful meaning-making tool for a deeper conceptual understanding of language (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteiza, 2007; Gebhard, Chen, Grahman, & Gunawan, 2013). Thus, I support the previous calls for L2 teachers’ development of their conceptual understandings of grammar

through CL and SFL. I support these calls by advocating for a rigorous study of the conceptual underpinnings of language to be included in or required as a pre-requisite by L2 teacher education programs.

Second, L2 teacher education needs to prepare teachers to become aware of their students' abilities in order for teachers to respond effectively to USUs. In Vygotskian terms, L2 teachers need to be able to diagnose their students' ZPDs and decide on how to mediate their students' learning within the students' ZPDs during collaborative interactions. This study has shown that USUs can instigate learning opportunities during teacher-student interactions focused on solving grammatical problems. More importantly, this study has shown that the teacher's response to USUs plays a critical role in the interactions. The importance of the teacher's responses is supported by SCT, which places a focus on the teacher's verbal mediation during classroom interactions as consequential to L2 learning (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992; Donato & Brooks, 2004; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). In these studies, the teacher's ability to recognize his or her students' knowledge and to work with students' abilities had positive effects on the students' L2 learning.

One particular approach to L2 teaching that focuses on the teacher's ability to recognize his or her students' abilities and to work within the students' abilities to facilitate L2 learning is Dynamic Assessment (DA). The DA approach appears to be particularly relevant to the issue of USUs in grammar classes and the ways that teachers might orient themselves in their responses to these unexpected utterances. Therefore, DA could be a potential way to train teachers to respond to USUs. Stemming from the idea that "in the ZPD, instruction leads development" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 327), DA foregrounds the importance of the teacher's ability to diagnose the learners' ZPDs. That is, the primary focus of DA is for the teacher to use diagnostic

dialogue in a collaborative manner with the students to mediate the students' language development. Studies in DA have demonstrated that the teacher's ability to diagnose the learners' ZPDs through both scripted and unscripted mediation can facilitate L2 grammar learning and development within the ZPD (Anton, 2009; Davin, 2013; Lantolf & Poehner, 2011). An important aspect of the scripted and unscripted mediation is the teacher prompts, which help to assess the students' grammatical knowledge and abilities. Based on the work of Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) and Lantolf and Poehner (2014), Davin, Herazo, and Sagre (2016) argue that the teachers' prompts should be graduated (moving from implicit to explicit questioning and prompts) and contingent (responding to the learners' responses) to facilitate L2 learning.

DA that uses unscripted teacher mediation (also known as interactionist DA) could be a potential method for diagnosing the students' abilities when USUs occur because USUs are unpredictable. As discussed in the review of literature (see section 2.2.2), interactionist DA focuses on the mediated process of learning during which the teacher's mediation is not scripted, and "assistance emerges from the interaction between the examiner and the learner, and is therefore highly sensitive to the learner's ZPD" (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004, p.54). Using interactionist DA, a teacher could, through graduated and contingent prompts, gain an understanding of both the students' grammatical knowledge and abilities and why the USU occurred. Additionally, using interactionist DA, the teacher could provide mediation within the students' ZPDs that has potential for supporting L2 grammar learning. Since USUs can promote potential learning opportunities during interactions between the teacher and the students, L2 teachers need to receive training in diagnosing their students' abilities (see Davin, Herazo, & Sagre, 2016 for a study of training novice teachers in DA techniques). Once the teachers are able to diagnose their students' abilities, they then can respond to their students' USUs in a manner

that supports L2 learning. However, the teachers' ability to respond to their students' USUs in a manner that supports L2 learning may not be a simple task. As I discussed earlier in the chapter, the appropriateness and effectiveness of the teachers' responses to the students' USUs is dependent on two other importance factors: (1) the L2 teacher's conceptual knowledge of the grammar content and (2) the L2 teacher's awareness of teacher talk in response to USUs.

Lastly, professional development programs for educating L2 teachers need to prepare teachers to be aware of teachers' talk in response to USUs, so that teachers can have a better understand of when and how to respond to USUs. The importance of teacher talk was briefly discussed in relation to a teacher's mediating prompts in DA and in understanding the pedagogical goals of particular modes of instruction and the kind of talk that constructs these modes (Walsh, 2006). To review, within DA, teacher mediation through prompts should be graduated and contingent to improve the students' performance in their L2 (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). In accordance, Walsh argues that teacher talk should be contingent on the pedagogical goals of the lesson. In both DA and Walsh's framework, a teacher's contingent talk is an important feature. A teacher's contingent talk is of utmost importance because a teacher's contingent talk, in this case a teacher's contingent responses to USUs, in the classroom has potential to facilitate L2 learning (Boyd, 2012). Based on the Vygotskian concept of mediation occurring through the use of mediational tools, the most important being language (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), a teacher's contingent responses to USUs could function as a tool to diagnose learner difficulties and to mediate possible L2 grammar learning by involving the learners in solutions to their own difficulties. Again, these contingent responses depend on teachers' in the moment responsivity (van Lier, 1991; Walsh, 2006), which further depends on the teachers' knowledge of his or her students and the teachers' content knowledge. van Lier (1996)

emphasizes the importance of contingency in classroom discourse and students' language development. As he described, "contingent utterances connect the individual to the social, the internal to the external, the word to the world" (p. 172). Using contingent utterances, such as contingent responses to their students' USUs, teachers could connect USUs to their students' lives and previous language knowledge. Through these connections, students may better understand grammar concepts in their L2. Therefore, teacher talk (e.g., a teacher's contingent response to USUs) plays a critical role in the potential of USUs for L2 grammar learning, and therefore, L2 teachers need to increase their awareness of their talk during conversations around USUs.

Moreover, it is important to note that teacher talk can be varied; yet, teacher talk needs to be purposeful. In the study, the two teachers had more extended turns than their students and employed didactic talk frequently to explain confusing grammar points. While some may argue that collaborative dialogue is important for L2 learning (see Chapter Two for literature), others argue that collaborative dialogue is one of many methods of facilitating L2 learning (Christie, 2005; Walsh, 2006). As I previously mentioned, Walsh (2006) discusses this idea in terms of the connection of teacher talk to the pedagogical goals of instruction. Similarly, Christie (2002, 2005), based on Bernstein's (1990, 2000) theory discusses the notion of pedagogic discourse and the importance of both regulative and instructional registers. In particular, Christie describes how moments of teacher explanation have value and can support learning during a lesson. She continues to say that even the criticized Initiation, Response, Followup or Evaluation (IRF/E) patterns can have a positive effect on student participation in the classroom depending on the teacher's management of classroom discourse through his or her talk. All in all, whether purposeful or contingent, teacher talk may only have the ability to unleash the potential of USUs

to promote L2 learning if teachers are aware of their talk in the classroom.

5.3 THE POWER OF SFL ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM CONVERSATIONS

In addition to SFL being a source to develop conceptual knowledge of grammar for teachers (see section 5.1), SFL can also function as an analytical tool for teachers to understand how they respond to students when USUs occur in the classroom. Although well-established tools for analyzing classroom discourse currently exist (e.g., Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis), SFL analysis of classroom conversations is an alternative tool for understanding teacher-student interactions when USUs occurred. As discussed in the review of literature (see section 2.2), similar SCT studies on teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom have analyzed classroom discourse through interactive discourse analysis (Davin, 2013; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992) and microgenetic analysis (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). It is not to say that these other forms of classroom discourse analysis did not yield meaningful findings. What I argue is that in addition to these well-established tools for classroom discourse analysis, SFL analysis could also be used for analyzing classroom conversations around USUs. Researchers who have used SFL to analyze pedagogical discourse (Achugar, 2009; Christie, 2002, 2005; Mohan & Beckett, 2001; Rose, 2014; Sharpe, 2008) support the use of SFL as a powerful and systematic method of classroom discourse analysis. In particular, Christie (2002) claims that the advantages of using the SFL framework to analyze classroom discourse in comparison to other forms of analysis is that SFL provides a delicate linguistic analysis of classroom interactions through multiple layers of meaning. In her 2005

study, Christie conducted an SFL analysis of teachers' pedagogical discourse for patterns of language use and the consequences of this pedagogical discourse on students' learning. She concluded her study with the claim that understanding patterns of language use may provide teachers with a better understanding of how to use language "for the realization of pedagogical goals" (p. 202). Christie's discussion of the relationship between the teacher's language and pedagogical goals echoes Walsh's (2006) SETT framework in which the teacher's talk, the classroom mode, and pedagogical goals are intertwined. SETT provides teachers with the metalanguage to describe and identify the various modes of teacher talk (e.g., managerial mode, materials mode, skills and systems mode) necessary to synchronize teacher talk with the class objectives. Perhaps, SFL analysis of classroom conversations could be used in conjunction with Walsh's (2006) SETT framework to make teachers aware of the culture of the classroom when USUs occur and to prepare teachers to respond to USUs in a manner that supports L2 grammar learning.

One of my goals in conducting this study was to add to the existing research that has used SFL classroom discourse analysis for the analysis of teacher-student interactions in the L2 context (Achugar, 2009; Mohan & Beckett, 2001). In this study, SFL analysis proved to be a powerful tool for a comprehensive understanding of teacher-student interactions in L2 grammar classrooms when USUs occurred. Through multiple forms of analysis within SFL, three different yet complementary layers of meaning (ideational, interpersonal and textual) were revealed. These three layers of meanings helped me to understand clearly teacher-student interactions when USUs occurred. First, analysis of the ideational metafunction and the interpersonal metafunction of the conversations revealed a negative image of both teachers' responses to USUs. At times, the teachers' responses to USUs were extended didactic explanations that

helped the teachers maintain their authoritative positioning in the classroom as “the knower” (Eggins, 2013). For example, one teacher’s extended responses focused on showing the students how to use online strategies for self-inquiry of the grammar during which little student collaboration between teacher and students occurred. However, the final analysis, the textual metafunction, revealed one positive characteristic of these extended didactic turns. These extended didactic turns were cohesive responses to the students’ concerns about the grammar. For example, the same teacher’s extended response to the student’s USU with explanations of online strategies was organized and detailed. The organization and detail of the explanation had potential to provide the students with useful information (i.e., strategies) that may have had the potential to support their L2 grammar learning. Thus, SFL, through multiple layers of analysis, provided a robust picture of both teachers’ responses to USUs. SFL analysis demonstrated that the teachers’ classrooms were places in which the teachers were attempting to be responsive to their students’ needs through their reactions to USUs.

In conclusion, three main topics of interest for discussion emerged from the findings on USUs in an adult ESL grammar classroom: (1) the critical role of teacher responses to USUs, (2) the critical role of teacher education for both novice and experienced L2 teachers for responding to USUs, and (3) the power of SFL analysis of classroom conversations as an alternative approach for understanding teacher-student interactions in the L2 classroom when USUs occur. These three main topics of interest raised questions about the role of the teachers and students in classroom conversations around USUs, the role of teacher education in addressing USUs, and the context in which USUs occur. In the next section, I propose future research to address additional questions about the role of USUs in ESL classrooms.

5.4 FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study support the fact that USUs have an impact on L2 classroom conversations. Moreover, the findings support the fact that understanding the influence of USUs on teachers' responses to their students is critical because of its potential impact on students' L2 learning. To enhance the understanding of the influence of USUs in the L2 classroom, future research could address several issues: (1) the impact of USUs during peer interactions, (2) student perceptions of USUs, (3) larger episodes of interactions and a larger sample size of classrooms, (4) the impact of USUs in different skill areas, and (5) the impact of teacher training on how L2 teachers manage USUs in their classrooms.

First, future researchers may consider research about the impact of USUs during peer interactions (i.e., pair and group work) in the L2 classroom. It was not within the scope of this study to collect data on peer interactions during the teachers' lessons. However, based on my classroom observations, I found that rich conversations about grammar occurred during peer interactions between the students, and between the teachers and the students. While the positive effect of peer interactions on L2 learning has been well-documented (Davin & Donato, 2013; Dobao, 2012; Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998), the effect of teachers' responses to USUs during peer interactions has not been examined. Moreover, future researchers may investigate the role of teacher responses to USUs during peer interactions for further understanding of the influence of USUs during peer interactions in the L2 classroom.

Second, future researchers may consider collecting data on students' perceptions of USUs. Although I attempted to collect rich data on students' perceptions of USUs, I found that the student focus group interviews (see Appendix E and F and section 4.3) did not provide adequate information to comprehensively address the students' perceptions of USUs. First, my

focus group interviews took place three to four weeks after the USUs occurred. Therefore, the students had a difficult time remembering the context of the situation even though I used video-based stimulated recall during the interviews. Additionally, many of the students' responses referred to their classroom and their teacher in general terms instead of focusing on the specific USU situations. The general nature of the students' responses leads to another limitation in the focus group interviews. As the researcher, I could have better directed the students' responses to my questions. With better direction of the students' responses during the interviews, I could have ensured that they answered the questions in a way that focused on the specific USU conversations.

For future researchers who wish to investigate further students' perceptions of USUs, I have two recommendations. First, I would recommend to future researchers to collect the students' perceptions about USUs as promptly as possible. Second, I would recommend to future researchers to be diligent about the way that they ask questions regarding the students' perceptions of USUs. With these recommendations in mind, future researchers may be more successful in investigating students' perceptions of USUs and the USUs' potential impact on the students' L2 learning.

Third, future researchers may consider analyzing larger episodes of teacher-student interactions and collecting a larger sample size of classrooms for analysis. While this study focused on the teachers' responses to USUs, class discourse cannot be fully understood without taking into consideration the students' voices. In the future, I would consider a stronger focus on the students' utterances during teacher-student interactions when USUs occur for a more comprehensive understanding of such interactions. Additionally, future researchers can collect a

larger sample size of classrooms to increase the saliency and the generalizability of the topic in the field.

Fourth, future researchers may consider the occurrence of USUs in other skills or content-area classrooms. This study focused on USUs in an adult ESL grammar classroom. Another study focused on unanticipated student responses in a fourth grade English Language Learner (ELL) science classroom (Boyd, 2012). USUs can occur in any L2 classroom at any proficiency level and for any age group. Future researchers may investigate USUs in L2 reading, writing, speaking and listening for children and adults. They may also investigate USUs in other content-area courses with ELLs. By expanding the focus of this research, L2 researchers and L2 teacher educators may gain a deeper understanding of what teachers need to know and need to be able to do to respond to USUs effectively.

Lastly, to address the critical role of teacher education, future researchers may consider conducting research on the impact of teacher training on how L2 teachers manage USUs in their classrooms. Using classroom videos similar to those in this study, future researchers can raise teachers' awareness about USUs and the various kinds of responses that may be made. L2 teachers can discuss the types of responses to USUs that have potential for facilitating L2 learning. As discussed previously, the potential of USUs for L2 learning depends on training L2 teachers on *when* to respond to USUs and *how* to respond to USUs. This L2 teacher training may also have to include additional training to expand the teachers' ability to diagnose their students' language abilities in the content area and to strengthen the teacher's conceptual knowledge of the content. Once the teachers have been trained to address USUs, the researchers can investigate the impact of the USU teacher training in the teachers' classrooms during L2 instruction.

5.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study explored the role of unanticipated student utterances (USUs) in an adult ESL grammar classroom. Specifically, the study focused on teachers' perceptions of and responses to USUs, the students' perceptions of USUs, and the function of teacher responses to USUs through SFL analysis. The study found that ESL teachers in this context perceived USUs to play both a positive and negative role in the classroom. Additionally, the teachers' responses to USUs varied based on their perceived value of the USUs. An in-depth look at the classroom conversations of the two teachers around USUs illustrated that these two ESL teachers frequently responded to their students' USUs to address their students' concerns about the grammar. The students of the two teachers responded with mixed feelings about how their teachers addressed their grammar concerns. That is, they did not always report to benefit from the classroom conversations around USUs. Although the teachers' responses may not have always appeared to have a positive impact on the students' L2 learning, the teachers' good intentions to address their students' grammar concerns were clear. In order to bridge the gap between well-intentioned teachers and ESL learners, teacher training and future research on USUs are critically important.

As an L2 researcher, investigating USUs in an adult ESL grammar classroom posed significant challenges yet reaped significant rewards. On the one hand, the task of collecting and analyzing the data for identifying USUs was particularly demanding and challenging. In order for me to identify the USUs, I needed to collect classroom video and audio data for two separate teachers, analyze the classroom video and audio data to identify particular instances of USUs, and interview the teachers about the data to confirm the presence of the USUs. This routine occurred within the span of two to three days. I repeated the routine for each classroom video (10

classroom sessions in total) over a three-week period. On the other hand, observing two experienced L2 teachers' classrooms and discussing their responses to USUs provided me with new insight into the nature of USUs in the L2 grammar classroom and how teachers perceived and responded to USUs that I would not have otherwise obtained.

My role as an L2 researcher in this study greatly influenced both my roles as an L2 teacher and L2 teacher educator. As an L2 teacher, I found myself more aware of USUs in my classroom and how I responded to my students' USUs. In order to respond to the USUs, I had to consider the value of the USUs to the students' learning and the timing of the USU. I found it to be a challenging task to consider both factors and make a good decision in the moment. On one hand, I would sometimes interrupt the lesson to respond contingently to the students' USUs, and later, I would rethink my decision based on further consideration of the value of the USU. On the other hand, I would sometimes not respond contingently to the students' USUs, and later, I would realize that a discussion around the USU could have been beneficial for my students. Due to my own experiences in the classroom and my research, as an L2 teacher educator, I began to emphasize the importance of USUs and teachers' responses to USUs in L2 classrooms in addition to the prescribed contents of the curriculum. With the knowledge that I obtained from this research, I developed my understanding of the importance of USUs as an L2 teacher, an L2 teacher educator, and an L2 researcher.

APPENDIX A

ADVANCED B LEVEL CURRICULUM NOTES¹¹

ADVANCED ESL GRAMMAR B ESL 151 01 CURRICULUM NOTES Revised December 2016

This information is for you, the instructor. Please use it together with other information you receive from your Curriculum Coordinator to guide your teaching.

Create your syllabus using the information in the *first part* of these Curriculum Notes, along with program policies in *Start of Semester Policies* document.

COURSE GOAL

A consolidation and extension of English grammar. Analysis and contextualized practice with forms, meanings, and functions prepares students to succeed in complex academic work.

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES

1. Give clear descriptions, express viewpoints and develop arguments using a range of complex sentence structures
2. Clarify, connect, and support ideas in extended discourse
3. Hypothesize about present, future and past events and situations

¹¹ Curriculum notes have been modified for the dissertation study. Curriculum notes may have been updated since the start of the study.

4. Describe and explain situations with connections to events or times in the past, present, and future
5. Incorporate opinions and quotations from other speakers and writers with appropriate attribution
6. Apply strategies to self-monitor and correct error independently in speech and writing.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

1. Use structures as specified in the Grammar Topic Guide in skill-based or integrated skills activities.
2. Participate in focused listening, reading and discussion to develop comprehension of the grammar forms, meanings, and discourse level use.
3. Listen, discuss, present, and take detailed notes during explanations.
4. Complete speaking and writing exercises to practice using grammar structures appropriately and accurately
5. Complete regular 2- page Writing Assignments using targeted grammar topics
6. Revise and edit work using self-monitoring strategies and instructor's written feedback
7. Participate in pair and small group activities to investigate, discuss and apply language structures
8. Practice analyzing academic reading and listening materials to discovery and comprehension
9. Practice using grammar structures correctly and fluently by completing independent exercises from the textbook and supplemental materials.

Grammar Topic Guide Checklist for Advanced B

TEXT: *Focus on Grammar 5, 4th ed.* (Maurer)

Workbook: *Focus on Grammar 5 Workbook*

GRADING GUIDELINES:

40% Tests, Quizzes, Projects

30% Exercises and Writing Assignments

30% MT and final exams

ATTENDANCE POLICY – see **program policies in Start of Semester.**

ACADEMIC INTEGRITY - see **program policies in Start of Semester.**

Guidelines for Grammar Instructors

Refer to the *Grammar Topic Guide* for specific structures to teach. Cover topics according to information in the guide.

COVERAGE:

Use the Focus on Grammar 5 textbook and the Workbook for extra practice and review. Use other supplemental material sparingly. Students need to be exposed to the structures and practice using them in order to build their understanding of how English grammar works. Include a variety of exercise types, and regular *listening, reading, speaking and writing* practice.

It is important to include all the structures specified in the *Grammar Topic Guide* at this level so that students will be prepared for the next level. Plan to select the most useful textbook sections and exercises. ***You won't have time to cover everything in the book.*** Help students understand that the class will not cover every exercise and that you, as the teacher, will navigate the material.

Please discuss concerns you have about content coverage with program director early in the semester.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL: Materials in C Hall 423; FOG Instructor audio CDs for listening exercises; FOG Teacher's Resource Disc with Diagnostic and Achievement Tests

HOMEWORK:

Give *daily* written homework and frequent short writing assignments. Regular written feedback on homework should be given at least twice a week, including correction of writing assignments with symbols for editing. Grades on these assignments should reflect students' use of the particular grammar structure being taught, not overall writing skills.

ASSESSMENT:

Use regular tests, assignments and quizzes to assess learning. The students' application of grammar in listening, speaking, reading and writing should be evaluated. Students should be tested at least every two weeks.

TUTORING:

Tutors can work with students on exercises from the *Focus on Grammar* textbook and workbook or from supplementary materials.

ESL LAB:

The lab has *Focus on Grammar* Student CDs on file in the lab. Students can repeat class listening assignments and complete additional assignments. *Grammar in Context* materials are also available in the lab for students to use for extra practice.

APPENDIX B

BASIC B LEVEL CURRICULUM NOTES¹²

BASIC B ESL GRAMMAR ESL 142 01

CURRICULUM NOTES Revised Dec. 2015

This information is for you, the instructor. Please use it together with other information you receive from your Curriculum Coordinator to guide your teaching.

Create your syllabus using the information in the *first part* of these Curriculum Notes, along with program policies in the *Start of Semester* document.

COURSE GOAL

Consolidation of foundational communicative competence in English. Contextualized practice with basic grammatical forms, meanings and functions enhances students' fluency and accuracy in reading, writing, speaking and listening

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES

¹² Curriculum notes have been modified for the dissertation study. Curriculum notes may have been updated since the start of the study.

1. Use simple and compound sentences to describe and explain familiar events, experiences and ideas.
2. Write and speak about common, everyday topics in the past, present, and future with appropriate accuracy and fluency.
3. Ask and answer questions about familiar topics and ideas.
4. Give advice, make requests, and express ability, preferences, and necessity using a limited range of expressions
5. Make simple comparisons of familiar places, objects, and people
6. Control and correct error with guidance; use strategies to independently identify and correct major errors.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

1. Use structures as specified in the *Guide to Grammar Topics* in reading, writing, speaking and listening activities.
2. Listen, take simple notes, and ask questions during explanations.
3. Participate in focused listening and reading activities to develop comprehension of the grammar forms and meanings.
4. Practice applying grammar appropriately, accurately and fluently in speaking and writing exercises.
5. Participate in small group or pair activities and in classroom conversation.
6. Complete regular Writing Assignments with paragraphs using the grammar structures.
7. Correct errors using the instructor's symbols and comments.
8. Practice using grammar structures correctly and fluently by completing independent exercises from the textbook and supplemental materials.

Grammar Topic Guide Checklist for Basic B

TEXT: *Focus on Grammar 2, 4th ed.* (Schoenberg)

Workbook: *Focus on Grammar 2 Workbook, 4th ed.* (Eckstut and Didier)

GRADING GUIDELINES:

40% Tests, Quizzes, Projects

30% Exercises and Writing Assignments

30% MT and final exams

ATTENDANCE POLICY – *see program policies in Start of Semester*

ACADEMIC INTEGRITY - *see program policies in Start of Semester.*

Guidelines for Grammar Instructors

Refer to the *Guide to Grammar Topics* for specific structures to teach. Cover topics according to information in the guide.

COVERAGE:

Use the Focus on Grammar 2 textbook and the Workbook for extra practice and review. Use other supplemental material sparingly. Students need to be exposed to the structures and practice using them in order to build their understanding of how English grammar works. Include a variety of exercise types, and regular *listening, reading, speaking and writing* practice.

It is important to include all the structures specified in the *Grammar Topic Guide* at this level so that students will be prepared for the next level. Plan to select the most useful textbook sections and exercises. ***You won't have time to cover everything in the book.*** Help students understand that the class will not cover every exercise and that you, as the teacher, will navigate the material.

Please discuss concerns you have about content coverage with program director early in the semester.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL: Materials in C Hall 423; FOG Instructor audio CDs for listening exercises; FOG Teacher's Resource Disc with Diagnostic and Achievement Tests

HOMEWORK:

Give *daily* written homework and frequent short writing assignments. Regular written feedback on homework should be given at least twice a week, including correction of writing

assignments with symbols for editing. Grades on these assignments should reflect students' use of the particular grammar structure being taught, not overall writing skills.

ASSESSMENT:

Use regular tests, assignments and quizzes to assess learning. The students' application of grammar in listening, speaking, reading and writing should be evaluated. Students should be tested at least every two weeks.

TUTORING:

Tutors can work with students on exercises from the *Focus on Grammar* textbook and workbook or from supplementary materials such as *Grammar in Context, Basic* and Azar's *Fundamentals of English Grammar*.

ESL LAB:

The lab has *Focus on Grammar* Student CDs on file in the lab. Students can repeat class listening assignments and complete additional assignments. *Grammar in Context* materials are also available in the lab for students to use for extra practice.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE¹³

ESL Teachers' Perceptions About Unanticipated Student Utterances in the Grammar Classroom

This part of the questionnaire will ask for basic demographic information.

Age:

Gender:

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Other (3)

Years you have been teaching ESL or EFL:

What qualifications do you currently hold to teach ESL? (Click all that apply.)

- Master's degree (1)
- Ph.D/Ed.D (2)
- TEFL/TESOL Certificate (3)

¹³ Questionnaire created and downloaded from Qualtrics site.

Which ESL populations have you taught grammar to in the past? (Click on all that apply.)

- Children (1)
- Teenagers (2)
- Adults (3)

Have you ever taught classes that focused only on grammar (e.g., Intermediate Grammar)?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Click on all the levels of ESL grammar that you have taught. (Please use your best judgment, as I understand that different programs use different labels for levels.)

- Beginner/Basic (1)
- Low-intermediate (2)
- Intermediate (3)
- High-intermediate (4)
- Advanced (5)
- Beyond Advanced (6)

At this point in time, and overall, how confident do you feel teaching ESL grammar? (Please provide additional information about your answer in the comment box. For example, I feel confident teaching Advanced grammar, but not Basic grammar.)

- Not Confident (1)
- Somewhat Confident (2)
- Confident (3)
- Very Confident (4)

Please provide additional information about your answer to the previous question in the box.
(For example, I feel confident teaching Advanced grammar, but not Basic grammar.)

Rank the levels of grammar by your experience teaching that level. (1= most experience teaching level; 6= least experience teaching level)

- _____ Beginner/Basic Grammar (1)
- _____ Low-Intermediate Grammar (2)
- _____ Intermediate Grammar (3)
- _____ High-Intermediate Grammar (4)
- _____ Advanced Grammar (5)
- _____ Beyond Advanced Grammar (6)

This part of the questionnaire will ask for your perceptions of a classroom phenomenon that I call unanticipated student utterances. I define an unanticipated student utterance (USU) as an utterance spoken by the student which the teacher has not anticipated as part of the discussion at hand. I also provide some examples of USUs below. However, this list is not exhaustive and you may think about other examples of such utterances that you have heard in your grammar classes.

Example 1: While teaching the conditional form in English, a teacher may say, “If I were president, I would reduce taxes. What would I do if I were president?” Anticipated utterance= “You would reduce taxes.” Unanticipated utterance = “You would spend more money on health care.”

Example 2: While teaching reported speech, the teacher-student interaction below may occur:

- 1 T: Did you have fun last night?
- 2 S1: I don't want to talk about it. (USU)

(Teacher and students laugh.)

3 T: You just need to report it. Okay, did you have fun last night? Report my words.

Example 3: While reviewing the present perfect, the students provide inaccurate forms that were not anticipated by the teacher. Anticipated utterance = "has showed". Unanticipated utterance = "has showing". Based on the definition of an unanticipated student utterance I provided above, please answer the questions below.

Q1 Have unanticipated student utterances ever occurred in your grammar classes?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If you answered yes to Q1, please continue on to Q2. If you answered no to Q1, please go to directly to Q5.

Q2 If you answered yes to Q1, please think about one grammar class that you teach/have taught in the past. How often do unanticipated student utterances occur in one grammar class in the course of the term?

- 2-3 times each class session (1)
- 1 time each class session (2)
- Every other class session (3)
- 2-3 times in a week for that class (4)
- 2-3 times in a month for that class (5)
- Never (6)

Q3 When unanticipated student utterances (USUs) occur, how often do you, as the instructor, respond to them on average?

- Never (1)
- Rarely (2)
- Sometimes (3)
- Most of the Time (4)
- Always (5)

Q4 Based on your answer to Q3, please explain why you do or do not respond to unanticipated student utterances in the L2 grammar classroom.

Q5 Whether you have had firsthand experience with unanticipated student utterances or not, please answer the following question. What role, if any, do unanticipated student utterances (USUs) play in the L2 grammar classroom?

- USUs do not play a role in the L2 grammar classroom. (1)
- USUs rarely have a role in the L2 grammar classroom. (2)
- USUs occasionally have a role in the L2 grammar classroom. (3)
- USUs often have a role in the L2 grammar classroom. (4)
- USUs always have a role in the L2 grammar classroom. (5)

Q6 If you answered USUs occasionally, often, or always have a role in the L2 grammar classroom, please elaborate further and explain your perception of the role unanticipated student utterances play in the L2 grammar classroom. For example: USUs occasionally have a role in my class because USUs add to the conversation about grammar.

Q7 If you have any examples of unanticipated student utterances from your own grammar teaching experience, please write them below.

Q8 If you have any comments or questions about unanticipated student utterances, please write your comments and questions below.

Q9 For the next portion of the research, I will be observing classes. Would you be open to me observing your classes?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Thank you for your time and your participation in the study. Please contact me at idc3@pitt.edu with any questions or concerns.

APPENDIX D

TEACHER INFORMAL INTERVIEW PROTOCOL¹⁴

Discuss the following questions during video stimulated recall:

1. Would you consider this instance an unanticipated student utterance? Why or why not?
2. Why did you respond to the utterance?
3. Why did you not respond to the utterance?
4. In this instance, did you feel that the unanticipated student utterance played a particular role in the interaction? Please describe.

¹⁴ Additional questions emerged during the interviews.

APPENDIX E

ADVANCED B STUDENT FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

A. Start with an ice-breaker.

B. Ask general questions about this particular week or unit of the course. Project on the board.

1. Had you learned noun clauses before this class?
2. What did you find confusing or difficult about noun clauses while you were learning them?
3. How do you feel about noun clauses now?
4. Was there anything useful that your teacher did that helped you learn?
5. Do you think that full class discussion about grammar helps you learn?
6. Do you think that listening to your classmates helps you learn?
7. Do you like when your teacher...
 - a. provides you with a sheet about the grammar?
 - b. explains the grammar to you?
 - c. lets you fix your grammar yourself?
 - d. types the examples for you on the word document?
 - e. uses examples from your life while teaching grammar?

C. Explain to the students that the instances you are showing them are ones in which their teacher identified the utterances as unanticipated student utterances. Your teacher was not expecting this question, error, or confusion.

1. 031116 (Video 4 00:10:35) “I suggest that you go to China Wok”
 - a. Do you think listening to your classmates answer questions like this helps you learn?
 - b. What do you think about the way your teacher answered his question? Do you like how she directly corrected the student?
 - c. Do you like when your teacher relates the grammar to your life?
2. 031816 (Video 2 00:07:05) Adverb versus noun clauses
 - a. What was confusing about adverb and noun clauses for you?
 - b. Do you like when your teacher presents confusing points to the entire class and discusses as a class?
 - c. Did you feel like you learned from this experience?
3. 031816 (Video 2 00:15:03) Confused that
 - a. What was confusing about the word that goes after “confused”?
 - b. What did you think about your teacher pointing you to the corpus? Would you or have you used this before?
 - c. Did you feel like you learned from this experience?
4. 031816 (Video 3 00:06:00) “Where have you been on Spring Break?”
 - a. Do you think listening to your classmates answer questions like this helps you learn?
 - b. What do you think about the way your teacher answered his question? Do you like how she directly re-explained the grammar?
 - c. What is confusing about present perfect and past?

APPENDIX F

BASIC B STUDENT FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

A. Start with an ice-breaker.

B. Ask general questions about this particular week or unit of the course. Project on the board for the students.

1. What did you find confusing about the present progressive?
2. How do you feel about the present progressive now?
3. Was there anything useful that your teacher did that helped you learn?
4. Do you think that full class discussion about grammar helps you learn?
5. Do you think that listening to your classmates helps you learn?
6. Do you like when your teacher...
 - a. points you to the grammar chart and notes?
 - b. explains everything to you?
 - c. gives examples from your life?
 - d. writes the errors on the board and then has you explain why you say that?

C. Explain to the students that the instances you are showing them are ones in which

their teacher identified the utterances as unanticipated student utterances. Your teacher was not expecting this question, error, or confusion.

5. 031116 (Video 2 00:11:30)
 - a. “What is Sarah like?”
 - i. Why was this question asked?
 - ii. Compare “What is she like?” “What does she like?”
 - iii. Did this moment help your understanding of asking questions in present progressive?
 - iv. Do you like when the teacher explains to you the grammar in this particular way?
6. 031116 (Video 4 00:07:33)
 - a. “Are you coming to the cinema later?”
 - i. Why did you ask this question?
 - ii. What do you think about when the teacher says, “You will learn this later?”
 - iii. Did this moment help you in anyway?
 - iv. What do you think when the teacher says, “For now, let’s learn this and then later you will learn more.”
7. 031416 (Video 3 around 12 minutes)
 - a. Verb “prefer”
 - i. What is difficult about the verb “prefer”?
 - ii. Did this moment help you with your understanding of the verb “prefer”? How?
 - iii. Do you like when the teacher asks you questions like “Do you prefer reading or grammar class?”

APPENDIX G

ADVANCED B USU CONVERSATION ONE

“I suggest that you go to China Wok.”

Students have just completed pair work on noun clauses. Ms. Wells wants to review noun clauses with relative pronoun omission.

- 1 T: Okay. It seems you're all—it's okay if you didn't quite finish. One more thing,
 keep— you can stay where you are. But I wanted to point out one more thing we
 didn't cover specifically on our handout that we had. Remember this handout that
 we did when we talked about noun clauses? (*pointing to handout*) What they
5 begin with, okay? We talked about the questions today, right? So, do you know
 why he isn't here today? (*typing example of noun clause on the word document*).
 It's not, do you know why isn't he here today (*referring to the noun clause*),
 right? Do you know why isn't, okay? The other thing that I wanted to mention is
 about *that*. *That* can be deleted if it's an object noun clause. And a lot of you—
10 you guys already do this. So, I wanted to see what you did with this exercise
 because you were doing it. So, Jean, where do you suggest I go for lunch?

(teacher eliciting example of noun clause from the student)

S1: I suggest that you go to China Wok. (USU)

(Students laugh)

15 S2: China Wok

T: China Wok? Okay. So, you wouldn't say, I suggest that you go to China Wok. You would say, I suggest you go to China Wok. You don't need the *that*. So...

S3: When can I delete it?

20 T: Anytime it's an object. Anytime. Anytime. So, even if you—even if you have something, right? Something—something he told me. Something my father told me that was very important is, right? It's not something that my father told me. It's something my father told me.

S3: Also, in writing, right?

25 T: In writing as well. Yeah. In writing. That's a good question. In writing as well. But you guys already do this. A lot of the time you already do it. You just [

S4: [It's like

T: [don't even know it's a noun clause

S4: It's like, I believe I can fly? (student providing another example of a noun clause)

30 T: I believe I can fly? I believe I can fly. Yeah. I believe that I can fly. So, then that is in parenthesis, right? We don't have to use it because you know sometimes we drop out things. So, I don't want you to worry so much about memorizing the grammar. We're trying to use the grammar, right? So, we're speaking, right? So, that's what we're doing these activities. Noun clauses are there, but we usually don't think about them like grammatically, right? It's not like math in that sense.

35 It's sort of like you just put them together. So, let me ask one more question.
 Sean?

S4: Mm?

T: Are you excited that we have vacation—Easter Break in a couple of weeks?

S4: Yes

40 T: Yes, I'm?

S4: I'm excited for

T: Keep-keep going. I'm excited?

S4: I'm excited about the Easter Break.

T: So, with a lot of verbs you can use the preposition. I'm excited about Easter

45 Break. Even if someone asks, are you excited that we have Easter Break? You can
 still answer, I'm excited about Easter Break. So, sometimes you don't even use
 the noun clauses, okay? Okay. So, keep this paper, please (*referring to handout*).
 Keep this paper. We are going to use it next week, okay? Keep the answers.

Ms. Wells moves on to assign HW.

APPENDIX H

ADVANCED B USU CONVERSATION TWO

“When I arrived I felt confused that the American people speak faster than I thought.”

Students have just reviewed their homework in pairs, which was to write a paragraph about a paragraph about a misunderstanding they have had using noun clauses. The students had exchanged homework and then had underlined each other’s sentences. Then, Ms. Wells had asked students to give her examples from the homework for her to type up and project for the class to see and to review. This is one example.

1 T: (reading an example) When I arrived I felt confused that the Americans¹⁵.(USU)

This—this one I’m not sure. Uh...

S1: There is a missing word.

T: Yes.

5 S1: Than I thought.

T: Oh, [than

¹⁵ The full sentence that the student gave in this one is “When I arrived I felt confused that the American people speak faster than I thought.” This is unique USU because the utterance was given to the teacher before the conversation, the teacher typed it, and reviewed it.

S1: [Missing word.

T: [Thank you. Sorry. That's correct.

S1: Yeah.

10 T: Confused. We don't—I don't think confused takes the noun clause very often. So, if you look on—on this sheet. There's—there's some adjectives but *confused* is not really one. What do we say [

S2: [Unbelievable.

T: [with confused. Yeah. Unbelievable is a good one. What do we say

15 with confused? What if we just want a noun? I was confused? (*teacher cues student*)

S3: (*student offers an answer*) That.

T: No. We don't say, confused that. You know, what we say with confused?

S3: (*student offers an answer*) With?

20 T: No? Anyone know? Okay. So—

S3: (*student offers the same answer*) With?

T: No no no... you know that you're not sure of—of something...this is what I would recommend (*teacher gives advice to students for they unsure about a collocation*)... COCA American Corpus? This website? Go to COCA American

25 Corpus. Type in the word. (*typing*) Ooops sorry. That's the answer. (*deleting answer*) You type in a word. (*typing*) This will give you 12,000 sentences with 'confused' in it. So, let's look at these sentences (*scrolling through sentences on computer and this is projected for the students to see*). There we go. 'Confused about'. Let's see—what was our sentence? No. 'Confused about' wouldn't fit

30 here, right (*teacher realizes that the collocation would not work in the student's sentence*)?

S4: Yeah

T: Confused.

S4: With

35 T: With. A number of newcomers are easily confused with. Okay. Ethnicity gets confused with socioeconomic, so that's when you're comparing two things. That's not what we want. Confused as to why. So, that's looking at why. Oh my goodness I'm not getting what I expected actually. Let me—let me try it in just Google.

40 S5: Can I just say, I don't know why she—why she felt confused.

T: I don't know why she felt confused. Mm hm.

S5: That's right?

T: Mm hm. That's right. How about if we do confused? Do you know collocations?

S1: Mm hm

45 T: Did someone tell you about collocations? Okay. Let's look at 'confused' with collocations. (*typing and looking at sites on the computer*) Oxford dictionary is good. (*look at more sites*) Oh, here. Prepositions. 'Confused'—'confused about' plus a noun. Or 'confused by' plus a noun. So, those are the two ones we use. But we can't use 'that' (*the word in the student's original sentence*). So, we can use

50 'by' or 'about'. So, if you—if you have a question, maybe you can always do collocations or you can do the COCA American Corpus. Those are good strategies, especially with verbs plus prepositions, right? Because those are

confusing. How about interested? I am interested? (*cueing students*)

S3: In.

55 T: In, right. Or I can't think of some good ones. Students are always—Or excited.

I'm excited? (*cueing students*)

S4: With.

S3: To.

T: You can say to. To do something. You can use an infinitive. What about a
60 preposition? He's excited? (*cueing students*)

S6: About.

T: About. Right. But if you have a question do collocations or do COCA American
Corpus, okay? Alright. So that's just a little extra. Confused. I felt confused that
Americans *****(*typing answer*)

65 S1: Because.

T: Because. I think it's better. Good. It's explaining why, right? Yeah. And what
is—what is because? What kind of clause is this? What does because mean? Is it
what, when, why, how?

S3: Why.

70 S7: Why.

T: Why. And what is why?

S4: Adverb.

T: Adverb clause. Not a noun clause, right? Not a noun clause. Good.

APPENDIX I

ADVANCED B USU CONVERSATION THREE

“Where have you been on Spring Break?”

The students and Ms. Wells are reviewing questions that the students wrote for homework.

- 1 T: What are some sample questions that you have for students? Can someone just—
just— I want to ask you guys some sample questions. Faith, what was a question
you might ask one of your classmates?
- S1: What is your plan for the distant future?
- 5 T: *(typing question on computer to project to students)* Good. Sean, how about you?
- S2: Where have you been on the Spring Break? (USU)
- T: Ah. Where have you been on Spring Break? Are they still on Spring Break?
- S2: *(laughs)* Where have you gone?
- T: No. Have means present tense, right?
- 10 S2: Oh. Had had
- T: So, just simple past.
- S2: Simple past?

T: Uh huh because it's done. It's complete. So, we need simple past. Where? (*cueing student*)

S3: Did you[

15 S2: [Did you go?

S4: Where you went?

T: No. Where did you go?

S4: Oh. Where did you go?

T: (*laughs*) (*typing*) Where did you go for Spring Break? Mike? (*speaking to another student*) Did you write the questions? This was the homework from you know

20 *****

S5: Yeah.

S2: I think "Where have you been?" because some people can say "I have been to blah blah blah blah".

25 T: Okay. I'm going to go over this because there are always mistakes with this. Where...where have you been? (*writing on the board*) You remember, there's two meanings of present perfect. Two meanings, right? So, the first one, the main one, means this—this time in the past that's still true, right? So, for example, what have you been studying? So, if we say last semester. It has to be what? (*cueing students*) If I say, last semester? (*cueing students*)

30 S1: What uh?

T: What? (*cueing student*)

S6: Did you study?

T: What did you study or what were you studying? Good. (*writing on the board*)

35 Okay. What have you been studying means now, right? *Have* will always mean
now. Always. Okay? But there's that second meaning, right? So, this is one.
Then, if you remember, we talked about it (*writing on the board*). We don't know
the time. You don't know the time. So, for example? Can you give me an example
of that one? Does anyone remember? In your life, have you done something? So,
40 have you? (*cueing students*)

S5: I have—I have traveled to Mexico.

T: Good. (*writing on the board*). So, when—when is the time in this sentence?

S1: No time.

T: No time. We don't know. So, if you have the time that is in the past, you cannot
45 use present perfect because it's present perfect, right? So, this is a fact about his
life, right? He has had this experience. We don't know when. If you give a time in
the past, you can—you can only use past tense. Maybe past continuous, right? If
it's over a period of time. But definitely only past tense. Present perfect—you
know the time is in the past. So, Spring Break is in the past, so we can't use
50 present perfect. Because it's done.

S1: Can I say, I have been here since 2014?

T: Are you still here?

S1: Yes.

T: You see. It—it—it's logically. It's just you need to practice with it, right? So,
55 you've been here since 2014. Yes. Because *since* and *for* just give us time
periods. But it has to include now (*writing on the board*). Because this is the
picture, right? It has to come up to now (*referring to timeline on the board*). So,

60

how long have you been here? Since 2014. When did you come here? 2014, right?

Since means this wooosh (*drawing on the board*). *Since* and *for* mean this period

of time. Take that out. 2014 is in the past. So, when did you come here? 2014.

How long have you been here? Since 2014. So, if—you could ask either question.

It depends on what you, you know, what you want to ask. It's that choice again.

You have choices. Okay. What's another question? Jean?

APPENDIX J

BASIC B USU CONVERSATION ONE

“What is Sarah like?”

The class is reviewing homework from the night before. The assignment was to write questions using the present progressive about a text they had discussed in class. Ms. Palani is eliciting questions that the students wrote about the text.

- 1 S1: What is Sarah like? (USU)
- T: What?
- S: What is Sarah like?
- T: What is Sarah like? What is that—when you say what is Sarah like? What is the
- 5 meaning of that?
- S2: *****
- T: Hold on, I want to ask it. What is the meaning of that? If you say, what is Sarah
- like?
- S3: What do [
- 10 S1: [Only thing. She likes.
- S3: [What does Sarah like?

T: Okay. Okay. So, you're asking. What does she like?

S1: Yes.

T: Okay. If you say what is Sarah like? And especially, in sort of informal spoken
15 English. If—if—for example, if, okay, imagine next semester, right? People—
you're going to be registering for classes for next semester and someone asks you,
another student, it's like, "Oh, you had Ms. Smith. What is she like?" That
means, describe me.

S4: The feeling?

20 T: Yeah. Like your feeling about me. What is she like? What does she do? What
does she—how does she teach? Like description about [

S1: [Yes.

T: [Me. So, when you
say, what is Sarah like? That's the meaning. The meaning is different.

25 S1: Meaning she like all thing?

T: If you—Okay. I'm sorry so repeat that again.

S1: If I say, she, what is Sarah like? That mean all all thing—

T: It means [

S1: [not

30 T: [Describe to me

S1: [Yes.

T: [About Sarah.

S: Yes.

T: Okay. But what you are saying is, what does Sarah like? Meaning what are the

35 things that Sarah likes.

S1: Mm hm

T: Okay? And you use this. No. You know what? That's actually a good example to use here now (*erasing the board*) because our next unit is going to be about the difference when do we use simple present and when do we use present continuous

40 and sometimes there are certain—there are certain verbs that we do not use the –ing form, okay? And so *like* is one of those. *Like* is one of those verbs.

S3: Like?

T: Like. For example, you could say, you could say, what does (*writing on the board*)

45 S3: She like.

T: Sarah like? Okay. And in this question you are asking, right? In general about Sarah, what are some of the things that she likes. Right? She likes going to the movies. She likes to travel, right? So, this is the question. Can you say, what is Sarah liking? (*writing on the board*)

50 S3: No. Not not you can like.

S5: No. no.

T: Can you—what's the consensus?

S3: It's confusing.

T: Can you—is this a correct sentence? [

55 S5: [No no.

T: [Or not correct sentence?

S5: Wrong. Wrong.

S3: Not correct

T: Okay

60 S3: Wrong. Not liking.

T: Yes, because you cannot use this verb *like*.

S5: With actions

T: Exactly. Right? So, there are certain verbs that you do not take the present continuous tense. Okay? And this is one of those. We're going to get to that soon. Okay. Actually that's what we're going to be doing next. So, we'll talk a little bit more about that. Okay. Did we get all the questions or are there any others?

APPENDIX K

BASIC B USU CONVERSATION TWO

“But we have later.”

The class is reviewing a worksheet in which they have to choose between present simple and present progressive forms of the verbs to complete the cloze exercises.

- 1 S1: Do you come to (*providing answer to worksheet exercise*)
 S2: Do you come
 S1: Do you come
 T: Do you say, do you coming?
- 5 S1: Are you?
 Ss: No. Do you come?
 S2: Are you coming?
 S1: Do you come?
 S2: Are you coming?
- 10 T: Are you coming to the cinema later?
 S2: Later.

T: The action. Are you going to come? Right? Are you coming to cinema, to the movie?

S3: But we have 'later'. (USU)

15 T: I'm sorry?

S3: Not now, later.

T: Later. Yes. Because when you're saying. It's still asking about an action—about coming. Remember we're talking—when we were saying that the present progressive does not necessarily mean at this particular moment. Right? Are you?

20 If I asked you, are you cooking dinner tonight?

S3: Yeah.

T: I would say, are you cooking cooking dinner even though I'm talking about tonight. Because I'm asking about an action that is still in the [

S3: [Near.

25 T: Near mm hmm.

S3: I can't use 'will'?

T: You can. You can use 'will'. Are you saying like—if I'm asking— so instead of saying are you cooking dinner tonight, I can say, will you cook dinner tonight? And that's in the future.

30 S4: Yes. The question is now and the answer [

T: [Right.

S4: [is future.

T: In the future. But for right now, when you want to—when you say it like this, are you— I'm sorry I lost.

35 S5: Are you coming?
T: Yeah. Are you coming?
S5: To the cinema
T: Are you coming? I'm asking about an action that is going to happen. Are you coming? Okay. Seven.

APPENDIX L

BASIC B USU CONVERSATION THREE

“Prefer”

The class has just finished a group activity reviewing present progressive and simple present forms. Now, the teacher wants to review and practice the verb “prefer” because many of the students had unanticipated questions about “prefer” during the group activity.

1 T: Okay. If you look on page 193, exercise C. Because a lot of you had questions about the verb *prefer*. Right? So, explain to me what the verb *prefer*. How do we use that verb? When we say *prefer*?

S1: You are prefer.

5 (*Other students talking softly*)

T: Okay. Say that question again. The beginning of it.

S2: Do you prefer? Do you prefer?

T: Do you, right? Do you prefer?

S1: No no no no. [

10 S3: [Always and the

T: [I'm sorry?

S1: [Are you

S3: Prefers like always and usually. Right?

T: No. Prefer is not [

15 S3: [No?

T: No. *Prefer* is not an adverb of frequency. So, when you say usually and often, those are adverbs of frequency.

S3: Okay.

T: Right? *Prefer* is if you look on—I mean in the grammar chart here on page 187,

20 it's it's under need and preference. Right? Like *want, need, prefer*. [

S1: [Want to

T: [Those are certain verbs that we use not in the present progressive. We don't say, I am preferring. He is preferring. We would just use it in the simple present. Okay? So, but what does that verb *prefer* mean? It means you?

25 S4: Choose between this

T: Okay. You choose?

S3: Between two things

T: It doesn't always have to be two things.

S4: Best one

30 T: But it's which do you prefer is which do you like more.

S4: Yeah.

T: Okay? So, if you look on page 193. It's a group activity, but that's okay we'll do it together. It says one student asks the other for their preference. Right? So, the

example, *(reading) Marta, do you prefer social network sites or emails?* So, when
35 you ask that question what are you asking? You like this one—?

Ss: Or this one?

T: Or this one more? Right? And Marta responds, [I prefer email.

Ss: *[(all together) I prefer email.*

T: Okay. And then if you can ask someone else. Right ? You ask, *(reading) Emiko,*
40 *what about you? Do you prefer?* Then, answers, *(reading) in our group, four*
people prefer social networking sites and two prefer emails. Okay. So, give me a
sentence then. Ask ask your class. Okay? Ask you class some—about a
preference. So, think about something and ask your class.

S5: Do you prefer—Do you prefer grammar class than more than reading class?

45 T: You just have to say or.

S5: Or?

T: Yeah. Do you?

S5: Do you prefer grammar class or reading class?

T: Okay. Do you prefer grammar class or reading class? Okay. So, do you prefer
50 grammar class or reading class? I won't—my feelings won't be hurt if you choose
reading. It's okay.

S7: No. no

T: *(laughs)* Okay. So, okay. So you say. She?

S4: Doesn't

55 S8: Prefers

T: She prefers. Right. She prefers grammar class. Okay? Monica, do you prefer

grammar class or reading class?

S7: Both.

(Everyone laughs)

60 T: Ah! Someone is being diplomatic here *(laughs)*. That's okay. We'll say you prefer reading class. Okay?

S7: No.

T: If you prefer—then we could say?

S7: Grammar class. No reading class. Grammar.

65 T: Grammar class. So, you would say they?

S7: Prefer

S3: Prefers

(Students talking at same time.)

T: They

70 S3: They prefer

T: They prefer

S4: Grammar class

T: Grammar class. Okay? Like that.

S7: When you use prefer, like you prefer read or to read?

75 T: Do you? No. You'd say, do you prefer reading or watching? Or you can say, do you prefer to read or watch TV?

S3: Yeah. Read book or to watch

T: Yeah. Watch. Do you prefer to read books or watch TV? Okay. So, that's a question. Do you prefer to read books or watch TV?

80 S7: Read books.
T: I prefer to read books.
S3: Watch TV.
S5: I prefer to watch TV.
T: I prefer to watch TV.

85 S1: Do you—I want to ask to you. Do you prefer teach grammar or reading?
T: Ah! That's a good question (*laughs*). I actually have not taught reading for a while so right now I prefer to teach grammar. But I like—I do enjoy— you can say, I enjoy teaching,
S1: Mm hm

90 T: I enjoy teaching speaking or reading. You can say that too. I don't say I'm enjoying. Right? *Enjoy* is also [
S1: [Feelings
T: [one of those verbs. I enjoy.
S1: Enjoy

95 T: Yeah. Okay. Good.

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