
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Gazi
1926

A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC STUDY ON TEACHER INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCE THROUGH TALK MANAGEMENT IN A SEMI-INSTRUCTED EFL CONTEXT

Eyüp Dilber

PHD DISSERTATION

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

GAZİ UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DECEMBER, 2022

TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

Bu tezin tüm hakları saklıdır. Kaynak göstermek koşuluyla tezin teslim tarihinden itibaren 6 (altı) ay sonra tezden fotokopi çekilebilir.

YAZARIN

Adı : Eyüp

Soyadı : Dilber

Bölümü : Yabancı Diller Eğtimi/İngiliz Dili Eğitim

İmza :

Teslim Tarihi :

TEZİN

Türkçe Adı : Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizcenin Öğretildiği Yarı Resmi Bir Ortamda Etkileşim Yönetimi yoluyla Öğretmen İletişim Yetisi üzerine Bir Konuşma Çözümlemesi Çalışması

İngilizce Adı : A Conversation Analytic Study on Teacher Interactional Competence Through Talk Management in a Semi-Instructed EFL Context

ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı: Eyüp DİLBER

İmza: .....

JÜRİ ONAY SAYFASI

Eyüp DİLBER tarafından hazırlanan "A Conversation Analytic Study on Teacher Interactional Competence Through Talk Management in a Semi-Instructed EFL Context " adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından oy birliği ile Gazi Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Doktora tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman: Prof. Dr. İskender Hakkı SARIGÖZ
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi .....

Başkan: Prof. Dr. Abdülvahit ÇAKIR
(İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Ufuk Üniversitesi) .....

Üye: Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi .....

Üye: Prof. Dr. Paşa Tevfik CEPHE
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi .....

Üye: Doç. Dr. Perihan SAVAŞ
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi .....

Savunma Tarihi: 12.12.2022

Bu tezin Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Doktora tezi olması için şartları yerine getirdiğini onaylıyorum.

Prof. Dr. Şaban ÇETİN
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü .....

To My Beloved Family

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

It took me years of self-dedication and self-sacrifice to finally express my gratitude and appreciation to those who helped, guided, mentored me and even contributed to my work in the slightest degree. I feel as though I am going to forget to name some people who must be mentioned here. If it happens to be so, it means I overplayed my hand counting on my memory in recollecting their names and I failed again as usual.

First and foremost, I would like to express my appreciation to my supervisor, Prof. Dr. İskender Hakkı Sarıgöz for his faith in me and his support throughout this excruciating journey that I embarked on for almost six years. Although he was saddled with so many responsibilities and had a lot on his plate, he never ceased to give me his spiritual support.

I would also like to extend my deepest gratitude to Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan Özmen who accompanied and ushered me from the very beginning of this journey with his witty remarks, funny jokes, reasonable analogies. He was and he will always be a role model for me in mastering his area of interest, his way of explicating his mind and position, his wisdom and vision. Reading each page of his first novel of a trilogy *Göklerden Gelen Umut*, I could not help being psyched to find out how elaboratively he narrates and describes a dystopia that is indeed a reflection of today's world in disguise.

I would like to thank Assoc. Prof. Dr. Perihan Savaş who contributed greatly to this dissertation as a member of my thesis monitoring committee with her thought-provoking recommendations, her kind attitude and her constructive notes. She always spared my dissertation some time in spite of her relentless work and busy schedule at METU.

I owe special thanks to Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı for providing invaluable comments and posing gripping questions that encouraged me to think critically in his classes. He has always been a source of inspiration being a teacher educator who is self-determined, diligent and willing to guide pre-service and in-service teachers and to learn from them.

I am also grateful for Prof. Dr. Paşa Tevfik Cephe for his friendly support and smiling face throughout my doctoral studies. His being humble, kind and friendly to his colleagues and students was praiseworthy. With his concise, simple but wise remarks, he widened my horizons with regard to curriculum design and development.

I would also like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof. Dr. Abdulvahit Çakır who was there interviewing me when I was admitted to the Ph.D. program at Gazi University and presiding the defense committee of my dissertation when I eventually reached my destination. You can tell he is a well-read and insightful scholar the moment he utters a word.

Many special thanks go to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Süleyman Başaran who has the biggest part in helping me get through the gates of academia. He has been both a teacher and friend to me. His guidance, spirited conversation and assistance while doing my MA, paved the way to a milestone in my life. I cannot thank him enough.

It is doubtless that this study would not have been possible without the participation of ENIC (English Interactional Club) members and the teachers of the club. What is more, I would like to thank the administration of the art center where the ENIC club meetings were held. Thanks should also go to my colleagues, students and classmates for their unwavering support, sincere appreciation, constructive feedback and criticism.

I feel deeply indebted to all my family members, but especially to my brother Ali who gave me lifts to the Diyarbakır airport and picked me up when I flew back from Ankara in the middle of nights and early in the mornings almost every week for more than two years.

I cannot express my gratitude to my mother Hamdiye, who constantly cited me in her prayers, showed me her love and hugged me whenever I came back from my two-day doctoral trips. I love her to pieces.

I am also grateful to my father Şehmus, my brother Seyithan and my sisters Kübra, Melek and İpek, who has always explicitly flattered me, had a profound belief in my abilities throughout my doctoral journey. They have always been there for me being proud of me and appreciating my achievements encouraging me to go further. I feel so lucky to have them.

My heartfelt thanks go to my mother-in-law Ayşe and owe her a debt of gratitude for babysitting my son while my wife and I were busy teaching or studying and I am also grateful to my father-in-law Cemal who looked after and spoiled his grandson buying him too many toys every single week. By the way, I would like to congratulate my brother-in-law Veysel who made us all proud being admitted to English Language Teaching program at Gazi University after a hard two-year-endeavor.

I cannot begin to express my thanks and deepest appreciation to my wife, Elif, for her endless support, encouragement and love. She patiently expected me to come back from Ankara when I was away for my Ph.D. She proved to be the best partner when she eased my burden just before our wedding ceremony. While I was in Ankara chasing after my doctoral studies, she was handling wedding preparations. I was up to my neck doing my doctoral assignments and our wedding ceremony was due a month later. Even though I had not still rented a house to live in and had not booked a wedding hall to hold the ceremony, she still held her temper and counted on me. Words fail to explain how lucky I am to have her as a partner, friend and wife. Darling! I love you to the moon and back 😊.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my beloved and precious son, Robin Deniz, who means the world to me and who has made me realize how invaluable being a father is. He has been a blessing and a source of joy to behold since his birth.

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCENİN ÖĞRETİLDİĞİ YARI RESMİ BİR ORTAMDA ETKİLEŞİM YÖNETİMİ YOLUYLA ÖĞRETMEN İLETİŞİM YETİSİ ÜZERİNE BİR KONUŞMA ÇÖZÜMLEMESİ ÇALIŞMASI

(Doktora Tezi)

Eyüp Dilber
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
ARALIK, 2022

ÖZ

Yabancı dil öğretimi ve öğrenimi ile uğraşanlar, dil sınıflarında gerçekte neler olup bittiğini hep merak etmişlerdir. Sınıf içi etkileşimsel yetisinin temel özellikleri açıkça tanımlanmış ancak yine de öğretmenler için sınıf içi söylemi etkileşimli olarak nasıl yönetecekleri ve öğrencilerin bu etkileşime aktif olarak nasıl dahil olacakları konusunda daha fazla kılavuza ihtiyaç vardır. Buna göre, etkileşimin dil gelişimindeki rolü üzerine yapılan pek çok çalışma, sosyal inşacı teoriler perspektifinden Sınıf İçi Etkileşimsel Yetisinin (SİEY) mikro çözümlemelerinin yolunu açmıştır. Ancak SİEY ile ilgili çalışmaların çoğu, öğretenlerin mesleki gelişimlerini veya öğrenenlerin iletişimsel yetisini tam resmi bir ortamda araştırmıştır. Sınıfta en çok arabulucu, dönüştürücü, yansıtıcı, yaratıcı, esnek, stratejik düşünen ve uygulayıcı olması beklenenler öğretmenler olduğu için bu çalışma, Konuşma Çözümlemesini (KÇ) kullanarak, İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil (İYB) olarak öğretildiği yarı resmi bir İngilizce Etkileşim Kulübünde (İEK) üç öğretmenin konuşmayı nasıl yönettiğini ortaya çıkarmayı ve açıklamayı amaçlamıştır. Verilerin KÇ analizi, Başlatma-Cevap-Geri Dönüt (BCG) dizisinin öğretmenlerin SİEY'ni oluşturan ana özellik olduğunu ve birçok durumda konuşmayı yönetmek için bir kaynak olduğunu ortaya çıkardı. Buna rağmen, BCG dizisi sınıf içi konuşmayı daha ileriye götüremediği ve konularla desteklenmediği takdirde

pedagojik açıdan bir sınırlılık ortaya çıktığı görüldü. Tespit edilen eksiklikler ve pedagojik çıkarımlar, araştırmacıyı birbiri ile bağlantılı dört ana bileşenden oluşan Öğretmen Etkileşimsel Yetisi (ÖEY) çerçevesini oluşturmaya itti. ÖEY *söylemde duraklama, sosyo-bireyselleştirme, dijital okuryazarlık ve öğreten özerkliği* başlıkları altında sıralanmış olup ilk iki kavram yeni olmakla birlikte ikinci dil araştırmalarındaki mikro stratejilere dayanırken, diğer iki kavram ise ikinci dil edinim literatüründe zaten bilinmektedir. Şu bilinmelidir ki bu alternatif bir çerçeve veya yeni bir dil öğretim yöntemi değildir; aksine, dil öğretmenleri, dil eğitimi bölümü öğrencileri ve öğretmen eğiticisi için ikinci dil öğretme ve öğrenme sürecini iyileştirmek için bir kılavuz olarak görülmelidir. Teori odaklı değildir ancak sınıf içi söylemi, sınıf içi deneyler ve sınıf içi araştırma bulgularında mevcut olan ikinci dil uygulamalarının bakış açılarından beslenmektedir. Model bir çerçeve olarak uygulanabilir ve kullanılan stratejiler bağlama göre uyarlanabilir, dönüştürülebilir veya genişletilebilir. Çalışmadan elde edilen iç görüler, dil pedagojisi ile dil edinimi arasındaki bağın anlaşılmasına da katkıda bulunabilmenin yanı sıra bu iki kavramla ilişkili teori ile pratik arasındaki boşluğu doldurabilir. Esnektir ve sosyo-bağlamsal ve kültürel perspektiflerden spontane öğretme ve öğrenme eylemlerine yanıt verebildiğinden, bulgular yöntem-ötesi-pedagojiyi destekleyen yaklaşımları besleyebilir. Ayrıca, periyodik olarak kullanıldığında öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimini izlemek için de kullanılabilir. Bununla birlikte, ikinci dil bağlamı uygun bir şekilde dijitalleştirildiğinde en iyi sonucu verebilir ve öğretim sürecini iyileştirebilir. Önerilen çerçeve, SİEY hakkında farkındalığı artırabilir ancak yabancı dil lisans programlarında şimdilik SİEY'le ilgili bir ders bulunmamaktadır bu yüzden öğretmen eğiticileri tarafından bağımsız bir şekilde kullanılabileceği için öğretmen yetiştirme programlarına entegre etme çabalarına katkıda bulunabilir. Bağlama özgü ve ihtiyaç temelli bir çerçeve olduğundan, İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretimi (İYDÖ) programlarındaki öğretmen eğitimini, yöntem-ötesi-pedagojiye yönlendirebilir. Ayrıca hizmet içi ve hizmet öncesi dil öğretmenlerin yansıtıcı, eleştirel ve dönüştürücü entelektüeller olmalarına yardımcı olabilir. Bu yüzden bu çalışma tarafından önerilen çerçeve ve benzerleri daha çok bilimsel araştırmanın odak noktası olmalı ve buna göre kapsamı genişletilmeli veya uyarlanmalıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Sınıf İçi Etkileşim Yetisi, Konuşma Çözümlemesi, Yöntem Ötesi Pedagoji, Etkileşim Kulübü, Yarı Resmi Dil Eğitimi, Konuşma Yönetimi
Sayfa Adedi : CCV + 205
Danışman : Prof. Dr. İskender Hakkı SARIGÖZ

A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC STUDY ON TEACHER INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCE THROUGH TALK MANAGEMENT IN A SEMI-INSTRUCTED EFL CONTEXT

(Ph.D. Dissertation)

Eyüp Dilber

GAZI UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DECEMBER, 2022

ABSTRACT

Those who are involved in teaching and learning a foreign language have always wondered what is really going on in language classrooms. The fundamental features of classroom interactional competence are clearly defined, yet still there is a need for more guidelines for teachers about how to interactively manage the classroom discourse and for learners to be actively involved in the classroom interaction. Accordingly, a good many studies on the role of interaction in language development have paved the way for micro analyses of Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) from the perspective of social constructivist theories. However, most of the studies on CIC have investigated the professional development of teachers or the interactional competence of learners within fully instructed environment. It is teachers who are mostly expected to be the mediator, transformers, reflective, creative, flexible, strategic thinkers and practitioners in the classroom. Therefore, the present study aimed to simply uncover and describe, using Conversation Analysis (CA), how three teachers managed the talk in a semi-instructed English Interactional Club (ENIC), where English is taught as a Foreign Language (EFL). The CA analysis of data found out that the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence characterized the CIC of the teachers and it was a resource to manage the talk in many cases. Even so, it failed to push the talk further and became a pedagogical constraint when it was not followed by topicalization. This gap

and the pedagogical implications urged the researcher to come up with the Teacher Interactional Competence (TIC) framework, which has four interdependent main components: *pause-in-discourse* (PID*), socio-vidualize, digital literacy and teacher autonomy*. The first two concepts are novel with micro-strategies rooted in the L2 research, whereas the other two notions are already known to the L2 acquisition literature. It is not an alternative framework or language teaching method; rather, it is just a guideline to ameliorate L2 teaching and learning process for language teachers, student-language teachers and teacher educators. It is not theory-driven though it is fed by the perspectives of classroom discourse, classroom experimentation and L2 applications already available in classroom research findings. It can be taken as a model and the strategies employed can be adapted, transformed or extended depending on the context. The insights from the study can also contribute to the understanding of the nexus between language pedagogy and language acquisition bridging the gap between theory and practice. Furthermore, the findings can feed into the approaches promoting post-method pedagogy as the framework is flexible and can respond to the spontaneous teaching and learning acts from socio-contextual and cultural perspectives. It can also be used to trace the professional development of teachers when employed periodically. However, it works best and ameliorates the teaching process when the L2 context is appropriately digitalized, which is in rapport with the endeavors to use technology in interaction and in action. The proposed framework may guide in-service and preservice teachers, and student teachers who are willing to smoothly manage the classroom discourse to maximize and extend learning opportunities beyond fully-instructed environments. Such a framework might raise awareness about CIC and contribute to the efforts of integrating it into teacher training programs. Even though these programs may not be able for now to include a specific section on *classroom interaction*, the framework, suggested by this study along with the precedent ones, can bridge this gap as they can be readily exploited by teacher educators independently. They might orient teacher training in TEFL programs towards post-method pedagogy because they are context-specific and need-based. They may help in service and preservice language teachers become reflective, critical and transformative intellectuals; thus, they should be the focus of more scientific inquiries and be extended or modified accordingly.

Key Words : Classroom Interaction Competence, Conversation Analysis, Post-method pedagogy, Interaction Club, Semi-Instructed Language Education, talk Management
Page Number : CCV + 205
Supervisor : Prof. Dr. İskender Hakkı SARIGÖZ

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENT ..... **v**

ÖZ ..... **viii**

ABSTRACT ..... **x**

TABLE OF CONTENTS ..... **xii**

LIST OF TABLES ..... **xv**

LIST OF FIGURES ..... **xvi**

ABBREVIATIONS ..... **xviii**

CHAPTER I **1**

INTRODUCTION **1**

1.1. Background to the Study **2**

1.2. Statement of the Problem **5**

1.3. Purpose of the Study **7**

1.4. Significance of the Study **10**

1.5. Research Questions **12**

1.6. Definitions of the Key Terms **13**

1.7. Outline of the Study **14**

CHAPTER II **18**

LITERATURE REVIEW **18**

2.1. Historical Development of SLA **18**

2.2. Nexus of Language Pedagogy and SLA **21**

2.3. Negotiated Interaction **28**

2.4. Nexus of Interactional Competence and SLA **34**

2.5. Theoretical Underpinnings of CA-SLA 35
2.6. Nexus of Interactional Competence and Language Teaching 38
2.7. Classroom Interactional Competence 41
2.8. Teacher's Professional Development Through CIC 43
2.9. Conclusion 45
CHAPTER III 55
METHODOLOGY 55
3.1. Originality and Significance of the Research 55
3.2. Relevance of the Research Questions 58
3.3. Collection Procedures, Research Context and Participants 60
3.4. Validity and Reliability Issues 65
CHAPTER IV 67
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS 67
4.1. Uncovering the Employment of Talk Management Through IRF Sequences 68
4.2. Uncovering the Employment of Topicalization 76
4.3. Uncovering the Employment of Diverse Sources for Negotiation 79
4.4. Uncovering the Employment of Non-linguistic Items 82
CHAPTER V 86
CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS 86
5.1. TIC as Subconstruct of FNI 86
5.2. Learner Involvement 89
5.3. Referential Questions to Manage the Talk 89
5.4. Topicalization to Reinforce the Talk 90
5.5. Socio-vidualizing the Talk 91
5.5.1. A drawback to Socio-vidualizing: Spontaneous Needs 92
5.6. Grammar Deficiency 95
5.6.1. Making Grammar Salient 95
5.6.2. Nexus of Salient Grammar and TIC 98

5.6.3. A Probable Solution: FFI 99

5.6.4. Drawbacks to FFI 100

5.6.5. Topicalization Through FFI 101

5.6.6. Authentication of Topics & FFI 103

5.7. Pausing the Talk: A Micro Strategy 104

5.7.1. Pausing to Contextualize 105

5.7.2. Pausing for Segmental Features 106

5.7.3. Pausing for Supra-segmental Features 115

5.8. Digital Literacy 118

5.9. Teacher Autonomy 121

5.9.1. Extending Interaction Beyond Instruction 125

5.9.2. Do Not Teach But Make Them Think! 126

5.10. Conclusion 132

5.11. Implications 134

5.12. Limitations 151

5.13. Suggestions for Further Studies 153

5.14. Concluding Remarks 156

REFERENCES 158

APPENDICES 179

APPENDIX.1 Clift Transcription Conventions 180

APPENDIX.2 Consent Form 182

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. *Aspects of Research Originality* 58

Table 2. *Data Collection and Analysis Tools* 64

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. The pedagogic wheel. 27

Figure 2. Learner involvement with typical IRF..... 70

Figure 3. The teacher's three-part response followed by silence..... 73

Figure 4. Keeping silent before taking a turn..... 73

Figure 5. Promoting the talk with referential questions about a story. 75

Figure 6. Seeking help from other interlocutors. 78

Figure 7. Interfering to keep the talk flow. 78

Figure 8. Making use of non-linguistic factors. 83

Figure 9. Making use of facial expressions..... 84

Figure 10. Making use of gestures coupled with mimics..... 85

Figure 11. The TIC framework with its main components. 88

Figure 12. The Socio-vidualize component. 92

Figure 13. The socio-vidualize component with its structures. 93

Figure 14. Questions on spontaneous needs and treatment..... 94

Figure 15. Drawbacks to FFI. 101

Figure 16. Inquiry to check the pronunciation and phonetic transcription of a word. 107

Figure 17. Inquiry to check the word "call" as a verb. 109

Figure 18. Inquiry to check the word "call" as a noun..... 110

Figure 19. Inquiry to check the word "call" in the interrogative form. 111

Figure 20. Inquiry to check the word "call" in the exclamative form..... 112

Figure 21. Inquiry to check the word "call" used by a male..... 113

Figure 22. Inquiry to check the word "call" used by a female..... 114

Figure 23. The Pause-in-discourse component. 117

Figure 24. The TIC component: digital literacy..... 121

Figure 25. The TIC component: teacher autonomy. 125

Figure 26. The TIC framework, its main components and constructs. 130

Figure 27. The subconstructs of TIC framework. 131

ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Conversation Analysis
CA-SLA	Conversation Analysis for Second Language Acquisition
CIC	Classroom Interactional Competence
CL	Cognitive Linguistics
ENIC	English Interactional Club
FL	Foreign Language
IC	Interactional Competence
IRF	Initiation, Response & Feedback
LA	Language Acquisition
L2	Second Language/Foreign Language/Additional Language
NI	Negotiated Interaction
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
SETT	Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk
SIC	Student Interactional Competence
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TCU	Turn Constructional Unit
TIC	Teacher Interactional Competence
TRPs	Transition Relevance Places
PID	Pause in Discourse

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study aims to explore teacher interactional competence through talk management in a semi-instructed setting where English is taught as a Foreign Language (EFL). The purpose of the study is to uncover, using Conversation Analysis (CA), the way teachers maintain management of the talk during their interactional exchanges in an English interactional club (ENIC). This chapter aims to outline the scope and purpose of the study and its significance while referring to the gaps and calls regarding the research in the literature. It will specifically focus on providing background and theoretical information for the study from analytic and practical perspectives that will inform the study. It will also briefly cover the concepts of CA, Conversation Analysis for Second Language Acquisition (CA-SLA) and two brand-new terms *Socio-vidualize* and *Pause-in-Discourse*. After that, the key terms used in the study will be defined to make it easier for readers to comprehend and follow the text smoothly. Finally, the discussion will be followed by introducing the research questions and the chapter will end with an outline of the next chapters.

1.1. Background to the Study

Interactional component of language acquisition has been a controversial subject since 1960s, when there was a turning point that shifted attention from Chomskyan cognitive approach into sociocultural studies and psycholinguistics. From that time on, many concepts concerning the role of interaction in language development paved the way for micro analysis of naturally occurring second language learning (Gass, 1997) within different angles (phonological, lexical and syntactical) including conversational modifications such as exaggerated intonation and emphatic stress etc. or sociolinguistic features of roles and relationships, identifying and repairing communication breakdowns (Snow & Ferguson, 1977).

These micro components of interaction had to be analyzed within a social setting in terms of using language to learn the language itself from a sociocultural perspective (Ellis & He, 1999). The main objective of micro analysis of interaction was to seek answers to how language learners notice the gaps in their interlanguage, test what they have theorized, how they collaborate and negotiate to reach the final attainment in producing novel linguistic forms (Gass, Behney, & Plonksy, 2013; Swain, 2000).

Being exposed solely to linguistic input was considered not to be sufficient without interactionally negotiated output (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; VanPatten, 2004), which is necessary to internalize the relationship between form and meaning (Ellis & He, 1999; Long, 1996) and to form individual identities in cyclical and unforeseen changes stemming from a number of socio-cognitive and sociocultural factors (Breen, 1985; Gass et. al, 2013; Hall, Hellerman & Doehler, 2011; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Mackey & Goo, 2012; Swain, 1995; Swain, 2000; VanPatten, 2004; Vygotsky, 1978).

Between 1970s and 1990s, learner-centered methods of language teaching focused on ‘learners’ communicative needs’; however, rather than the incidental development of language, they were concerned about its intentional development (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

This was followed by 'learning-centered' methods that sought to create open-ended meaningful interaction within a learning environment where learners had the opportunity to comprehend and use the target language (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). This approach paved the way for the vital importance of classroom interactional competence, whose impact on language teaching came to be appreciated more (Moskowitz, 1976; Seedhouse & Jenks, 2015; Thornbury, 1996; Walsh, 2006).

Considering their roles in maximizing and utilizing learning opportunities, teachers have generally been expected to play a central role in managing the teaching acts and mediating the learning acts (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). To investigate the significance of classroom interaction (CI), Moskowitz (1976) developed the Foreign Language Interaction Analysis (FLINT), whereby she sought to describe conducts of the CI employed by FL teachers. Providing objective feedback, this system aims to help the teachers reflect on teacher-student talk and self-evaluate the whole teaching process through a matrix that allows them to match the pre-determined goals with what happens over the course of teaching. This objective self-evaluation and reflection help teachers theorize from what they have practiced.

In a similar vein, Fanselow (1977) devised the Foci for Observing Communication in Settings (FOCUS), which aims to conceptualize the teaching act through various contextualized interactions. CI was also investigated from the perspective of social constructivist theories which saw classroom setting as a social environment where teachers and learners manage the talk and reconstruct it (Allwright, 1984). With the advent of information and communication technology and its use in formal settings, CI has gained more attention than ever before given that it has become easier to access and observe various learning processes. Walsh (2006) devised SETT (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk), which allows teachers to self-observe and reflect on their teaching acts without being restricted by transcribing which might be discouraging for some teachers due to its time-competing nature.

Along with 10-15-minute snapshot recordings of different classes, Walsh offers *stimulated recall procedures* to observe and analyze the classroom talk with an outsider. The crucial role that classroom interaction plays in shaping the teaching acts within and beyond classroom has raised awareness concerning the importance of understanding of what happens in the classroom (Walsh & Mann, 2015). The interest in what is going on in the classroom has made CIC the center of attraction in language education (Daşkın, 2015; Girgin & Brandt 2020; Moorhouse, Li, & Park, 2017; Seedhouse, 2008; Sert, 2015; Supakorn, 2020; Walsh, 2006; Walsh, 2011; Walsh, 2014; Walsh, 2021), which is also the principal focus of the current study.

Walsh (2013) defines CIC as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (p.65). Taking this approach as a departure point, it is assumed that those teachers that are equipped with CIC become not only 'strategic thinkers', reflecting on context-specific needs of their students but also 'strategic practitioners' with the skills needed to self-evaluate their own teaching acts; accordingly, they are able to construct and conceptualize their own personal theories. Ultimately, they become 'transformative intellectuals' who reshape the practice of everyday teaching and maximize learning opportunities for their students within and beyond classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

1.2. Statement of the Problem

When it comes to investigating *promotion of negotiated interaction*, teachers are and have generally been investigated as they have the leading role in orchestrating, guiding and organizing language learning process (Allwright, 1981; Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Aside from the scarcity of the research investigating CIC within semi-instructed environments, there have been few studies that have dwelled on the professional development of teachers through the management of the classroom talk.

Most of the studies on the development of CIC were conducted with different aims within the limits of a fully instructed environment, which is generally endorsed as the point of departure for professional development (Donald, 2015; Fagan, 2012; Lazaraton & Ishida, 2005; Seedhouse, 2005; Van Lier, 1996; Walsh, 2011). To track this professional enhancement, classroom discourse has been the focal center of interest for a good many studies over the last four decades (Allwright, 1981; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Moskowitz, 1976; Thornbury, 1996; Walsh, 2006). There have been plenty of studies indicating that classroom discourses should be built on joint interaction of teachers and learners because the joint role of teachers and learners in employing classroom interaction as a means to promote learning becomes solid when the both parties are aware of the vitality of this competence (Walsh, 2006).

However, Walsh (2014) calls for reconceptualization of CIC suggesting that teachers should bear the leading responsibility for promoting their own interactional competence in the first place if they are obliged to shape classroom discourse, mediate and assist negotiated interaction (NI). Facilitating NI bestows teachers the competence to monitor and reflect on the teaching-learning process. Such observation and reflection allow teachers to transform their previous practices into more productive insights, which promote professional development of teachers. To enhance this kind of professional development,

Kumaravadivelu (2003) suggests ten macro-strategies, one of which is facilitating negotiated interaction. As an answer to these calls, this study offers reconceptualization of CIC stripping TIC (Teacher Interactional Competence) out of it. It also suggests TIC be treated as a precondition of Student Interactional Competence (SIC) and TIC as a micro-strategy be a sub-construct of the macro-strategy 'facilitating negotiated interaction' within the pedagogical framework proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003).

In a sense, the study offers combination of macro-strategies and micro-strategies that allow simultaneous use of bottom-up and top-down processes, which complete and strengthen one another. As a result of this, teachers will not be restricted by any pre-established border; on the contrary, they will be granted more space for being creative through self-analysis, self-observation and self-evaluation.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

Bearing aforementioned points in mind, the main objective of this study is to shed light on the enhancement of interactional competence of teachers in a semi-instructed setting where English is taught as a foreign language (FL). To understand this developmental process through CA, the aim of this study is to analyze talk and topic management of teachers of some adult L2 learners through the sequential organization of interaction going on at an ENIC.

That is to say, the points mentioned above regarding CA inform the present study and urge it to take a position that seeks to simply describe the development of interactional competence through talk and topic management of the teachers of the adult L2 learners in a natural-like and semi-instructed environment where English language is taught as an L2. In this study, the term L2 should normally be understood as English as a foreign language. Although it might help understand L2 learning, it takes a neutral stance on L2 learning and it does not aim to come up with new L2 learning hypotheses due to the nature of CA approach.

CA has an insider-relevant not researcher-relevant and data-driven not theory driven perspective, which is one of the primary reasons why it was adopted for this study. It uses a detailed system of transcriptions for examining naturally occurring talk-in-interaction data instead of assumptive and coding-based procedures (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Besides transcribing details of the sequential and temporal organization of the talk, CA uses nonverbal / non-vocal conduct in interaction (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). That is, it exploits all linguistic and non-linguistic details for its micro analysis. From this respect, CA looks through and identify interactional-sequences and similar instances across data and track down any diversification of interactional resources. It sees these interactional exchanges as developmental practices when there is any change at *turns* over time (Doehler & Lauzon, 2015; Doehler & Pochon- Berger, 2015; Lee & Hellermann, 2014).

Secondly, CA holds an ethno-methodological perspective that strives to explicate the ways humans carry out social actions that can also have an insider-relevant dimension. This perspective is basically a method of sociological analysis of how a common-sense view of the world is constructed through everyday conversation by social members (Garfinkel, 1964). What is more, CA holds an epistemological perspective that can explicate the indispensable role of knowledge in interactional sequences since talk-in-interaction cannot take place without knowledge (Heritage, 2013). Therefore, CA can help us understand the nature of knowledge and shed some light on the epistemological concepts of knowing, understanding and learning (Berger & Doehler, 2015; Sert & Walsh, 2013).

Given these reasons, it can be argued that the complex picture of language development could be best described by such ethno-methodological perspectives as CA since it is driven by naturally occurring talk-in-interaction data along with both its linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. To put it in a nutshell, it offers descriptive explanations of everyday life activities from an analytic and emic perspective. (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Fox, Hayashi & Jasperson, 1996; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Liddicoat, 2007; Mori, 2010; Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff, Ochs & Thompson, 1996; Schegloff, 2007; Sidnell, 2010; Sidnell & Stivers, 2013: ten Have, 2007). It is this analytic and emic lens of CA that contributed to the orientation of SLA studies and led to revisiting and reviewing related theories, concepts, contextual and interactional dimension of language acquisition; and eventually to the emergence of CA for Second Language Acquisition (CA-SLA) (Balaman, 2016; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Hellermann & Cole, 2009; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee, 2000; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Markee & Kunitz, 2015; Mondada & Doehler, 2004; Sert, 2011; Sert, 2013). The early development of this orientation was led by sociologists Harvey Sacks and Emanuel A. Schegloff (Kasper & Wagner 2011).

CA-SLA investigation is generally conducted in two directions (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). First, it endeavors to create an identity for L2 learners based on some distinguishing

characteristics such as hesitant and delayed turns, asking for help and explanations. L2 learners 'accountably' and 'recognizably' acquire the target language as a social activity as they learn how to morally get in queue. Second, it uses both longitudinal and cross-sectional surveys to track down development of some action 'formats', 'participation styles' and 'use of linguistic resources'.

What is more, the insights obtained from CA-SLA may bridge the gap between theoretical and practical aspects of language pedagogy, which is of utmost importance for language teachers. In other words, the findings are expected to inform and contribute to the vast and various perspectives of foreign language education in general and CA-SLA in particular. Describing everyday life activities is one of the main features of CA as mentioned above. Given that everyday life encompasses all the places that social members live in, explanations based on CA can offer insights into classroom discourse, as well, which can be culturally bound and insider-relevant (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Sert, 2015; Sert & Jacknick, 2015).

These descriptive explanations from CA may help us to comprehend the ways the insiders analyze context-based conversational turns and reflect on this analysis by developing a turn in response. They can also provide aid for comprehending this kind of systematic sequences of turn taking, the participants' repairing and maintaining the interactional exchange in case of a communication breakdown (Schegloff, 2007). CA is not theory driven; however, CA as an approach to SLA in this study adopts sociocultural theory as it focuses on the interactional competencies of teachers who establish, maintain, monitor and develop the systematic interaction order within a social context through various interactional procedures such as turn taking and construction, sequence organization, using adjacency pairs and repair (Drew, 2005; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Lee, 2006; Seedhouse, 2005).

1.4. Significance of the Study

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study is the first to address the issues related to the development of interactional competence of teachers of *adult L2 learners* through the lens of CA. Unlike previous classroom discourse studies, the study was carried out in a semi-instructed, social and natural-like learning setting, which may contribute to expanding CA-SLA related studies to different angles. For instance, more cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies could be conducted by examining the transfer of L1 interactional practices to L2 talk in authentic environments (Golato, 2002; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2002).

Creating a space for language learning in a semi-instructed learning environment similar to the one mentioned above may give some new insights into re-conceptualizing fully-instructed language learning environments in terms of the collaborative role of teachers and learners. Insights from the semi-instructed learning space may also shed lights on redesigning language classrooms into more appealing and context-sensitive learning settings where both teachers and learners are free from the dominant western approaches and help them be creative intellectuals who transform the naturally occurring input into need-based learning opportunities.

As Kumaravadivelu (2003) indicates, TIC concept must be closely aligned with individual needs of language learners that vary from socio-contextual and cultural perspective. To do so, the teacher is supposed to individualize the learning process through effective topic and talk management achieved with highly flexible referential questions. Thus, the concept of *Socio-vidualize* is offered by this study to refer to the visualization of two indispensable and interdependent aspects of negotiated interaction: socialization and individualization.

PID is another brand-new concept offered by this study. It mainly entails ceasing the talk to treat deficiencies in connection with the linguistic and lexical items that incidentally show up over the course of classroom interaction just because the learners use them incorrectly or they lack the knowledge of how they must be used. This spontaneous treatment is need-

based and conducted through explicit instruction or contextualized corrective feedback. However, the teacher does not provide competing and confusing grammatical details.

All in all, the significance of the current research basically stems from four primary aims. The first one is to raise awareness about the TIC and its interdependent components that constitutes the talk management in the classroom. The second objective is to search for more ways to maximize learning opportunities for individual needs within and beyond the formal learning setting. The third vital goal is to look into creating a learning space free from pre-determined and pre-packaged unauthentic language materials. Finally, the study revises and seeks to fulfill these three objectives through a brand-new framework that is data-driven and experience-based.

1.5. Research Questions

In line with the aforementioned scope and aims, this research acknowledges the role of TIC as a prerequisite for an effective classroom interaction and therefore endorses the view that TIC should be explored for further enhancement. It seeks to uncover if the expected improvement is accomplished through talk and topic management of teachers through spontaneous subjects and referential questions. To get at a better understating of TIC enhancement, it also seeks to simply identify it in a natural-like and semi-instructed EFL environment. Finally, it endeavors to see whether the obtained insights contributes to the macro strategy 'facilitating negotiated interaction' by Kumaravadivelu (2003) and can be exploited to enhance the professional development of language teachers. That is why, the following research questions guides the current study:

1. How is the talk management of adult L2 learners accomplished by the teacher?
2. What interactional resources are deployed by the teacher to manage the talk of the adult L2 learners?
3. Is there any change in the teacher's deploying the interactional resources for talk-management in the course of the research?
4. Is there any diversification of interactional sources used by the teacher over time for the talk-management of adult L2 learners?
5. Does the teacher's talk-management have an observable effect on the L2 learners' topicalization?
6. Does the teacher's talk-management and topicalization have an observable effect on the adult L2 learners' involvement in talk-in-interaction?

1.6. Definitions of the Key Terms

Classroom interactional competence: 'teachers' and 'learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning' (Walsh, 2013, p.67)

English Interactional Club: the semi-instructed environment where English is taught as a foreign language.

Pause-in-Discourse: a brand-new concept offered by this study which entails ceasing the talk to treat spontaneous incorrect grammatical and lexical items.

Socio-vidualize: a brand-new term offered by this study which blends the words interdependent aspects of negotiated interaction: socialization and individualization

Second language (L2): refers to the acquisition of the target language by language learners as an additional language to their native language in natural or instructional settings (Kramsch, 2000)

1.7. Outline of the Study

This dissertation is composed of five chapters. The first chapter introduces the main focus of the dissertation. The first section (1.1) starts with presenting the background to CIC laying out the historical interest in the concept of interaction and how it paved the way to the growing interest in the notion CIC. The next section (1.2) introduces the statement of the problem, the gap in the literature that urged the present study to investigate the professional development of language teachers through talk management and calls to reconceptualize the concept of CIC. The third section (1.3) provides the reason why the study aims to simply describe the enhancement of interactional competence of language teachers and the reason why CA was preferred as a tool for data analysis. The fourth section (1.4) explicates the importance of the study that stems from four main goals and what makes it distinct from other previous studies. It also introduces the two brand-new concepts: Socio-vidualize and Pause-in-Discourse. The fifth section (1.5) introduces the research questions that guide the present study. The sixth sections (1.6) gives the definitions and abbreviated forms of the keywords that can be encountered across the study. The final section (1.7), which is this one, sets the framework of the dissertation.

The second chapter is devoted to the literature review. This first section (2.1) outlines the historical development of SLA and the approaches that fed into it. The second section (2.2) lays out the link between language pedagogy and SLA and how this relationship gave birth to various language teaching methods leading eventually to post-method methodology. The third section (2.3) elaborates on one of the most discussed notions of the post-method era: negotiated interaction. The fourth section (2.4) explains the nexus of interactional competence and SLA and how this link paved the way for the rise of CA-SLA. The fifth section (2.5) discusses the theoretical underpinnings of CA-SLA. The sixth section (2.6) provides a brief account of the bridge between interactional competence and language teaching and introduces one of the macro-strategies to promote management of learning in

the classroom. As for the seventh section (2.7), it dwells on the importance role of classroom interactional competence in language pedagogy. The eighth section (2.8) deals with calls to reconceptualize the CIC notion and how it contributes to the professional development of language teachers. The final section (2.9) summarizes the whole literature chapter giving an outline of the purpose of the study and the gaps the study aim to address.

The third chapter presents the methodology of the study. The first section (3.1) deals with the objectives of the research, its originality and significance. It also explicates six different reasons why the study is of utmost importance to fill the relevant gap in the literature. The second section (3.2) elaborates on the research questions once again to present how they relate to the scope and purpose of the study. The third section (3.3) dwells on how the data were collected, gives the details of where the research was carried out and describes the participants. Further, it focuses on the analysis of the data through the conversation analysis and provides the descriptions of the procedures of transcribing. The final section (3.4) addresses the issues concerning with validity and reliability.

The following chapter is Chapter IV, which presents the analyses and findings of the study to answer the research questions. It provides some selected extracts representing most of the instances in the database The first section (4.1) describes the ways the talk management is administered through various types of questions. The second section (4.2) explains how the talk management is supported by the topicalization. The third section (4.3) focuses on the ways the teachers uses non-linguistic items such as body positions, averting gaze, silence and so on. The final section (4.4) elaborates on the ways the teachers uses diverse resources to facilitate negotiated interaction.

The first section (5.1) elaborates on why the teacher is primarily expected to manage the classroom discourse, thereby explaining the reason why TIC and SIC should be stripped out of CIC and TIC should be treated as a sub-construct of the macro-strategy 'Facilitating Negotiated Interaction' (FNI) within the pedagogical framework proposed by

Kumaravadivelu (2003). It also lays groundwork for why classrooms should be turned into semi-instructed and natural-like language learning space where the teacher is not restricted to predetermined materials or plans.

The second section (5.2) focuses on the concept 'learner involvement / investment' which is suggested to overcome the interactional limitations posed by 'prepackaged' and 'determined' language learning practice. The third section (5.3) dwells on the third possible way of managing the classroom discourse: referential questions. The fourth section (5.4) introduces 'topicalization' to maintain the talk in the event of routinized referential questions and the section 5.5 will introduce a brand-new concept suggested by the present study: 'Socio-vidualizing' which basically explains the interdependent nexus of semi-instructed 'social context' and spontaneous 'individual needs' with the concepts of 'talk management' and 'topicalization'.

The section 5.6 will deal with a drawback to the concept 'socio-vidualizing' stemming from 'spontaneous treatment' by seeking an answer to relevant four questions. The sections 5.7 through 5.7.6 handle issues posed by the questions in the section 5.6 which attracts attention to the developmental readiness of the learners with different L1 background and current L2 proficiency levels. The section 5.8 presents another new concept 'Pause-in-Discourse' suggested by the current study as a micro strategy for the application of overt FFI, which is discussed in detail in the section 5.7 . The sections 5.8.1-5.8.3 expand on and elucidate the concept PID.

The section 5.9 argues that 'digital literacy' ameliorates the PID process to contextualize the talk. The sections 5.10, 5.10.1 and 5.10.2 explicate that the notion 'teacher autonomy' is a sub-strategy for the employment of TIC. The section 5.11 summarizes the chapter giving a brief description of the proposed framework by the study. It also explicates how it should be viewed and how it may function when used for language teaching and learning. The section 5.12 presents various implications of the study and the section 5.13 provides the

limitations of the study and 5.14 presents suggestions for further research respectively. The final section (5.15) ends the chapter with concluding remarks clarifying the main goal of the study and explaining the underlying incentives leading to the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will provide a brief overview of the evolvement of SLA and its link to language pedagogy. It will also focus on the classification of methods of language teaching that emerged from relevant language learning theories and how the post-method perspective has evolved. It will describe the birth of CA and CA-SLA in detail. Furthermore, the development of IC into CIC and its nexus of language teaching will be reviewed, which will lay ground for explicating the significance of the study.

2.1. Historical Development of SLA

Although the terms of L2 and FL are considered to refer to different concepts, they are used interchangeably. L2 generally refers to the language acquired in natural environments or learned in instructional settings by immigrants or local professionals living in a country where the target language is the national language, while FL refers to the language that is traditionally instructed in institutions with no natural context of use (Kramsch, 2000). However, this distinction is not that clear-cut. Indeed, the natural setting in which we learn a second language and the amount of exposure from its native speakers make the distinction between SL and FL (Ellis, 2010). It can be said that the field of SLA research encompasses both L2 and FL acquisition disregarding their minor differences; therefore, L2 refers to the acquisition of the target language by language learners as an additional language to their

native language in natural or instructional settings (Kramsch, 2000) and this approach is adopted in this study as it is adopted in Balaman (2016) and Sert (2013).

SLA is a 'relatively young discipline' that has been revisited due to new developments, be it technological or scientific, that have a huge impact on what we think of SLA today. Before WWI, the field of philology shaped our understanding of foreign language teaching and learning and between the two world wars, it was influenced by rise of psychology and the sciences of education (Kramsch, 2000). After WWII, FL teaching and learning gained a new angle by the emergence of Bloomfieldian (American linguistics) era between the 1930s and the mid-1950s when the behaviorist psychology was dominant. The behaviorist theory considered language to be a set of habits acquired as a result of stimulus-response connection (Gass et al., 2013).

The basis of American structuralism was established by Franz Boas' major concern about the languages and cultures of Native Americans. Boas and his student Edward Sapir strongly believed that all languages should be described in their own terms, rather than being related to other European languages. They also maintained psychological and anthropological factors influence a language. Sapir's student Benjamin Lee Whorf also maintained that the structure of a language determines how one views and perceives the world.

Unlike mentalist orientation of Boas and Sapir, Leonard Bloomfield was heavily influenced by the behaviorist theory which considered language to be a set of habits acquired as a result of stimulus-response connection. As empirical verification was very the main motive behind this behavioral school of psychology, teachers were seen as 'passive technicist' whose effectiveness could not be tested concretely and a 'conduit' who transmitted content knowledge from one end to another. The language teaching methods (e.g., audiolingual method) were basically 'language-centered' and they focused on pre-sequenced linguistics forms; that is, preselected grammatical structures that were presented intentionally through form-focused activities (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Neo-Bloomfieldian structuralism focused increasingly on syntax from the end of the Second WWII on. In 1957, the behaviorist tradition was challenged by the publication of Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures (1957). Chomsky considered grammar to be a set of structural, morphological and phonological rules. Through combination of these rules, grammatical sentences in a language by its native speakers whose unconscious knowledge would count some sentences as grammatical and others as ungrammatical based on finite sets of rules. This ability of producing and interpreting of uttered sentences was called *competence*.

This psychological system of linguistics knowledge was viewed to allow language users to produce infinite sentences in actual performance, which is called (Transformational) Generative Grammar that had precisely specified rules. As these rules were regarded to be available within a psychological system, it meant our ability of language, referred as language faculty, as well, was innate and abstract (Gass et al., 2013). Generative Grammar has undergone notable changes and renovations roughly every decade since. (The Classical Theory, The Standard Theory, The Extended Standard Theory, The Revised Extended Standard Theory and finally The Minimalist Program).

It was Chomskyan cognitive approach that laid the foundation of SLA because SLA, in general terms, is concerned with how learners cognitively sense, process and perceive a second language. Furthermore, it deals how learners categorize, specify and link between bits of language knowledge and solve acquisition related problems while processing a language system with mental rules (Dixon et al., 2012). This cognitive system is jointly shaped by basic social, cultural, personal, emotional and experiential factors. Therefore, Cognitive Linguistics (CL) rejects the approach that distinct parts of language such as morphology, phonology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics work separately.

Recent CL research has found that different parts of the brain (e.g., amygdala, hippocampus and hypothalamus) jointly interact with one another and they are interdependent at functional

and neurological levels and no region of the brain is specifically linked to any cognitive processes. That is why, our brain allows us to do multitasks simultaneously and the language is the main instrument in conducting those multitasks. (e.g., driving a car while changing the gear, stirring the wheel, checking the rear/side mirrors, pushing on the break or gas pedal and listening to music loudly). Along with the influence of cognitive approach, the field of psychology, too, has a deep impact on SLA (Gass et al., 2013) and Psycholinguistics generally consider language to be modular being comprised of the combination of different components. That is to say, the dominant psychological and cognitive theories of the time combined with various language teaching methods and approaches led to a link between language pedagogy and the acquisition of a second language.

2.2. Nexus of Language Pedagogy and SLA

SLA research is primarily concerned with the way one learns any language system and rules other than their native language. It involves the processes which L2 learners go through while learning a language and most importantly the rules that they come up with during the acquisition of their second language (Ellis, 2010). Therefore, teaching a particular language in a particular setting and context is not the main concern of SLA; however, research body of SLA makes great contributions to the field of language teaching and the understanding of the link between language pedagogy and language acquisition.

SLA is an interdisciplinary field, which makes it closely linked to both micro analyses of language (phonetics & phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics) and its macro analyses (pragmatics, discourse analysis, socio-linguistics and psycholinguistics). Kramsch (2000) points out that SLA research can be regarded as an interdisciplinary field mediating between the theory of language, which makes implicit or explicit claims, and the practice of language study, which reveals models of actions conforming or dis-conforming the theory. Establishing the ties between the theory and practice of language teaching has been the main

concern of debates in the field of language teacher education. Ellis (2010) suggests a framework consisting of four components (classroom researchers, SLA researchers, teachers, and teacher educators) and eleven guiding principles in order to bridge the gap between theory and practice in SLA domain.

That is why, SLA cannot be restricted to solely to a particular macro or a micro perspective of language because each can be a missing part of the other and those perspectives feeding SLA can overlap in some important ways. To set an example, doing a micro analysis of syntax, we focus on how words / small components of a sentence in a language relate to each other and how we order those components. Here we are talking about grammar and while doing that we do not take the world outside into account because we do not consider who used those components, when, where and why. Accordingly, the syntactical analysis of the affirmative sentence *I know where Faruk pharmacy is* would be that the component *I* is the noun phrase subject and first singular pronoun and it comes before the main verb *know*.

On the other hand, when we are looking at the components through the micro perspective of semantics, we analyze their meaning in isolation out of the context as they are in a dictionary. For instance, *I* refers to the person speaking or writing to refer her/himself and the *know* component means having information about something and it is synonym with *be acquainted with something*. As for the macro perspectives of both pragmatics and discourse analysis, the contextual background of the spoken / written language is taken into account using the knowledge of physical and social world. What is more, the socio-psychological factors are also utilized by these two perspectives to examine language. For instance, when an interlocutor asks the question *Do you know where Faruk Pharmacy is*?, he assumes that the person spoken to has information about the location of the pharmacy as that person lives in the neighborhood and can share it and help him by giving the directions. What is more, both pragmatics and discourse analysis concentrate on how written or spoken pieces of language

become meaningful and unified for language users. This quality is called *coherence* in discourse analysis and *relevance* in pragmatics as in the following example:

A: *Do you know where Faruk Pharmacy is*?

B: *It is two blocks from here. Go straight and take the first right. You can't miss it*.

B's answer is coherent with the A's question as *It* refers to the pharmacy (cohesion) and the shared information gives the directions where it is located (coherence). The A's purpose in asking such a question is to learn the location of the pharmacy. An answer like "I know" to the question "Do you know….?" would fail in complying with the purpose of the conversation.

That is to say, considering its interdisciplinary nature, the research body of SLA can be made more accessible using the data elicited through CA since SLA is treated as a *praxis* by four dominant perspectives which are foreign language education, child language research, sociocultural studies and psycholinguistics (Dixon et al., 2012). However, whether the generalizable pedagogical implications of SLA research serve 'provisional specifications' for a particular context is still a debatable issue. Many research studies have discussed bridging the gap between SLA theory; that is, technical knowledge and practicing its implications for language pedagogy that 'are worth acting on' in the community of practice (Ellis, 2010, p. 187).

In the 1960s and 1970s, some approaches focused on the social aspects that were ignored or downplayed by Generative Grammar, which led to the emergence of sociolinguistics related disciplines and learner-centered methods of language teaching. The main focus of these methods is *learners' communicative needs* shaped by preselected grammatical structures and *language use* through meaning-focused activities; however, these learner-methods use pre-sequenced linguistic forms as aforementioned language-centered methods do; thus, they are,

too, mostly concerned with the intentional development of language not with its incidental development (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

This approach sees teachers as reflective-practitioners who are not merely transmitters of knowledge as in language-centered methods but also who are creative, problem-solvers and sensitive to contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). From 1985 onwards, some other approaches concentrated on the contextual aspects that make language learning meaningful within a social setting. They triggered the emergence of *learning-centered* methods (e.g. the Natural approach) whose aim is to create learning opportunities for learners so that they can be involved in *open-ended meaningful interaction*, which is achieved through either communicative activities or problem-solving tasks.

The *learning-centered* approach is different from *language-centered* and *learner-centered* ones in that it sees language development *incidental* rather than *intentional* because it does not employ pre-selected linguistic forms or functions / notions. It principally intends to create an open-ended and non-linear language learning process where learners have the chance of 'understanding, saying and doing something' through meaningful interactional activities (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). However, the methods used by all the three main stream approaches to language teaching mentioned above (language-, learner- & learning-centered) idealize 'one-size-fits-all' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) contexts which do not take context-specific needs, goals, expectations, social and political factors into account.

Methods focus extremely on one aspect of language teaching and ignore others; that is why, their approaches offer restricted ways to explore the intricate nature of language and condition-specific factors of language teaching and learning (Clarke, 1983; Jarvis, 1991; Larsen-Freeman, 1990; Nunan, 1987; Pennycook, 1989;). Attempts to select and implement different parts of different methods simultaneously have too a broad perspective that cannot be based on any particular criterion; even if it were, using an 'eclectic method' would be creating another method with common shortcomings in the first place (Stern, 1992). As an

alternative to using a particular method, some concepts have been suggested: *priorities rather than pre-packed procedures* (Omaggio, 1986), *conversation through casting* (Di Pietro, 1987), *teaching by exploring* (Allright & Bailey, 1991) and *teaching strategies* (Stern, 1992).

These attempts along with some others (e.g., Macedo, 1994; Pennycook, 1989) have promoted the need to walk away from the 'one-size-fits-all' approach to language teaching and turning towards a more context-sensitive one that takes into account the social, political and local factors of specific learning settings, which is what Kumaravadivelu (2003) names as a 'post method condition'. Elaborating on its three 'interrelated attributes', he points out that this new condition, in the first place, cannot be considered as an 'alternative method' because then it will have the same drawbacks a method has. Instead, it must be construed as an 'alternative to methods' that has bottom-up processes where teachers as 'transformative intellectuals' can come up with professional theories from their teaching practices and turn them into innovative strategies that are context-specific and 'classroom-oriented'.

The second characteristic of the post method condition is that it urges teacher autonomy that entails self-observation, self-analyze, self-evaluation and acting free from any academic or administrative impositions. As for the third feature, 'principled pragmatism' encourages teachers to learn how to take immediate action to reshape classroom learning in the course of their teaching practice based on their experience, initial education and peer consultation in the community of practice.

The above-mentioned post-method attributes lay a foundation of three-dimensional 'post-method pedagogy' that has three fundamental parameters: particularity, practicality and possibility (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). The particularity parameter refers to the pedagogy that is 'context-sensitive' and 'location-specific' and does not ignore sociocultural and political factors of particular learners in a particular learning environment. As for the practicality parameter, it basically refers to urging teachers "… to theorize from their practice and to

practice what they theorize." (p. 37). The last parameter of possibility signifies defining and accepting any possible self-identity and subjectivity along with socio-political diversities within language education environment. Based on these parameters that constitute a three-dimensional post-method pedagogy, Kumaravadivelu (2003) suggests a macro-strategic framework for language teaching that embraces micro-strategies, as well. What he means by a macro-strategy is a broad guiding plan that allows teachers to 'theorize from what they practice' context-specific and 'need-based' micro-strategies for their classrooms.

The framework is theory-and-method-neutral in the sense that it is not based on any professional theory of language teaching and learning and it is not restricted by any underlying theoretical principles or classroom. It is grounded in the insights obtained from classroom-oriented research. He further proposes that such kind of a macro-strategic framework is a must for student-teachers and teachers in the community of practice in order that they can come up with personal insights (micro-strategies) that can help them self-observe, -analyze and -evaluate based on the three parameters: particularity, practicality and possibility.

The operating principles of the framework are depicted in the form of a wheel by Kumaravadivelu (2003, p.41) similar to Figure 1 below. At the center, the three parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility are presented as an interweaving and overlapping axle directing the pedagogic wheel. The operating macro-strategies are connected to the axle as stabilizer spokes, while language learning and language teaching are located in the outer rim.

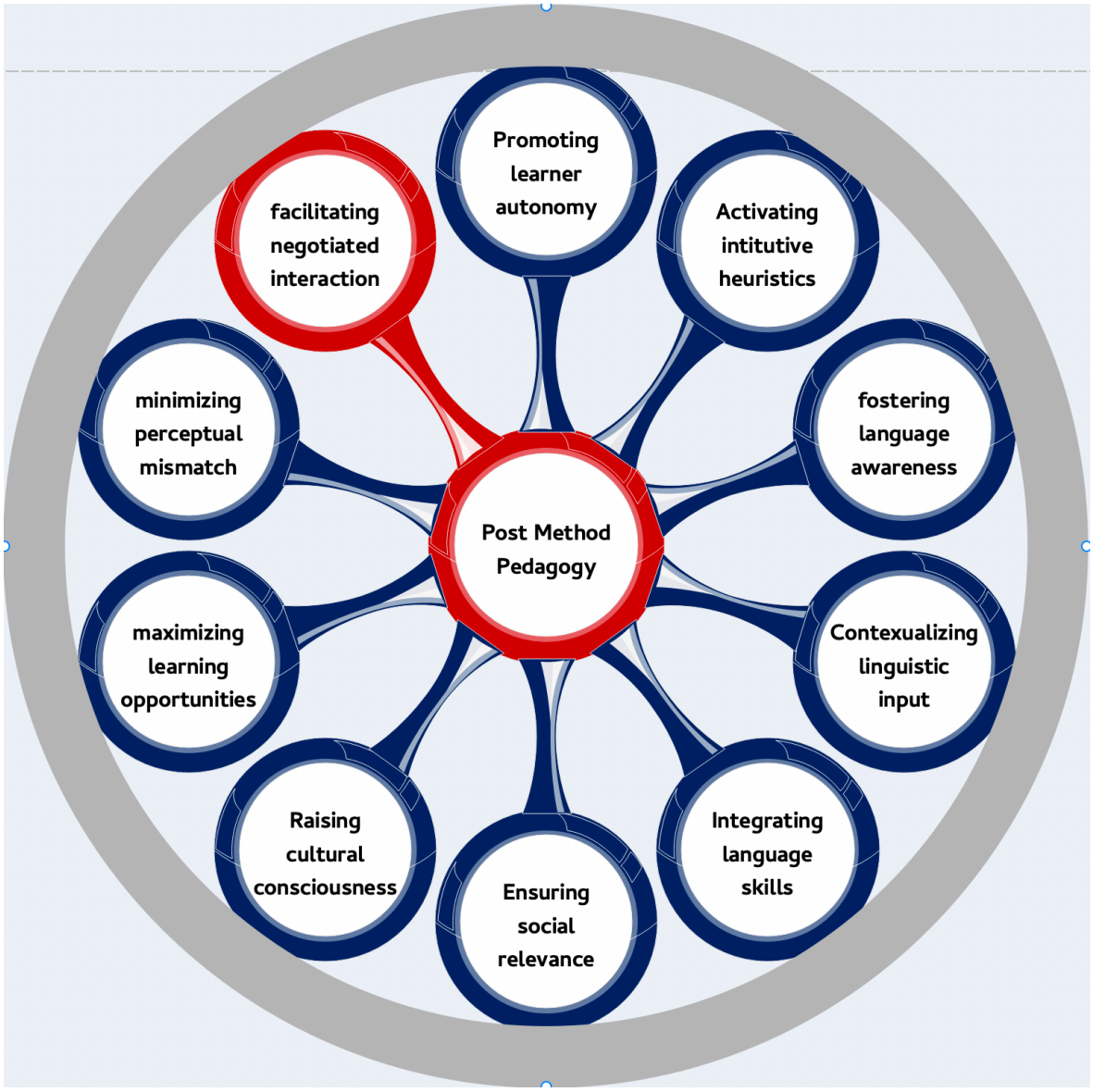


Figure 1. The pedagogic wheel.

All in all, language learning and teaching cannot be restricted to a set of techniques and principles because there are unlimited and various needs, expectations, and contexts. Unfortunately, teacher education models based on the traditional perspective of methods cannot help both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers to act autonomously and take immediate actions for unexpected learning and teaching problems. 'One-size-fits-all' pedagogy does not allow language teachers to build their own post-method pedagogy and it is an obligation to conceptualize and construct a post-method pedagogy based on the macro-strategic framework that is centered on the aforementioned parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility.

This kind of macro-strategic framework aims to transform classroom technicians and practitioners into reflective designers of situation-specific micro-strategies in the course of learning and teaching. As the main focus of this study is the operating macro strategy called "facilitating negotiated interaction' as one of the stabilizer spokes of the wheel, we shift our attention to the studies on interactional development of L2 that interchangeably employ various terms such as 'talk, dialogue, conversation, conversational interaction, negotiation and negotiated interaction' for the concept of interaction (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

2.3. Negotiated Interaction

SLA has been investigated from many respects while some concepts in SLA domain have attracted a lot of debate over a few decades and NI is one of those prevailing concepts. Research body of SLA signifies that there are various perspectives on the role of interaction in the development of L2; however, its exact role has not been adequately examined. The main motive behind the interest in NI is that it fosters 'learning by talking' to the competent speakers of the target language. It also provides naturally occurring learning opportunities where learners develop their L2 by receiving negotiated input and producing modified output (Allright, 1984; Gass, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 1998).

NI has been studied from different angles and it was first, in 1970s, regarded as phonological, lexical and syntactical modifications in the received input for the sake of comprehension among the interlocutors. That kind of attitude towards NI was triggered by *caretaker-talk, caregiver-speech child-directed-speech, motherese-talk and baby-talk* concepts (Yule, 2013) in the research body on first language acquisition of children. Studies on these concepts paid the way for the foreigner-talk that is directed to L2 learners by native speakers and that includes modifications such as exaggerated intonation, slow and clear articulation, longer pauses, emphatic stress etc. (Snow & Ferguson, 1977).

The foreigner talk used by teachers is labelled as teacher-talk that basically consists of simplified language for L2 learners. This simplified version of interaction was first regarded to be the basic step in developing L2 speech in instructed settings because it provided comprehensible input (Krashen, 1987). The perspective that considers language acquisition to be input-dependent claims that exposure to comprehensible input in great amounts alone is sufficient for language acquisition both receptively and productively. In other words, being exposed to an L2 through the two receptive skills listening and reading caters for improving not only receptive skills but also other two productive skills writing and speaking (Mackey & Goo, 2012).

Krashen views "comprehensible input" as a pre-condition for the ability to produce the L2 (1985). In other words, output is the result and product and the input is the cause and process of acquisition. This claim sounds sensible on the condition that the input culminate in output. It is clear that it does not on its own because both comprehensible input and comprehensible output have their own roles in L2 acquisition (Ellis & He, 1999), which indicates that language acquisition is incomplete without *interactionally modified output* and that involves generating already noticed linguistic elements. Although there is attention in input enhancement, it is triggered by external factors. As for output, consciousness-raising takes

place through an internal system due to the production process it requires (Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000).

As interaction necessitates socially constructed learning, comprehension (input) or production (output) on their own cannot be viewed as basic components of LA from a sociocultural perspective (Ellis & He, 1999). That is why, output-dependent perspective supports that input alone is not sufficient for language acquisition and the learners need to output or be pushed to output meaningful production of language beyond their interlanguage (Swain, 1995). Comprehensible output helps learners notice the gaps in their interlanguage and gives them the opportunity to test what they have theorized. However, mere output cannot be considered to be the final attainment but a source of learning because no matter how much a learner is exposed to comprehensible input or pushed to produce meaningful and comprehensible output, there are still situations where learners have to produce some linguistic forms that they have never faced before during interaction with other interlocutors (Swain, 1985).

L2 comprehension and production is facilitated via interaction, which is the social setting in which language learning is mediated by language use, that is, using language to learn the language itself (Swain, 2000). This process is regarded as *pushed output* which triggers L2 learners to acquire the language *with more mental effort* than input processing and help learners to interact correctly, reasonably and suitably for a particular time, purpose and setting (Swain, 2000, p. 99). In short, interaction, as a bridge between comprehension and production, provides language learners with modified input for comprehension, noticing the gap and explicit correction (Gass et al., 2013). This, of course, can be accomplished through the repetition and rephrasing of input content, comprehension and clarification checks, and clarification requests. As a result of this, even complex linguistic input is easily comprehended and there will be no need to make it less complex or simpler (Mackey & Goo, 2012). The frequency uses of embodied cognitive input through interactional modifications

in meaningful context fosters L2 acquisition because when a cognitive unit is frequently used, its formation and activation becomes routinized and automated in the long-term memory (Langacker, 1987).

In other words, as input refers to the linguistic information available to learners in their environment, learners can embody and entrench that perceived information through collaborative interaction (Swain, 2000). In a sense, output "may force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing" and "collaborative dialogue allows performance to outstrip competence" (1995, p. 97). An important component of this collaborative interaction is negotiation which is a kind of feedback given by the interlocutors (Gass et al., 2013). What helps learners to internalize the received input is the feedback from other interlocutors while interacting (VanPatten, 2004). That is to say, "it is not input per se that is important to second language acquisition but input that occurs in interaction where meaning is negotiated" (Swain, 1985, p. 246) because "not only does negotiation enhance the comprehensibility of the message, but it also makes certain linguistic features of form-meaning relationships salient so that they become more available for acquisition" (Mackey & Goo, 2012, p. 3).

Indeed, *cognitive salience* has a focal point and plays a primary role in the effectiveness of the interactional input of L2 acquisition. The cognitive salience requires attention and negotiation which can facilitate the input processing through necessary modifications of the linguistic elements. This kind of interactional modification results in better comprehension than pre-modified input because making modifications during interaction entails negotiation that makes the L2 learner notice what to be corrected or modified. What is more, meaningful NI requires an interpersonal activity that contains sociolinguistic features of roles and relationships, identifying and repairing communication breakdowns. Output has basically three main functions: noticing, hypothesis-testing and metalinguistic.

All in all, input alone might be enough in order for the L2 acquisition to take place but it would be an incomplete acquisition (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; VanPatten, 2004,). One can hear and receive meaningful and comprehensible input or imitate that input on his own talking to himself in front of a mirror or just contemplating an imaginary context of conversation. However, mere exposure to language would not suffice to activate the cognitive language faculty of human without interactionally negotiated output. Otherwise, a child being constantly exposed to the input of a second language through watching TV would eventually be able to acquire the target language, and it is obvious that it is impossible. In a similar vein, there is negotiation in the interactional modified input by means of requests for clarification or confirmation checks and so on, which helps the interlocutors recognize a gap between what they want to say and what they can say. In other words, the process of either *pre-modified input* or *interactionally modified input* offers the interlocutors the choice of thinking and taking an action to make modification in the input. However, this kind of negotiation does not necessarily yield any production in the end-state although it makes certain linguistic elements salient.

What really makes syntactic-semantic relationships salient is the interactional modification through which learners can make a connection between form and meaning and internalize this capacity for interactive purposes (Ellis & He, 1999; Long, 1996). Interactionally modified output will involve L2 learners' own experience and emotions of the real or imaginary world in or beyond the instructed environment. They form their individual identities, which necessitates a cognitive awareness and a sociocultural sensitivity; thus, the impact of interactional modifications in L2 development cannot be explained just in terms of conversational adjustments in linguistic construct because various individual, social and cultural factors influence and shape the nature and context interaction (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Furthermore, as the complex nature of L2 development cannot be attributed to only linguistic or sociolinguistic explanations, a more complete range of socio-cognitive and sociocultural factors should also be taken into account (Breen, 1985), which is what originally Vygotsky (1978) proposed. His proposal basically asserts that language and cognition development is achieved through social interaction with the competent native speakers and 'private' interaction in which learners talk to themselves. Both social and individual participation takes place within 'the zone of proximal development' (ZPD) where learners have the potential of moving from the actual level of development into the possible future development. Unlike Krashen's i+1 (1985), Vygotsky's ZPD is constructed on interaction that requires social and individual active participation on the part of learners not mere exposure to the input; what is more, movement from current level to the next one is unpredictable and cyclic in ZPD, whereas it is predictable and linear in i+1 (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

In 1990s, characterizing language learners as 'deficient communicators' and describing language learning based on specific cognitive, social and linguistic features drew severe criticism (Hall et al., 2011). The interaction competence of learners was not regarded to be restricted to the specific linguistic and paralinguistic information available to them in their environment. On the contrary, learners could extend their interactional achievement beyond context-restricted information through collaborative interaction (Gass et. al, 2013; Mackey & Goo, 2012; Swain, 2000; VanPatten, 2004) and through that kind of 'collaborative dialogue', the performance of learners could do better and 'outstrip' their competence (Swain, 1995, p. 97). Consequently, more and more scholars walked away from analyzing interactional data that is based on exogenous theories and individualistic perspectives of researchers and headed towards more emic perspectives and adopted ethno-methodological CA that analyses an insider-relevant and data-driven rather than theory-driven and researcher-relevant interactional exchanges.

There was an orientation towards examining naturally occurring talk-in-interaction data, the sequential and temporal organization of the talk and its nonverbal conduct, that is, both of its linguistic and non-linguistic micro analyses instead of using assumptive, and coding-based procedures (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Kasper & Wagner, 2011). This orientation urged SLA scholars to revisit their findings of language learning, SLA terms and to extend SLA literature through analytic lens of CA that offers emic perspectives on authentic L2 interaction data (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Markee, 2000; Markee & Kasper, 2004) and gave birth to CA as an approach to second language acquisition (CA-SLA) (Balaman, 2016; Hellermann & Cole, 2009; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee & Kunitz, 2015; Mondada & Doehler, 2004; Sert, 2011; Sert, 2013).

2.4. Nexus of Interactional Competence and SLA

By the mid 1990s, approaches employing linguistic ethnography and discourse analytic methods marked the beginning of a social turn, which resulted in a shift from a cognitivist perspective to a more social one in SLA research. For example, the concept of "*language socialization*" has gained prominence in line with global developments in SLA field. (Duff & Talmy, 2011; Ortega, 2011). Language socialization refers to "…a broad framework for understanding the development of linguistic, cultural, and communicative competence through interaction with others who are more knowledgeable or proficient (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 95).

This shift to a more social perspective was indeed a reaction to the 'standard epistemology' in the field of sociology and the pioneers of the shift were sociologists Harvey Sacks and Emanuel A. Schegloff (Kasper & Wagner 2011). They basically paved the way to CA whose initial focus was observing the naturally occurring details of social action thoroughly based on practical experience and scientific testing (Schegloff & Sacks 1973).

2.5. Theoretical Underpinnings of CA-SLA

Two socially oriented SLA theories that have fascinated researchers most so far are sociocultural theory (SCT) and CA-SLA (Ortega, 2011). Unlike cognitivist SLA research, which mainly focuses the use of linguistic development, SCT examines 'other forms of knowledge' such as culture, social knowledge, ideologies, epistemologies, identities, subjectivities and affect etc. It does not downplay the linguistic resources, though. As for CA-SLA, it examines the social aspects of language acquisition in a broad sense. Particularly, it studies what social participants do and practice, and how they construe their daily life rather than social formations at the macro-societal level. It examines how social members use language as a main source and some other non-language sources at the level of interaction both in mundane and institutional everyday environments (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). CA does not hold its own (endogenous) theory of learning. Therefore, CA-SLA have employed exogenous theories such as sociocultural theory, situated learning, discursive psychology and language socialization in its researches (Duff & Talmy, 2011; Edwards & Potter, 2005; He, 2004; Hellermann, 2008; Kasper, 2009; Markee & Seo, 2009; Mondada & Doehler, 2004).

CA's "object of study, in the broadest sense, is the interactional competencies of social members, specifically their sense-making practices and their methods to establish and maintain social order in their activities" (Kasper, 2009, p. 11). One of the main principles of CA is *interaction order* (Goffman, 1983), which basically refers to the idea that social members as interactants take part in systematic social practices to which they must morally adhere (Drew, 2005). In other words, talk-in-interaction is organized based on a systematic 'interaction order' that is shaped by the context where it occurs and it paves the way to the sequential context (Seedhouse, 2005). Understanding and producing these social practices and contexts constitutes IC of the interactants; in a sense, IC encompasses both the

knowledge of language use and knowledge of *interactional procedures* such as turn taking, sequence, organization, and repair (Kasper & Wagner, 2011).

L2 learners with IC can easily participate in interaction and social practices effectively. They also can monitor and develop their talk over time through interactional negotiation and modifications both inside the classroom and outside the classroom (Lee, 2006). As language is the main resource of social interaction, L2 speakers' linguistic knowledge and IC play an interrelated role in sequential organization and turn construction in social talk (Fox, et. al, 1996; Mori, 2010; Schegloff et. al, 1996). As for the cognition, CA does not see it as an individual feature but rather sees it as a part of sense-making interactional social practices that is shared in social members' orderly joint talk through which inter-subjectivity is arrived at and maintained (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Molder & Potter, 2005). As this talk is naturally produced and understood by competent participants-in-interaction, through audio and video tapes, CA examines what is going on during the interaction by focusing mainly on publicly available aspects of interaction practices such as turn-taking, turn-construction, preference, using adjacency pairs, and repair; thus, it does not strive to predict and interpret what they will be dealing with in their social affairs (Kasper & Wagner, 2011).

L2 learners as social members make learning the main concern of their social talk and use various sources to keep the interaction going. In a way, they learn language as a social practice within any social setting. One of the first studies on interaction in classroom is Markee's (1994) research which presented students' employment of sequence organization, repair and sequential knowledge of turn-taking. Along with analyzing 'language learning as a social activity', CA-SLA analyses development of IC within 'short term', (e.g., analyzing different moments within an activity) or 'over time' (successive activities over a long period) (Markee, 2000; Zimmerman, 1999). Be it short term or long term, the analysis of development of IC is done through comparison. As an instance for short term development, Ishida (2006) conducted a study on development of Japanese interactional particles such as

ne and the verbal suffix -*yoo* through a 10-minute decision-making activity and he compared similar sequences of the particle use in the activity. Without taking this social activity as a learning practice, the L2 speaker used and understood the particles. So, the development was analytically visible as joint decision activity directed the L2 speaker toward using the markers and change them accordingly without being corrected and the mistakes being repaired.

As for long term development, Kim (2009) investigated the use of discourse markers -*nuntey* and -*kuntey* by L2 speakers of Korean at different proficiency levels with Korean L1 speakers. She examined different turn positions concluding that there was a developmental use of the markers over time. Besides his study on short term development of the marker *ne*, Ishida (2009) also conducted longitudinal research on the same marker. Over a ten-month period, the participant developed his competency of using the marker *ne* in different sequential contexts.

Hellermann (2008) examined how adult learners of English as a second language (ESL) established methods of social order in their classrooms by concentrating on the sequential organization of openings, and story-tellings. The beginner students exploited kinesthetic nonverbal resources, whereas the higher-proficiency students expanded their social actions and linguistic practices building close relationships with other participants. It can be concluded that from a CA perspective, analyzing social language learning and development through interactional practices at various social contexts can offer insights into the SLA field and these insights can establish more strong links between theoretical and practical aspects of language pedagogy, in particular.

2.6. Nexus of Interactional Competence and Language Teaching

Language development of learners is the main responsibility of language teachers who can do it by helping their learners become autonomous learners and participate actively in the learning process. Specifically, teachers should create some opportunities where learners can share experiences that are important to them in a meaningful way. "What can help the teacher in carrying out such a responsibility is promotion of negotiated interaction." (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 114). Promoting NI entails 'management of learning' (Allwright, 1981), which allows the learners to take their own decision regarding learning and to control their learning process to a certain extent. In terms of NI, Kumaravadivelu divides 'management of learning' into two sections:

a) 'talk management', which is concerned with the way participants talk (how they talk) and which is done through the structure of information called the IRF sequence (Initiation, Response & Feedback).
b) 'topic management', which is concerned with the content of the participants' talk (what they talk).

The talk structured on IRF sequence is generally teacher-dominant because 'initiation' and 'feedback' is provided by the teacher and the student is restricted to respond to what the teacher asks. Obviously, talk management via this kind of structure cannot promote NI as seen in the following exchange (Kumaravadivelu, 2003):

"1 Teacher: How many elephants are there in the picture? … How many elephants? … Keioko?
2 Keiko: Two.
3 Teacher: Two … good. What are the elephants doing? … Carlos, what are the elephants doing?
4 Carlos: Fight … fighting.
5 Teacher: They are fighting. Uh-huh … According to the writer, what dies when two elephants fight? What dies … ? Maria?
6 Maria: mm … grass. The grass, that's right. When two elephants fight, it's the grass that dies. (laughs) OK …" (p. 116)

In the sample dialogue above, it is clear that the student is not directed to 'negotiated interaction' as the teacher's 'display questions' aims to elicit linguistic samples and the student does not have any opportunity to express his opinion or feelings and ask any questions. It does not extend interaction beyond a pre-determined IRF sequence. However, this kind of a teacher-centered classroom interaction can be turned into a meaningful classroom interaction through employing referential questions that requires joint involvement of the teacher and student, that is, the IRF sequence that both elicits linguistic structures and exploits paralinguistic information such as opinions or interpretations as shown in the following exchange (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) :

"1	T:	OK… All right. You know what divorce means?
2	S1:	Yes.
3	T:	What does divorce mean?
4	S1:	If finish … marriage … x
5	T:	Finish?
6	S1:	Yes.
7	S2:	No.
8	S1:	Yes.
9	T:	What do you think it means?
10	S3:	Separate.
11	T:	Separate?
12	S2:	Yes.
13	T:	OK. Why... why do you think people get a divorce?
14	S2:	Maybe... may be different ... eh.
15	S1:	New ... new.
16	T:	Let him try.
17	S2:	No … no … may be different between … eh …between ... he like something … she didn't like something … may be …
18	T:	They have problems
19	S2:	I go swimming ... I eat … I don't eat pork …
20	S4:	Different idea ... eh ... between.
21	S2:	Yah.
22	T:	S5, why do you think people get divorce?
23	S5:	Eh... they..eh... broken ... their love.
24	T:	They don't love each other …
25	S5:	Yah.

26 T: Do people get divorced in Japan?
27 S5: Yah.
28 T: S6, Do people get divorced in China?
29 S2: (has been consulting an Arab-English dictionary) no compatibility …
30 T: No compatibility. Good. No dictionary ... put that away …" (p. 117).

On the other hand, the 'efficient talk management' through referential questions has the potential of becoming 'routinized and ritualized' if it is not combined with an 'effective topic management' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Topic management requires some kind of freedom on the part of learners to choose topics for interactional purposes (Hatch, 1978). Most important of all, there are some opportunities for learners to generate topics out of what is being said in the class either by the teacher or by the classmates and this process is called "topicalization" (van Lier, 1988). Self- or peer-nominated topics create learning opportunities based on individual perspectives and enhance learner autonomy and self-efficacy (Ellis, 1992; Ellis, 1999; Slimani, 1989).

"1. T: OK, let's look at it together. What does Speaker A believe and what does Speaker B believe? ... mmm ... Somebody from Group A, can you tell me what this speaker basically believes about euthanasia?
1. S1: Human rights.
2. T: What do you mean, "human rights?"
3. S1: Nobody kills someone ... mmm ... mercy killing will be like ... like murder: If they …
4. T: So, you have got words like murder (writes "murder" on the board). OK, what are some other points? mmm … what are some other arguments given?
5. S2: If mercy killing . . . you are permitting ... (reads from the text) "some people would be tempted to kill for selfish reasons" .... It is dangerous.
6. T: OK, it's a dangerous idea (writes "dangerous idea" on the board).
7. S3: Other point. If they ... (reads from the text) " if the patient waits, maybe the doctor will find a way to help."
8. T: Yeah, advancement in medical science.
9. S4: Ora miracle can ...
10. T: That's a really good word. It's not in the text. What does "miracle" mean, S4?
11. S4: I don't know.
12. SS: (laugh)
13. T: Miracle. That's a key word. What's a miracle?
14. S1: Miracle means ... eh ... very . . . eh . . . very fantastic.
15. S2: Inhuman ...

16. T: You mean non-human ... It has to do with superhuman or supernatural happenings. Right? Something God does is a miracle ... For instance, Christ has performed many miracles ...
17. S4: Because I think xx maybe something will change. Maybe some kind of energy will help ... Miracle.
18. T: Ah . . . some kind of energy . . .
19. S5: Miracle xxx." (p. 121)

To sum up, the teacher must employ some micro-strategies to facilitate NI which is designed to help the learners to extend their linguistic knowledge, to exchange their individual perspectives and enhance their interactional competence. This interactional competence requires teachers and learners to work collaboratively to maintain classroom interaction. Consequently, the classroom discourse jointly managed by teachers and learners influence l2 development. The mutual cooperation between teachers and learners is basically based on flexible and free engagement in talk and topic management. In a sense, to achieve such a collaboration on talk and topic management, classroom interaction competence of both teachers and learners must be enhanced.

2.7. Classroom Interactional Competence

As interaction is regarded to be the key element of all daily life activities and settings, interactional competence is believed to have a central role in learning and teaching. IC is a term first coined by Kramsch (1986) who basically argues that language learners should be provided with learning opportunities where they can be oriented to interact exploiting their own skills and knowledge. In terms of a joint communication, there is a student-centered approach which urges teachers to guide their students towards being involved in meaning based social practices. Students are not seen as speakers who have 'deficiency' in necessary skills for interaction; on the contrary, they have enough competencies to be discovered and to use various interactional resources (Hall et al., 2011). Walsh (2013) defines CIC as 'teachers' and 'learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning' (p.67).

Interaction is the key stone that creates learning opportunities through context specific social activities tasks that has potential of enhancing the use of interaction resources by language learners (Mori, 2002). Joint involvement of both speakers and interlocutors is required to create meaning. Therefore, diverse resources used by the teachers for collaborative involvement can influence the effectiveness of learning opportunities (Koshik, 2002). These resources are required to provide basic and sophisticated knowledge for interaction so that learners can maintain their position, compete for the ground, pass or take turn, join or interrupt the conversation.

Even though CIC regarded to be context specific, it still provides appropriate resources both for the pedagogical goals of both institutions and language learners (Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2003). For instance, the teacher scaffolds the learners who are interacting by clarifying and modifying their interaction, helping the interactants to fully articulate what is being said so that other interlocutors can keep up with the flow. In addition to providing effective learning opportunities through alignment of pedagogical goals and language use, CIC offers an *interactional space for learning* where the teacher increases wait-time for learners to think, formulate and give their response and reduces teacher-echo that might force learners to answer immediately.

What is more, the teacher does not interrupt an ongoing conversation for the sake of error correction that might distort the flow of interaction. Instead, the teacher lets learners plan their time and extend their turns so that they can 'co-construct meaning' stress-freely (Walsh & Li, 2013). In other words, the teacher takes the role of *shaping* learners' interaction by scaffolding them and reconstructing their responses with slight grammatical and lexical changes. Most important of all, the teacher provides feedback through shaping process, which can have a deep impact on learning. The proportion of the teacher talk and learner participation is closely linked to effectively maximizing learning opportunities and creating a learning space (Walsh & Li, 2013).

2.8. Teacher's Professional Development Through CIC

Believing interaction is central to learning, Walsh (2014) has called for the reconceptualization of the CIC notion arguing that it is highly important teachers develop their own interactional competence first to promote learning and create learning opportunities. There is no best method to do this, and teacher should construct their own 'context-specific post method pedagogy' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) to develop their CIC. What teachers must bear in mind is that every context requires its own developing skills; accordingly, understanding CIC and the ways to manage classroom interaction is vital for their professional development and the practice of everyday teaching. One method to raise awareness about CIC is to encourage teachers to transcribe a video or audio recording that is related to the professional development of teachers.

However, transcribing is a highly challenging job; therefore, teachers often refrain from professional development activities that require transcriptions (Walsh, 2014). To avoid such a drawback, Walsh proposes that teachers should be encouraged to self-observe and analyze specific parts of their teaching instead of a whole lesson which might take 4-5 hours of examination. Teachers can reflect more productively effectively on 15-minute short extracts and they can do it for various lessons. They can achieve this through some devices or framework such as SETT (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk) without transcribing.

The basic idea behind this is that the teacher is an insider construct of the interaction and they can analyze every single detail a researcher, who is an outsider, may not be able to catch. Besides un-transcribed lesson recordings, Walsh suggests using 10-15-minute snapshot recordings extracted from different parts of a series of a lesson at different classes and different times. Analyzing particular short transcripts of a single lesson repeatedly is less complex than longer ones and it allows for more frequent comparison of the obtained data.

What is more, in the course of repeated analysis, it is more likely to come across similar samples and recurrent patterns in different contexts, which may give the teacher some ideas about how the interaction is organized. As a third strategy for L2 teacher development through CIC, Walsh offers *stimulated recall procedures*. While analyzing, the teacher together with a colleague who has a critical perspective comment on particular parts of a recording simultaneously. In that way, they immediately spot issues on-site as the recording unfolds and they come up with a common perspective which has no place for misunderstanding and misremembering. This strategy allows for cross-check, double check and repeated playback and it offers 'fine-grained' analysis that can raises awareness.

To be able to shape their learners' interaction, teachers must be able to reshape their interaction competence in the first place. To do so, they should holistically reflect on what is going on in their classroom and become *strategic practitioners* through systematic *self-observation*, *self-analyzing* and *self-evaluation* of their teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2013). In other words, teachers must be able to use CIC as a tool 'to mediate and assist the classroom learning'. The concept of CIC basically refers to the joint involvement of two parties: teachers and learners (Walsh, 2013). However, CIC gives teachers the leading responsibility of using diverse resources for collaborative involvement and creating effective learning opportunities for learners to be able to maintain their interactional position, compete for the ground, pass or take turn, join or interrupt the conversation (Koshik, 2002).

With these points in mind, this study aims to offer reconceptualization of the CIC and stripping out TIC as a sub-construct of the theory-and-method-neutral macro-strategic framework suggested by Kumaravadivelu (2003) for language teaching. Although the framework consists of ten macro strategies, "[t]here are, of course, hidden or unknown wheels within wheels - individual, institutional, social, and cultural factors - that influence language learning, language teaching, and language use in a given communicative situation." (p. 41). Bearing this fact in mind, it is the objective of the present study to examine through

the lens of CA and to document the development of TIC as a sub-construct of the macro-strategy of 'facilitated negotiated interaction' of the pedagogic wheel within a semi-instructed setting.

2.9. Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to answer the call for revisiting SLA findings regarding the interactional dimension through the lens of CA-SLA. Specifically, the study urges to investigate and document the enhancement of TIC in a semi-instructed environment where English is taught as a foreign language. The investigation is based on analyzing teachers' talk and topic management of the adult L2 learners through the sequential organization of the interaction taking place at the ENIC. Although it might help understand L2 learning, it takes a neutral stance on L2 learning and it does not aim to come up with new L2 learning hypotheses due to the nature of CA approach, which is data-driven not theory-driven as it is concerned with the findings obtained from naturally occurring interactional exchanges that are culturally bound and insider-relevant rather than researcher-relevant and artificially-produced ones.

CA uses a detailed system of transcription for analyzing the sequential, temporal, nonverbal conduct in talk-in-interaction instead of assumptive, and coding-based procedures, that is, it exploits all linguistic and non-linguistic details of interactional-sequences through micro-analytic lens and identify similar instances across data and track down any diversification and change of interactional resources over time as evidence. CA holds an ethno-methodological perspective that strives to explicate how a common-sense view of the world is constructed through everyday conversation by social members. What is more, CA holds an epistemological perspective that can explicate the indispensable role of knowledge in interactional sequences since talk-in-interaction cannot take place without knowledge.

Previous studies on classroom discourse barely addressed the development of interactional competence of teachers of *adult L2 learners* through the lens of CA. What is more, as teachers have the leading responsibility in shaping classroom discourse, mediating and assisting the classroom learning, this study offers reconceptualization of CIC stripping TIC out of it. It also suggests TIC be treated as a precondition of SIC and be a sub-construct of the macro-strategy 'facilitating negotiated interaction' within the pedagogical framework proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003). Unlike previous classroom discourse studies, this study was carried out in a semi-instructed, social and natural-like learning setting. The approach adopted by the study is that SLA refers to the acquisition of the target language by language learners as an additional language to their native language in natural or instructional settings.

What is more, findings obtained from adult L2 learners could contribute to expanding CA-SLA related studies to different angles by supporting more cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies (e.g., examining the transfer of L1 interactional practices to L2 talk) (Golato, 2002; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2002). Although teaching a particular language in particular setting and context is not the main concern of SLA, it still makes great contributions to the understanding of the link between language pedagogy and language acquisition because SLA is an interdisciplinary field which is closely linked to both micro analyses of language and its macro analyses mediating between the theory of language, which makes implicit or explicit claims, and practice of language study, which reveals models of actions conforming or dis-conforming the theory.

Indeed, research body of SLA is treated as a *praxis* by four dominant perspectives which are *foreign language education, child language research, sociocultural studies* and *psycholinguistics*. However, whether the generalizable pedagogical implications of SLA research serve "provisional specifications" for a particular context is still a debatable issue. The evolvement of SLA dates back before WWI when the field of philology shaped our

understanding of foreign language teaching and learning. Between the two world wars, it was influenced by the rise of psychology and the sciences of education.

After WWII, FL teaching and learning gained a new angle by the emergence of Bloomfieldian (American linguistics) era between the 1930s and the mid-1950s when the behaviorist psychology was dominant. Teachers were seen as *passive technicist* whose effectiveness could not be tested concretely and a *conduit* who transmitted content knowledge from one end to another. The language teaching methods (e.g., audiolingual method) were basically *language-centered* and they focused on pre-sequenced linguistics forms, that is, preselected grammatical structures that were presented intentionally through form-focused activities.

Noam Chomsky's Cognitive Approach considered grammar to be a set of structural, morphological and phonological rules that were regarded to be available within a psychological / cognitive system. This approach laid the foundation of SLA in general terms as SLA is primarily concerned with how learners cognitively sense, process and perceive a second language and how they come up with rules during the acquisition of their second language. In the 1960s and 1970s, sociolinguistics and related disciplines came up with what Chomsky approach missed: the social aspect of language learning, which led to learner-centered methods of language teaching whose main focus is *learners' communicative needs*. Both language- and learner- centered methods use pre-sequenced linguistic forms and they are mostly concerned with the intentional development of language not with its incidental development. Teachers are seen as reflective-practitioners, creative, problem-solvers and sensitive to contexts.

From 1985 onwards, some approaches concentrated on the contextual aspects within a particular social setting, which triggered the emergence of *learning-centered* methods mainly through *open-ended meaningful interaction* of either communicative activities or problem-solving tasks without employing pre-selected linguistics form or functions /

notions. Unlike *language-centered* and *learner-centered* methods, language development is incidental rather than intentional in *learning-centered* methods.

However, the methods used by all the three main stream approaches idealize 'one-size-fits-all' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) contexts. Attempts to use an 'eclectic method' to compensate for this shortcoming is regarded as creating another method in the first place and it is too a broad perspective without any particular criterion (Stern, 1992). Instead of an alternative method, an alternative to methods has been suggested (Allright & Bailey, 1991; Macedo, 1994; Omaggio, 1986; Pennycook, 1989; Pietro, 1987; Stern, 1992) : the post method condition (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) with three parameters: particularity, practicality and possibility. Teachers are seen as 'transformative and autonomous intellectuals' who are sensitive to contexts, experiential theories, socio-political diversities.

Based on the three-dimensional post-method pedagogy, Kumaravadivelu (2003) suggests a macro-strategic framework for language teaching that is grounded in the insights obtained from classroom-oriented research. One of the main strategies is 'facilitating negotiated interaction' and studies on interactional development of L2 indicate that various terms such as 'talk, dialogue, conversation, conversational interaction, negotiation and negotiated interaction' are interchangeably used for the concept of interaction (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Research body of SLA signifies that there are various perspectives on the role of interaction in the development of L2; however, its exact role in the development of L2, has not been adequately examined. The main motive behind the interest in NI is that it fosters 'learning by talking' via naturally occurring learning opportunities (Allright, 1984; Gass, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Mere output cannot be considered to be the final attainment but a source of learning because no matter how much a learner is exposed to comprehensible input or pushed to produce meaningful and comprehensible output, there are still situations where learners have to produce some linguistic forms that they have never faced before during interaction with other interlocutors (Swain, 1985). L2 comprehension and production is

facilitated via interaction, which is the social setting in which the language learning is mediated by language use, that is, using language to learn the language itself (Swain, 2000). What is more, meaningful NI requires an interpersonal activity that contains sociolinguistic features of roles and relationships, identifying and repairing communication breakdowns.

By the mid 1990s, approaches employing linguistic ethnography and discourse analytic methods marked the beginning of a social turn, which resulted in a shift from a cognitivist perspective to a more social one in SLA research (Duff & Talmy, 2011; Ortega, 2011). Characterizing language learners as 'deficient communicators' and describing language learning based on specific cognitive, social and linguistic features drew severe criticism (Hall et al., 2011). Learners could extend their interactional achievement beyond context-restricted information through collaborative interaction that involves L2 learners' own experience and emotions of the real or imaginary world in or beyond the instructed environment (Gass, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Mackey & Goo, 2012; Swain, 2000; VanPatten, 2004).

This shift to a more social perspective was indeed a reaction to the 'standard epistemology' in the field of sociology and the pioneers of the shift were sociologists Harvey Sacks and Emanuel A. Schegloff (Kasper & Wagner 2011). They basically paved the way to CA whose initial focus was observing the naturally occurring details of social action thoroughly based on practical experience and scientific testing (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973).

Consequently, more and more scholars walked away from analyzing interactional data that is based on exogenous theories and individualistic perspectives of researchers and headed towards more emic perspectives and adopted ethno-methodological CA that analyses an insider-relevant and data-driven rather than theory-driven and researcher-relevant interactional exchanges (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Markee, 2000; Markee & Kasper, 2004). This orientation gave birth to CA as an approach to second language acquisition (CA-SLA) because analyzing social language learning and development through interactional practices

at various social contexts from a CA perspective can offer insights into the SLA field. (Balaman, 2016; Hellermann & Cole, 2009; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee & Kunitz, 2015; Mondada & Doehler, 2004; Sert, 2013).

CA-SLA examines the social aspects of language acquisition in a broad sense. Particularly, it studies what social participants do and practice, and how they construe their daily life rather than social formations at the macro-societal level. It examines how social members use language as a main source and some other non-language sources at the level of interaction both in mundane and institutional everyday environments (Kasper & Wagner, 2011).

CA does not hold its own (endogenous) theory of learning. Therefore, CA-SLA have employed exogenous theories such as sociocultural theory, situated learning, discursive psychology and language socialization in its researches (Duff & Talmy, 2011; Edwards & Potter, 2005; He, 2004; Hellermann, 2008; Kasper, 2009; Markee & Seo, 2009; Mondada & Doehler, 2004). CA's "object of study, in the broadest sense, is the interactional competencies of social members, specifically their sense-making practices and their methods to establish and maintain social order in their activities" (Kasper, 2009, p. 11). Talk-in-interaction is organized based on a systematic 'interaction order' that is shaped by the context where it occurs and it paves the way to the sequential context (Drew, 2005; Goffman, 1983; Seedhouse, 2005). Understanding and producing these social practices and contexts constitutes '*interactional competence'* of the interactants (Kasper & Wagner, 2011).

Through audio and video tapes, CA examines what is going on during the interaction by focusing mainly on publicly available aspects of interaction practices such as turn-taking, turn-construction, preference, using adjacency pairs, and repair; thus, it does not strive to predict and interpret what they will be dealing with in their social affairs (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). Along with analyzing 'language learning as a social activity', CA-SLA analyzes development of IC within 'short term 'or 'over time' (Markee, 2000; Zimmerman, 1999).

Be it short term or long term, the analysis of development of interactional is done through comparison. Teacher can promote language development of their learners by helping them become autonomous learners and participate actively in the learning process. “What can help the teacher in carrying out such a responsibility is promotion of negotiated interaction.” (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 114). Promoting NI entails ‘management of learning’ Allwright (1981), through ‘talk management’ and ‘topic management’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Mere pre-determined IRF sequence is a teacher-centered and through employing referential questions that requires joint involvement of the teacher and student to elicit linguistic structures and exploit paralinguistic information such as opinions or interpretations.

However, referential questions have the potential of becoming ‘routinized and ritualized’ if it is not combined with an ‘effective topic management’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) which is called “topicalization” (van Lier, 1988) through self- or peer-nominated topics that enhance learner autonomy and self-efficacy (Ellis, 1992; Ellis, 1999; Slimani, 1989). The teacher is supposed to employ some micro-strategies to facilitate NI collaboratively to maintain classroom interaction for L2 development. The mutual cooperation is basically based on flexible and free engagement in talk and topic management, which requires enhancing the CIC of both teachers and learners that refers to the “ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning’ (Walsh (2013, p.67) through resources that provide basic and sophisticated knowledge for interaction to maintain their position, compete for the ground, pass or take turn, join or interrupt the conversation (Koshik, 2002; Mori, 2002).

According to pedagogical goals and language use, the teacher scaffolds the learners by clarifying and modifying and fully articulating what is being said to help interlocutors keep up with the flow (Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2003) by creating an ‘interactional space for learning’ that increases wait-time for learners to think, formulate and give their response; by reducing teacher-echo that might force learners to answer immediately; by letting learners plan their time and extend their turns to be able to ‘co-construct meaning’ stress-freely; by

not interrupting an ongoing conversation for the sake of error correction that might distort the flow of interaction; by reconstructing their responses with slight grammatical and lexical changes and by reshaping learners' interaction through feedback (Walsh & Li, 2012).

Walsh (2014) has called for reconceptualization of the construct of CIC arguing that it is highly important teachers develop teachers promote their interactional competence first to be able to effectively promote learning and create learning opportunities through the above-mentioned responsibilities. This call complements Kumaravadivelu's (2003) call for teachers' professional development to construct their own 'context-specific post method pedagogy' by managing classroom interaction. At this point we face the question: *How are teachers going to reflect if they can contribute to their professional development by management of classroom discourse*? More importantly, *how will they know they are managing the talk-in-interaction?* They, of course, can use CA-SLA method and transcribe a video or audio recording of their classroom interaction; however, this is a highly challenging job that discourages teachers from being involved in professional development activities (Walsh, 2014).

As alternative to transcription, Walsh proposes that teachers can analytically reflect more effectively and more productively on 15-minute short extracts for various lessons instead of a whole lesson which might take 4-5 hours to examine through some devices or frameworks such as SETT; through using 10-15-minute snapshot recordings extracted from different parts of a serious of a lesson at different classes and different times for more frequent comparison of the obtained data; through 'stimulated recall procedures' together with a colleague who has a critical perspective comments on particular parts of a recording simultaneously. The basic idea behind these three suggested methods is that the teacher is an insider who knows every single detail of the talk-in-interaction a lot better than a researcher who is an outsider.

Bearing Walsh's and Kumaravadivelu' calls, and Walsh's alternative strategies mentioned above, the present study aims to examine and document the development of TIC through talk management of adult L2 learners as a sub-construct for the macro-strategy 'facilitated negotiated interaction' in the Kumaravadivelu's pedagogic wheel. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, previous studies on classroom discourse generally addressed the issues related to the development of interactional competence of teachers of young learners but not adult L2 learners.

Moreover, the present study suggests the reconceptualization of the concept of CIC, narrowing it down and stripping TIC out of CIC as precondition of SIC; treating TIC as a micro-strategy under the macro-strategy 'facilitating negotiated interaction' of the pedagogical framework proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003). Combining the aforementioned macro-strategies and micro-strategies is, in a sense, combining bottom-up and top-down processes that are theory-neutral, data-driven, location-specific and context-sensitive and free from any impositions by the dominant western approach of *one-prescription-cures-all*.

Therefore, the present study is proposed to be carried out in a semi-instructed, social and natural-like learning setting. The research questions of the study are mainly concerned with exploring how the teacher employs the IRF sequence for the talk-management of adult L2 learners; with discovering whether the talk structured on IRF sequence is generally teacher-dominant and restricted what the students respond or it extends beyond a pre-determined information-exchange-structure IRF; with analyzing the adjacency pairs that underlie the 'talk management' of the participants through the IRF sequence; with finding out if this sequential organization of the talk extends beyond the teacher-dominant IRF; with documenting possible interactional resources and if they are used by the teacher efficiently for the talk management or they become 'routinized and ritualized' after some point; with documenting if the teacher shows any progress and comes up with innovative strategies and

personal insights, self-evaluation and self-action; with exploring if TIC mediates and assists SIC as a result of the joint involvement of the teacher and the students; and with tracking down any mismatches between what the teacher intends and what the students interpret or perceive that might undermine their collaborative interactional effort.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will deal with the details and issues regarding the methodological aspects such as data collection tools, research context, -design and -questions, and participants. The objectives of the research, its originality and significance will be emphasized and the research questions will be presented again to explain how they corresponds with the scope and purpose of the study. Finally, this chapter will address the issues concerning with validity and reliability.

3.1. Originality and Significance of the Research

The present study aims to investigate and document the development of the interactional competence of teachers at an ENIC through teachers' talk management of adult L2 learners. This research is original in six aspects; first of all, to the best of my knowledge, there have been barely studies up to now on classroom discourse that addressed the issues related to the development of interactional competence of teachers of *adult L2 learners* through the lens of CA. Secondly, the present study suggests reconceptualization of the concept of CIC and narrowing it down as it is a comprehensive concept that embraces the competence of both teachers and students. Thus, the researcher proposes that TIC should be stripped out of CIC and be conceptualized as separate construct from SIC. Saying this, the researcher does not mean that they are not interdependent and they do not overlap as CIC requires joint

engagement and collaboration of both teachers and students. However, it is both the pre-service and the in-service teachers who are usually tasked with the leading role and responsibility of shaping the CIC, creating collaborative learning opportunities, promoting learner and teacher autonomy and managing talk and topics and so on. With these facts in mind, it is highly essential that TIC should receive special attention for a more effective and clear reconceptualization with a view to being able treating it as a pre-condition of SIC.

Thirdly, the researcher suggests that TIC as a micro-strategy be a sub-construct of the macro-strategy 'facilitating negotiated interaction' within the pedagogical framework proposed Kumaravadivelu (2003). The framework is based on macro-strategies and TIC, through the lens of CA, is based on micro analyses. They complete and strengthen each other resulting in the combination of bottom-up and top-down process. What is more, both the micro analyses of CA and the macro-strategies of the framework are theory-neutral in the sense that they cannot be approached with a prior assumption; on the contrary, they are data-driven in the sense that what is obtained from the collected data shapes their possible assumptions and constitutes their experiential theories and practices. This grants teachers the comfort of not being restricted by any pre-established borders and it allows them to have more space for being creative through self-analysis, self-observation and self-evaluation of naturally occurring results. Furthermore, the aforementioned macro- and micro-strategies are location-specific and context-sensitive in the sense that they accept possible self-identities and subjectivity free any impositions by the dominant western approach of one-prescription-cures-all.

Fourthly, this study comes up with a brand-new blended concept: *Socio-vidualize*, which refers to the identification of individual needs on the spot through flexible referential questions in natural-like social setting. This concept calls for re-conceptualizing traditional fully-instructed language learning classrooms and the cooperation between teachers and learners through managing the classroom talk with topicalization to meet or produce need-

based learning opportunities for language learners. It necessitates eliciting new information unknown to the teacher, promoting learners to give opinion, clarifying and explaining the content while exerting 'a greater effort and depth of processing' (Thornbury, 1996, p. 281).

Fifthly, another brand-new concept is offered by this study: *Pause-in-Discourse*. It basically refers to pausing the talk and contextualizing linguistic items that incidentally surface during the interaction. These items need treatment just because they are used incorrectly or the learners lack the knowledge of their usage. As the treatment is need-based and it is spontaneous, the teacher does not dive into minor unnecessary grammatical details while providing explicit instruction or corrective feedback.

Finally, unlike classroom discourse studies that are mostly conducted in classroom environment at public or private schools / universities, the present study is carried out in a semi-instructed, social and natural-like learning setting. Even though the participants are guided by a teacher, they do not take any formal instruction similar to language classrooms at public or private schools. The teacher is there to scaffold them, show them some basic daily expressions or idioms, translate them from English into Turkish or vice versa, when necessary, explain on the spot some grammatical points the participants have difficulty in understanding and make contrastive analysis of English and Turkish languages.

However, this is not done systematically or based on a syllabus even though the teacher bases the club on an activity and bring some pre-determined materials. On the contrary, the interaction is mostly done spontaneously and the students can extend the conversation beyond the pre-determined activity. Indeed, the activities are meant to fill the gap that is created by routinized and ritualized interactional questions. The main focus of ENIC is to involve the students in a collaborative interaction using various pre-determined and spontaneous resources. The café is a public one; thus, people from other art classes eat, drink, have a conversation at other tables, walk across it and some music is always playing in the background while ENIC is going on. The insights gained from such a semi-instructed setting

might contribute into the perspectives of redesigning fully-instructed and formal language learning environments and adapting them to context-specific and needs-based classrooms. The six mentioned aspects of the originality of the research are summarized in the following Table.

Table 1

Aspects of Research Originality

1. Addressing Teachers' Talk Management of Adult Language Learners
2. Reconceptualizing TIC Stripping It Out of CIC
3. Treating TIC as a Sub-construct of Kumaravadivelu's Pedagogical Framework
4. Semi-instructed and Natural-like Research Context
5. The Novel Notion of Socio-vidualize
6. The Novel Notion of Pause-in-discourse

3.2. Relevance of the Research Questions

Now I am going to present the research questions once again to exhibit how they relate to the scope and purpose of the study. The first research question enquires *how the talk management of adult L2 learners is accomplished by the teacher*. Its objective is to explore the ways the teacher employs the IRF sequence to co-construct information and manage classroom talk to make adult L2 learners actively and autonomously engaged. In a sense, the question aims to document how the teacher promotes NI through management of the talk, which creates opportunities for the learners to take their own decision regarding learning and to control over their learning process to a certain extent.

That is to say, it seeks to discover whether the talk structured on IRF sequence is generally teacher-dominant and restricted to what the students respond or it extends beyond a pre-determined information-exchange-structure IRF. The present study will closely analyze the adjacency pairs in the interaction based on CA because they underlie the 'talk management' of the participants through the IRF sequence. Simply, it will investigate how the teacher initiates the talk, how the participants respond and how the teacher provides feedback. In

other words, it will examine what type of questions are asked and what type of responses are given, and how this sequence contributes to the way the talk is controlled and managed. What is more, it will try find out if this sequential organization of the talk extend beyond the teacher-dominant IRF (e.g., through display questions) and create some opportunities that promote NI in a way that learners express their opinions and feelings spontaneously (e.g., through referential questions). Teacher questioning needs to be examined since it results in creating and utilizing learning opportunities for learner involvement.

The second research question is meant to unveil *what interactional resources are deployed by the teacher to manage the talk of the adult L2 learners*. It aims at documenting possible interactional resources and examining if they are linguistic structures (e.g., display questions), paralinguistic information (e.g., process- / meta-process questions), and verbal or nonverbal cues. The goal of the third research question is to see if *there is any change in the teacher's deploying the interactional resources for talk-management in the course of the research*. It tries to find out if the interactional resources are used by the teacher efficiently for the talk management or they become *routinized and ritualized* after some point (e.g., using referential questions without combining them with an effective *topicalization*).

As for the fourth question, it seeks to document whether *there is any diversification of interactional sources used by the teacher over time for the talk-management of adult L2 learners*. It seeks if the teacher shows any progress and comes up with innovative strategies and personal insights in terms of talk- and topic management and if there is any evidence of self-evaluation and self-action to reshape their interaction competence in the first place. The research question five intends to explore if *the teacher's talk-management have an observable effect on the L2 learners' topicalization*. It explores if TIC mediates and assists SIC as a result of the joint involvement of the teacher and the students (e.g., maintaining the interactional position, competing for the ground, passing or taking turn, joining or interrupting the conversation and so on).

The sixth research question is targeted at finding out if *the teacher's talk-management and topicalization have an observable effect on the adult L2 learners' involvement in talk-in-interaction*. It tracks down any mismatches between what the teacher intends and what the students interpret or perceive, which might undermine their collaborative interactional effort (e.g., cognitive-, communicative, linguistics-, pedagogic-, procedural- and attitudinal mismatch and so on).

Following the insights obtained from data based on these research questions, the study will be into finding out any implication that can be exploited for TEFL and teacher training. It is expected that the potential insights from the study into TIC may contribute to shaping what is going on in EFL classrooms at tertiary level. They might also contribute to orienting the efforts of teacher training towards post-method pedagogy which considers language teachers to be not only reflective but also transformative intellectuals who are sensitive to context-specific and need-based macro strategies. Insight into TIC awareness might help language teacher candidates analyze, evaluate and reflect on their practice so that they can manage the classroom talk more effectively thereby creating more space for learner participation.

3.3. Collection Procedures, Research Context and Participants

The SLA related studies generally examine language learning in short terms as in a single task-based or two-week interaction session and there is relatively limited research investigating SLA related subjects over a long time period (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Unlike these studies, the present study used data collected over a 3-month-period from approximately 48 hours of the video recordings. The main source of the data was four adult L2 learners and three English teachers that joined an ENIC that was held two days a week and lasted two hours each day. Each of the three teachers was recorded once a week for one-two hours. They held BA degree in English Language Teaching program. They taught at state schools with a total of 26 year of experience. One of them was 4 years experienced and

the other two were 8 year and 12-year experienced teachers. The ENIC was held at a café of an Art and Dance Centre where the participants got together to enhance their interaction competence in a natural-like environment and semi-instructed environment.

The materials used for interactional purposes ranged from movies, songs, short stories, daily idiomatic expressions, spontaneously chosen topics for debates and discussion. Even though the learners had previous record of formal language education at different language courses, they saw themselves as beginners who could understand a little bit of English but could not speak fluently. Before being admitted to the ENIC, the participants were interviewed in English and they were asked to introduce themselves, talk about their profession, family and expectation and so on. Almost of all them stated that they felt extremely nervous while speaking English in public or with someone who was better than them at English, and because of the anxiety they had they could not even remember the basic lexical items they knew for sure. The participants aged 40 to 55 were to be selected; that is why, sampling was done based on this age criterion.

For the research project, the researcher contacted the directors of the Art Center to get permission and to gain access to the interaction clubs there. After that, the teachers and the participants were informed in their native language about the objectives and procedures of the project to ensure there would not be any misunderstanding and they were asked to voluntarily participate in the research. To obtain their informed consent, an information sheet about the study was given to them and they were asked to sign it to confirm their permission and participation. The sheet provided sufficient general information about the project for the participants and their rights to refuse to be recorded and to grant permission to publish their recordings for research purposes or some others. They were also informed that their names would be kept anonymous and they could withdraw from the project any time they would like to. On giving their consent to the conditions, the participants were required to sign the form.

The teacher and the participants sat at a rectangular table next to each other and a digital camera was set facing the whole group in a way that it could record and capture both verbal and non-verbal features of their interaction. Knowing that they were being recorded, the participants and the teachers acted unnaturally at first but they indulged in the ongoing conversation after the researcher was not too intrusive. Considering the ethical issues, it was not possible to secretly videotape them without their consent; that is why, it was the only way to obtain data for the study. Test shots were done to ensure the camera would video- and audio record properly and the single view of the camera would not constrain shooting all the interactional resources.

Although the transcription of the recordings might not depict all the details of the interaction, being able to analyze the intertwined details of talk is what makes CA more appealing to this study than Discourse Analysis that concentrates on separate data for certain functions. Another appealing point of CA is its detailed transcription system for the description, analysis and understanding of the interactional orders and sequences based on practical experience together with the micro analysis of all linguistics / paralinguistic, verbal / nonverbal, visual, temporal and segmental / supra-segmental data that come out as evidence throughout the interactional exchanges (Seedhouse, 2005, Sidnell 2010).

CA employs Turn Constructional Unit (TCU) to analyze the turns-at-talk and *Transition Relevance Places* (TRPs) to examine the points where a turn ends and passes to the other interlocutor who takes the ground. These basic turn takings form an adjacency pair (e.g., greeting-greeting, question-answer) (Sidnell, 2010). Another notion that is used by CA analysis is *repair* and it is regarded as a treatment to the communication breakdowns caused by various reasons (Seedhouse, 2004). The present study used a transcription system to capture all various features of interaction (intonation, stress, emphasis, sound stretch, pauses, overlaps and so on). Transcription of the recorded data is a kind of orthographic and static representation of it (ten Have, 2007), which might not reflect all the visual cues of the

ongoing interaction. However, it is not feasible to publish or present all the videotaped data except captured shots from particular parts of it. What is more, a standard transcription is generally used by CA researchers in order to avoid the reliability problem; thus, the present study employed the most widely used transcription conventions (See Appendix A) developed by Gail Jefferson (2004).

The font used for the transcriptions was standardly Courier or Courier New because these fonts are mono-spaced and this facilitates the arrangement of characters in a line with or parallel to one another (Clift, 2016). The line numbers that appear on the left-hand side of the transcriptions do not refer to *turns* but they are used for mere references which may include non-linguistic actions, as well, as in the following example:

"1 Ring rin-

2 Robin: Hello. –" (Clift, 2016, p. 54)

However, after the analysis is completed, the transcription of the data was converted to Times New Roman in compliance with the regulations of the dissertation manual of the Gazi University. Pseudonyms are used instead of the real names of the speakers and places or institutions in the data and arrows beside the names of the speakers are used to indicate the lines for analytic focus; what is more, "data source is given above the transcript; for short excerpts where data are not captured by audio / visual recording, the abbreviation FN (field-note) is standardly used" (p. 54) and punctuation marks are used to indicate intonation patterns not for the usual grammatical aspects (Clift, 2016).

Transcribing activity is time-consuming; therefore, a software called Transana was used to facilitate the transcription process of the recordings. It was a program that contains sophisticated tools for the qualitative analysis of video, audio, image, text and survey data. It was first developed by Chris Fassnacht for his thesis and used to be a free program and downloaded online (ten Have, 2007); however, it has been expanded and upgraded by David Woods and has to be purchased in three different versions: basic, professional and multi-

user and it can be download from the website https://www.transana.com/ (Woods & Fassnacht, 2012).

Basic and professional features of Transana includes transcribing an audio or video file and analytically identifying and linking particular spots of transcription to frames of the recordings. It also attaches keywords to search for specific segments of the recordings. What is more, it provides database for large collections of digitized recordings. It supports and converts all audio and video formats. It also allows manual transcription on a separate page while listening to the audio. You can add extra transcription symbols and time codes that are used as links between a video frame and a spot of its transcription. So, you can simultaneously play the linked part of the video with its highlighted transcription. As for the multi-user version, it allows a few analysts at different places to simultaneously study on the same data (ten Have, 2007). For a visual overview of Transana, you can check the following video on YouTube: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1yt-rts0ha0. For a quick introduction, check the video titled 'Welcome to Transana' at the link: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=22FemdVlUCg.

After importing data to Transana, the researcher watched the data set a few times; after that, he started transcription and went through it while taking some side notes. The next step was identifying the turns that involved talk management of the teacher. This was followed by the transcription of all visual and nonverbal details of the interaction and building a collection for deeper analyses. The instruments used are shown in the below Table 2:

Table 2

Data Collection and Analysis Tools

Tools	*Camera*	*Software*	*Laptop*
	Canon D60	*Transana*	*MacBook Air*

3.4. Validity and Reliability Issues

CA has been criticized of being dependent on the audio or video recordings of naturally occurring talk-in-interaction and using them as the only basic sources of information, which means it does not use the following common data sources in the social science:

- "interview data, as expressions of opinions and attitudes or descriptions of scenes not witnessed by the researcher;
- observational studies, relying on field notes or coding procedures;
- idealized or invented examples, based on the researcher's own native intuitions;
- and experimental methodologies" (ten Have, 2007, p. 73).

Having limited database is seen as a limitation of the validity CA approach; however, as ten Have (2007) summarizes, the reason why the above-mentioned data are not used by CA as core sources of information is that they are considered to be produced or influenced by what a researcher pre-conceives and manipulates. Analyzing interactional data cannot be based on exogenous theories and individualistic perspectives of researchers. That is, they cannot be theory-driven and researcher-relevant interactional exchanges.

On the contrary, they require emic perspectives that is shaped by insider-relevant and data-driven interactional sequences that are contextually interpreted (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Markee, 2000; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Peräkylä, 2004; Seedhouse, 2004). Accordingly, extending talk management beyond routinized IRF sequence and beyond ritualized referential questions and creating spontaneous topicalizations is achieved only through participant-relevant perspectives.

As for the external validity of CA findings, it cannot be argued that the present study has validity issue although the data was collected from just three teachers and four participants over 3 months because prominent researches on classroom discourse have been generally conducted with limited number of participants and within a short period of time. CA does

not intend to make a comparison of pre-determined interactional skills or social actions of the participants; on the contrary, it strives to determine how they are achieved based on data-driven conclusions.

What is more, the main concern of CA is to document how a particular discourse is accomplished by particular interactants in a particular context, which may give general conclusions based on this particularity (Hellermann 2009; Mehan, 1979, Seedhouse, 2004). As the present study's research context is a semi-instructed interaction club, its findings may support the generalizability of CA findings obtained from fully-instructed classroom discourse. Setting a camera that can capture all the aural and visual details of the interaction, producing the transcriptions through a widely used software and coding them with a system commonly used in the field of CA are features that make the research process reliable. As the semi-instructed research context is shaped by data-driven observations, it is safe from unexpected circumstances as it does not follow a pre-determined syllabus.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Research findings will be presented in this chapter to answer the research questions concerning the development of TIC through talk management in a semi-instructed EFL context. Through the lens of CA, a detailed microanalysis will be conducted to determine the IRF sequence for the talk-management extending beyond a pre-determined structure. What is more, the adjacency pairs in possible interactional resources will be documented to see if they are used efficiently or they are 'routinized and ritualized'.

This chapter is composed of four sections and each of them will provide the description of some chosen extracts that will represent most of the instances in the database. Therefore, similar extracts with almost the same data will not be provided here in order to avoid redundancy. The Jeffersonian transcription system (see Appendix-1) was used for data analysis. To make data more readily comprehensible, some screenshots were presented along with the extracts. Doing so, it is aimed to find out the following points:

1- the ways the teachers administer the talk management (e.g., asking various types of questions such as display questions and referential questions)

2- the ways the talk management is supported by the topic management (e.g., extending talk management beyond routinized IRF sequence through participant-relevant perspectives)

3- the ways the teachers use non-linguistic items such as body positions, averting gaze, silence and so on.

4- the ways the teachers diversify resources to facilitate NI so that they can enhance their interactional competence and engage the participants in the talk and the topic management flexibly and freely.

4.1. Uncovering the Employment of Talk Management Through IRF Sequences

The most prevalent and frequent instances of IRF sequences will be provided in this section. That is, the IRF sequences managed by the teacher to orient the talk management through display questions and referential questions will be uncovered. It will be unfolded if the talk-management of the teachers is typically initiated by adjacency pairs (e.g., greeting-greeting, question-answer) with the teacher dominant IRF sequences, which aim to promote the negotiation of interaction in the form of 'learning by talking' (Allright, 1984; Gass, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 1998) 'using language to learn the language itself' (Swain, 2000).

It will also be explored if the teacher fosters the talk management through linguistic feedback (e.g., phonological, lexical and syntactical modifications) or non-linguistic feedback (e.g., exaggerated intonation, slow and clear articulation, longer pauses and emphatic stress) for the sake of comprehension among the interlocutors (Snow & Ferguson, 1977). What is more, it will be uncovered if this socially constructed learning environment leads the teacher talk to go beyond typical IRF sequences and push the participants for 'meaningful production' (Swain, 1995) and 'collaborative interaction' (Swain, 2000; Gass et al., 2013) through the repetition and rephrasing of input content, comprehension and clarification checks, and clarification requests.

That is to say, the analysis of the teacher talk-management under investigation in this section will include not only specific linguistic elements contextually available but also paralinguistics elements that emerge from 'collaborative interaction' (Gass et. al, 2013;

Mackey & Goo, 2012; Swain, 2000; VanPatten, 2004). As a result of which, it will be argued that since pre-determined IRF sequences do not lead to interactional achievement, IRF sequences with referential questions eliciting paralinguistic information (e.g., opinions or interpretations) are preferred by the teacher seeing that the typical IRF sequences become routinized and the conversation cannot go further. However, the 'efficient talk management' is not achieved through 'routinized and ritualized' referential questions unless combined with an 'effective topic management' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003), whereby the teacher create opportunities for learners to choose topics (Hatch, 1978) out of what is being said. In other words, through 'topicalization' (van Lier, 1988), teacher or peer nominated topics create learning opportunities for learner autonomy and self-efficacy (Ellis, 1992; Ellis, 1999; Slimani, 1989).

As argued above, after some point, mere referential questions are not sufficient to keep the talk management flow. That is why, this section will also present how referential questions becomes 'routinized' and might halt the flow of the interaction. The non-linguistic or nonverbal clues (e.g., facial expressions and gestures) that show the interaction breakdown will be analyzed, as well. That is to say, each extract will be scrutinized in terms of how the teachers talk management unfolds, which will be followed by the overall findings from the analysis of the extracts.

As shown in Extract 1 given below, the typical talk management is initiated and dominated by the teacher and it represents all other typical ones in the data.

Extract 1. Typical talk management with IRF

1	*Tch*	: Hi, welcome to our speaking club.
2		How are you today? How do you feel?
3	*Tah*	: I am fine. Err! I am feeling good.
4	*Tch*	: Nice! Very good.
5	*Tah*	: But last night I had small drunk. Yeah! and after
6		drunk I cannot sleep. Last night, so I slept
7		little. Today, I tired but I am feeling good.



Figure 2. Learner involvement with typical IRF.

As seen in the first four lines in Extract 1 above, the teacher initiates the conversation with a question and she receives one of the responses employed for the questions “How are you?” or “How are you feeling?” etc. Similarly, she gives feedback only where the conversation stops and she pauses. This typical conversational turn-taking is composed of adjacency pairs which do not require the other interlocutor to take another turn. Even though, in a normal

turn-taking process, silence indicates that the other speaker/s might commence their turn, it does not do so in the conversational exchanges structured on adjacency pairs (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973).

As in seen in line 4, a 'three-part exchange' is employed by the teacher after the adjacency pairs as an additional response, which might serve a number of conversational functions such as evaluation, recognition or comprehension of a previous response, and this third part can also be expressed non-verbally (Tsui, 1989). The specific social setting, which is a semi-instructed interactional club in this case, and the role of the teacher, who leads the interaction, may trigger the use of the three-part exchanges because teachers tend to evaluate or recognize the responses to make sure the answer is acceptable.

As observed in Extract 1, the teacher structures her talk on an IRF sequence which restricts the participant to respond to what the teacher asks. Although she frequently resorts to this kind of talk management and establishes a conversational exchange through this kind of structure, she surely cannot promote negotiated interaction. Using three-part exchange might not be sufficient to keep the interaction flow. Noticing this gap, Tah continues and takes a turn giving more details on the little amount of drink he had. Only then does the teacher nods her head up and down, as a non-verbal three-part interchange, to keep the conversation flow and to indicate she comprehends. Accordingly, the flow of the conversation comes to a halt, when adjacency pairs and the three-part exchanges are not followed by referential questions.

The Extract 2 below contains another a characteristic IRF sequence structured on adjacency pairs and the three-part exchange but it is not supported by referential questions.

Extract 2. IRF sequence structured on adjacency pairs and the three-part exchange

1	*Tch*	: How do you feel? How are you today?
2	*V*	: I am fine. Now, I am fine.
3	*Tch*	: Now you are fine! ((confirmation))
4	*V*	: This morning, I was tired.
5	*Tch*	: Why were you tired?
6	*V*	: Last night. We together drunk.
7	*Tch*	: Haa! ((meaning to understand)) That is why, (0.5)
8	*V*	: Small sleep.
9	*Tah*	: We went to party.
10	*Tch*	: Haa ((meaning surprised)) What kind of a party did you go?
11	*Tah*	: Err! ((trying to remember and gain time to make his sentences)). A friend party.
12	*Tch*	: Ha! A friend's party. Nice.
13	*Tah*	: Yeah.
14	*V*	: Today, my business.
15	*Tch*	: ((She does not understand what V says leaning forward and changing her facial expression))
16	*V*	: I was tired.
17	*Tch*	: In the morning you were tired but now … ((comprehension check))
18	V	: Now, good.
19	*Tch*	: You are feeling good.



Figure 3. The teacher's three-part response followed by silence.



Figure 4. Keeping silent before taking a turn.

In the extract above, it is clear that the conversational exchange does not promote *negotiated interaction* at the beginning as it commences with an adjacency pair in the first two lines. The line 3 includes a three-part which conveys the confirmation of the previous response and it is followed by a silence. Though the teacher does not extend the interaction beyond the pre-determined IRF sequence and she does not signal a turn-taking, the participant takes the turn and change the topic. This kind of exchanges tend to be teacher-centered and they cannot lead to a meaningful interaction unless referential questions are employed to elicit paralinguistic information such as opinions or interpretations as shown in the following exchange:

Extract 3. Employing referential questions to elicit paralinguistic information

1	*Tch*	: The name of the story is “Money Talks”. Do you know what it means?
2	*Tah*	: Yeah, I know.
3	*Tch*	: Can you translate?
4	*Tah*	: Para konuşmaları. Paraya ilişkin konuşmalar.
5	*Tch*	: Yes, para konuşur. ((correcting him))
6	*Tah*	: Ha! Money talks. Yes, money talks. ((realizing his mistake))
7	*Tch*	: Because talk is here not noun, verb.
8	*Tah*	: Yeah, para konuşur.
9	*Tch*	: Do you think money can open all doors?
10	*Tah*	: Yeah, it is a reality in the world.



Figure 5. Promoting the talk with referential questions about a story.

As shown in the extract 3 above, after many typical IRF sequences that failed to lead *negotiated interaction*, the teacher begins to manage the talk through referential questions. In line 3, the teacher tries to elicit linguistic information through a display question which aims to get an answer already known to the teacher. On the other hand, she elicits paralinguistic information through such referential questions as the one in line 9 whose aim is to get an open-ended answer containing new information.

Although she came up with a topic, she could have exploited the chance to create a learning opportunity by asking more referential questions so that the other participants would benefit from a meaningful interaction. However, she stopped there and changed the topic. This is another typical talk management that is frequently employed across the data. Evidently, after some point, referential questions become 'routinized and ritualized' when they do not lead to an 'effective topic management' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) that allows learners to select topics (Hatch, 1978) that are generated by the teacher or by individual perspectives of the peers through topicalization (van Lier, 1988).

In line 7, the teacher provides linguistic corrective feedback seeing that Tah mistranslates the sentence “Money talks” into Turkish. She manages the talk not only by providing paralinguistic cues as discussed above but also linguistic ones because the learners have low proficiency level and such support as this makes them feel secure and promotes NI even if their communicative and linguistic skills are limited.

In line 5, she recast Tah’s Turkish translation correcting him. That is another typical feedback common across the data. As the learners are at beginner level, the teacher’s feedback helps them raise their metalinguistic awareness. They consciously reflect on the native language transferring their linguistic knowledge across the target language by code switching and translation. This metalinguistic support is provided in line 9 by encouraging learners to go beyond the literal meaning of the question *Do you think money can open all doors?*. The conversational exchange from line 1 to line 10 in the extract above is a good example of metalinguistic awareness as it urges the learners to pay attention to both form and meaning. After reading a part of the story “Money Talks”, the teacher negotiates the talk asking various questions.

4.2. Uncovering the Employment of Topicalization

The topic management that is effectively combined with referential questions creates learning opportunities which can instill active reasoning and critical thinking into the learners. Unlike topics with display questions, the topic managed by referential questions encourages learners to be creative thinkers who do not have to resort to retrieving previously stored information from memory. However, referential questions become as ineffective as the typical IRF exchanges when the focus is not on the messages conveyed by the learners but on their proper use of the language (Thornbury, 1996). The following Extract 4 shows how the teacher fails to topicalize as she structures the talk employing display questions and thereby not creating new topics.

Extract 4. Ineffective topicalization with display questions

1	*Tch*	: What does it say? Can you summarize this paragraph?
2	*ER*	: Errrr.
3	*Tch*	: OK! What did you understand from this paragraph?
4	*ER*	: Türkçesi?
5	*Tch*	: No, in English. Can you summarize it?
6	*ER*	: ((Returning to Tah))
7	*Tch*	: For example, what kind of house is this Park Street?
8	*ER*	: 24 number, Park, Street.
9	*Tch*	: What kind of house? What kind of house? ((repeating the same question accompanied with facial expression and hand gestures))
10	*Tah*	: Big house, luxury house ((interfering))
11	*Tch*	: For example, it is big. It is large and…
12	*ER*	: Big house.
13	*Tch*	: It is not cheap. It is expensive house, right?
14	*Tch*	: Expensive. Pahalı ve büyük. It is large. It is big. It is not cheap
15	*ER*	: Expensive?
16	*Tch*	: Yes, it is expensive.



Figure 6. Seeking help from other interlocutors.

As seen in the Figure 6, Er returns to his peer Tah, when he is stuck and cannot answer the teacher's question as if he is seeking for help. The teacher watches him giving him enough time to reformulate his response without interfering.



Figure 7. Interfering to keep the talk flow.

Seeing that Er cannot summarize or explain what he understands in a few sentences, which is quite natural considering his low proficiency level, the teacher interferes and willingly attempts to create a learning opportunity. However, NI does not take place as the learner fails to contribute to creating meaningful talk management by not responding to the teacher's demand for paraphrasing as seen in line 1. The teacher's questions do not aim to elicit the learner's own opinions and interpretations on the topic. That is, they are not referential / process questions but display questions aimed at getting mechanical linguistic structures for summarizing or paraphrasing. As NI does not take place, the teacher replies her own questions as a model. Even though she cannot get a correct response from the learner, she creates a learning opportunity and does not deprive the other learners of the chance to enhance their poor linguistic background. To that end, she tailors and simplifies the linguistic complexity to make it compatible with their low level.

On the other hand, she does not provide an effective basis for topicalization, through which she could have created a chance for negotiating meaning. For instance, she could have elaborated on advantages and disadvantages of having a big house or a small house. Such topicalization as this brings about various personal perspectives from the learners with different background on the topic in hand (Ellis, 1992; Hatch, 1978; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Lier, 1988) because some talkative interlocutors may have perspectives which introvert ones do not have and they can benefit from the topics raised by their peers while listening to them silently (Slimani, 1989).

4.3. Uncovering the Employment of Diverse Sources for Negotiation

It was detected that, with a view to facilitating negotiated interaction, the talk in the club was supported by diverse sources stemming from flexible and free engagement in the talk and topic management as seen in the following extract.

Extract 5. Diversifying sources for talk involvement and topic management

1 *Tch* : What if you lose all of your money?

2 *L1* : Lose money?

3 *Tch* : Yeah, you have no more money

4 *L1* : I am not understand.

5 *Tch* : Lose means “kaybetmek” and “What if?” means “ne olur?” in Turkish.

6 *L1* : Ha! Paramı kaybedersem ne olur? Right?

7 *Tch* : All of your money. Paranın hepsini. All means “hepsi”.

8 *L1* : If I am lose all money, I kill me. Joke. Of course, I don’t kill me.

9 *Tch* : What happens if you lose all of your money then?

10 *L1* : I think I be sad and my wife will say me bye bye. Joke, joke!

11 *Tch* : Imagine you did not have even 1 Turkish Lira. What would you do? ((Returning to L2))

12 *L2* : I will work very much. Every day!

13 *Tch* : What happens if you did not find a job?

14 *L2* : I be hungry. My childs cry.

15 *Tch* : You would be hungry.

16 *L2* : Yes, I will be hungry

17 *Tch* : Do you think someone can die out of hunger in this century? ((Returning to L3))

18 *L3* : Not understand.

19 *Tch* : OK. Let me put it in different words. People died before, in the past, like 100 years ago. How about today? Do you think people die because they have no food and no water?

20 *L3* : In poor countries, yes.

21 *Tch* : Which countries are poor? Can you give an example?

22 *L3* : For example, Africa. People dead, no food, they are always hungry.

23 *Tch* : But Africa is not a country. It is a continent.

24 *L3* : What means continent?

25 *Tch* : It means “kıta”. Country is “Ülke”. For example, Turkey is a country. What continent is Turkey located in? In Asia or Europe?

26 *L3* : I think in two continent

27 *Tch* : Yes, that is true. Turkey is located in both Asia and Europe continents.

28 *L3* : Istanbul one part Europe, one part Asia

29 *Tch* : Exactly! Istanbul is divided into two parts by the Bosporus. The European part has borders with Greece, which is a European Union country.

It is obvious from the exchange above, through referential questions as in line 1, 9, 11, 13, 17, 19 and 21, she manages the talk by creating learning opportunities for negotiation of meaning. What is more, she reinforces these referential questions by topicalization. In the first line, she initiates a topic: *how to survive after losing all of your money*. It is an imaginary topic that makes the learners think creatively and critically about possible responses. The interlocutor does not understand the sentence, so she translates the two key phrases *lose* and *what if* in his mother tongue. After this clarification, he checks if has understood correctly. She acknowledges his comprehension check while pointing out the missing part the phrase *all of ---*.

As seen in line 17, she jumps into another relevant topic upon seeing that she gets enough responses. Shifting to another perspective saves the topicalization from being routinized and uninteresting. However, the interlocutors makes a lot of grammatical errors as in the lines 4, 8, 10, 14, 18 and 24. Apart from a few recasts, the teacher does not explicitly correct these errors for the sake of keeping the interaction flow. Not making the misused grammatical features salient does not help the learner see the relationship between meaning and syntactic forms. Therefore, the talk management made through referential questions and effective topicalization seems to be incomplete when learners cannot notice the gap between their

current level of their grammatical competence and the target level, which is usually the use of the target language accurately, properly and fluently.

What is more, as seen in lines 5, 7 and 25, the teacher translates some key lexical items into the learner's native language upon the request of the interlocutor. As the learner indicates the lack of knowledge of the phrases, the teacher gives their semantic feedback in his mother tongue rather than giving explanation in the target language. This might be due to the fact teacher does not want to confuse him by exposing him to more input while trying to explain the words or she might not have come up with a creative and flexible way to give their literal meaning in the target language.

On the other hand, in line 17, the teacher employs the *topicalization* method to manage the talk by asking a referential question. In the following line, the learner points out his not understanding of the question, upon which she elaborates on the question restating it in the target language. This is the opposite of what she did previously and this might be caused by the fact that in previous lines she preferred to translate separate words, whereas she might have found it hard to translate the whole sentence word for word; rather, she restated and paraphrased it in line 19.

4.4. Uncovering the Employment of Non-linguistic Items

It is unquestionable that non-linguistic factors such as body positions, averting gaze, silence and so on have a significant role in the management of the talk. The teacher sometimes may use them unconsciously during interaction; however, being aware of them facilitates NI collaboratively, encourages engagement in the talk and assist the interlocutors in keeping up with the flow. They do so by creating wait-time for the participants to formulate their responses.



Figure 8. Making use of non-linguistic factors.

In the Figure 8 above, the teacher comes to be silent when the interlocutor tries to give an answer thinking that echoing her question might force the learner to answer immediately, which can put pressure on him and make him nervous. Therefore, she lets him plan his time to think and formulate his reply. When he is stuck, he averts his gaze and turns to the other participant sitting next to him. In a way, he asks for cooperation and co-constructing an answer. In the meantime, to allow him to formulate his answer stress-freely; the teacher does not interrupt the effort as it might distort the flow of interaction.



Figure 9. Making use of facial expressions.

Apart from the silence strategy that allows the interlocutors to formulate their answers, the teacher frequently makes use of her facial expressions leaning forward to ask for clarifying or comprehension check. Rather than interrupting, the teacher allows him to maintain his position and pass turn. Namely, using mimics, the teacher scaffolds the interactants in an effort to let them clarify and modify the talk to fully articulate and keep up with the flow. By the same token, the teacher's using gestures coupled with mimics creates an *interactional space* with less pressure and more wait-time for learners as in the following Figure 10.



Figure 10. Making use of gestures coupled with mimics.

All in all, the most common way of the talk management observed across the data is employing IRF sequences structured on display questions, adjacency pairs and the three-parts. The teacher frequently employs this kind of conversational exchanges until they become dull and uninteresting since there are restricted turn-taking opportunities for a meaningful negotiated interaction. When these IRF sequences become usual and ordinary, the talk cannot go further. At this point, she manages the talk with IRF sequences built on referential questions. Nonetheless, they also turn into a set of ritualized structures when they cannot lead to topicalization. Although the teacher endeavors to manage the talk with some referential questions coupled with a topic, the topic management is not effectively manipulated through participant-relevant perspectives and needs.

Given that these needs emerge spontaneously as the talk unfolds, the teacher's interactional competence plays an important role to meet them. Although this role entails managing the talk through referential questions and effective topicalization, it also necessitates handling the unplanned and unexpected learner needs or deficiencies, be it syntactical, semantic and even phonological, that emerge spontaneously over the course of the talk. In the following section, I am going elaborate on what those needs could be and how they could be handled.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter will commence with drawing an overall picture of the grounds on which the present study is laid. It will also discuss the outcomes of the research with a particular focus on solutions to the drawbacks found. Following this, pedagogical implications for professional developmental of FL teachers will be presented. Recommendations for further studies will be presented and the chapter will be finalized with the limitation of the study and concluding remarks

5.1. TIC as Subconstruct of FNI

A learner is responsible for his individual learning, whereas a teacher bears the duty of both teaching and making sure that learning takes place. In other words, teaching and learning are two interdependent constructs that result from a volunteer and mutual cooperation between the teacher and the learner (Allwright, 1986). A classroom is a stage which co-stars two important actors: a teacher and a learner. That is to say, they share an interactive role which suggests that the teacher is not a mere transmitter and the student is not just receiver; on the contrary, they are both contributors to the ongoing process of creating learning opportunities. Traditional approach restricts language teaching and learning opportunities to either a well-designed textbook and a syllabus or the teacher's agenda (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

The advantages offered by a specific teacher plan or syllabus based on a predetermined material cannot be denied as it reduces the teacher's burden by predetermining what to teach. However, things may not always go as planned and the teacher may fail to meet context specific needs that come out spontaneously when sticking to a predetermined plan or material (Allwright, 1981). What is more, textbooks are generally designed to be 'commercially produced for mass consumption' in the form of 'one-size-fits-all'. That is why, they ignore the interactive learning opportunities that emerge as the classroom interaction unfolds (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Given these points, it is of immense importance to make use of the unique learning chances that show up over the course of the joint interaction between the teacher and the learners. The cooperative endeavor to promote this joint interaction is what is exactly proposed by the concept CIC which entails the interactional competence of the both parties: the student and the teacher. Although it is a mutual effort, still it is the teacher who is mainly expected to shape classroom discourse in a way that the learners can be urged to cooperate and exploit those spontaneous learning opportunities.

Teachers mostly initiates the talks and gives feedback following a response and they therefore have more time to shape the talk and more authority to dominate the content (Cazden, 1986; Chaudron, 1988; Johnson, 1995). Accordingly, I propose that TIC and SIC should be treated separately while TIC is a precondition for SIC and it is also a sub-construct of the macro-strategy FNI within the pedagogical framework proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003). FNI is a macro-strategy which can entail endless micro-strategies that are method-neutral and process-driven; that is, they are not pre-established and pre-determined, which allows the interlocutors to seize the moment to create and utilize learning opportunities that go beyond a syllabus, a textbook or a lesson plan.

Considering the limitations of textbooks, syllabuses and teachers' agenda, the present study suggests converting fully-instructed classrooms into a semi-instructed, social and natural-

like interaction club that creates a space for language learning. The following figure below presents the main components of the framework, which are ‘Teacher Autonomy’, ‘Pause-in-Discourse’, ‘Socio-vidualize’ and ‘Digital Literacy’.

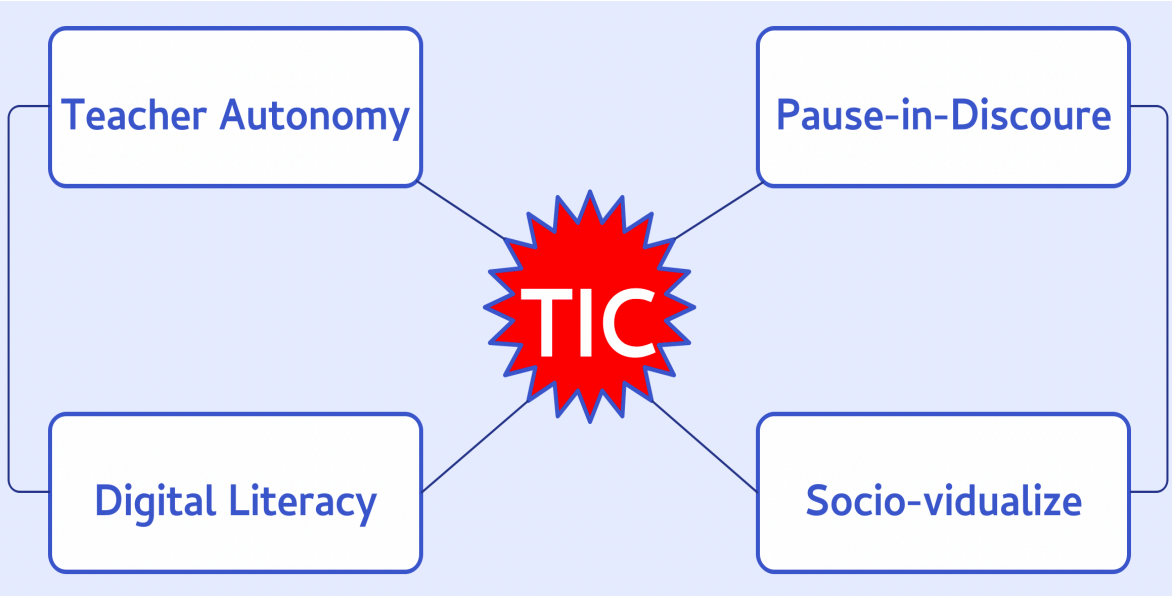


Figure 11. The TIC framework with its main components.

Although each component can be treated separately with its own constructs, they are intertwined and interdependent. However, the “Teacher Autonomy” component lies at the core of the framework as it is mainly constructed on the notion of being ‘self-determined’, which is composed of sub-constructs ‘willingness’, ‘freedom’ and ‘capacity’. That is to say, when the teacher is not willing to use his capacity to teach freely, the other components automatically becomes ineffective. The teacher autonomy component will be discussed in detail later in the forthcoming section 5.10.

5.2. Learner Involvement

The basic idea behind the TIC framework is that it is targeted at making learners active and involved in creating learning opportunities. That is what Kumaravadivelu (2003) calls 'meaningful learner involvement' which promotes the learners to "…find their own path to learning" and enables the teachers "…to create the optimal environment necessary for learning to take place" (p. 48). Norton (2000) sees this involvement as 'investment' in creating an identity for the learners since it helps them make "a sense of who they are" and figure out "how they relate to the social world" (p. 10). To that end, the teachers need to hear out the voice of their learners and 'build on what they say' rather than 'prepackaged' language learning practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

The concepts of 'learner involvement' or 'learner investment' is somehow intertwined with the concept of autonomy defined by Holec (1981) as "… the ability to take charge of one's own learning" and to develop "…the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning" (p.3). Naturally enough, the notion of 'taking control' or 'taking charge of' means willingness and freedom on the part of the learners; or else, a learner who can control his learning may not be willing to learn (Dam, 1995; Little, 1991).

5.3. Referential Questions to Manage the Talk

To be able to make learners engage in generating learning opportunities, it is of utmost important to manage the talk by asking questions. However, not all questions can trigger meaningful interaction. Two types of questions have been generally studied to investigate the developmental process of L2: display questions (known-information questions) and referential questions (information-seeking questions). The display questions are far more frequently used than the referential ones in language classrooms (Long & Sato, 1983;

Mehan, 1979). This is possibly because referential questions require answers that are composed of longer propositions and more complex grammatical structures (Brock, 1986).

The challenging nature of these answers requires higher level of thinking on the spot and it tasks the teachers with more detailed and time-demanding feedback. However, it is referential questions that produce learning opportunities and elicit new information unknown to the teacher and not related to the learners' prior knowledge. They are *follow-up* and *probe* questions that promote giving opinion, clarifying and explaining. Unlike display questions, they focus on content rather than linguistic structures and items. They prompt both teachers and learners to 'exert a greater effort and depth of processing'; hence, they make the discourse more meaningful (Thornbury, 1996, p. 281).

5.4. Topicalization to Reinforce the Talk

Even so, referential questions become 'routinized and ritualized' unless they are accompanied by 'topicalization", which allows the learners or the teacher to choose a topic randomly and spontaneously. Likewise, the topicalization may not work if it is based on routinized referential questions because employing the same referential questions might direct the learners to uninteresting, challenging or discouraging topics. As a result of which, the learners may develop a negative attitude towards the target language believing they are not suited to learn.

It can be concluded that it is possible to manage the talk effectively when learners are actively involved in maximizing learning opportunities. Learner involvement is accomplished by asking the right questions; nonetheless, they bear the possibility of becoming routinized if they do not produce spontaneous and learner-centered topics.

5.5. Socio-vidualizing the Talk

Topicalization can be accomplished effectively when some other factors are taken into considerations: social context and individual needs. These two factors cannot be separated; on the contrary, they are interrelated and they depend on each other. Given this, the teacher is expected to individualize the natural-like social setting so that learning can take place constantly and consistently. To better describe the vitality of this combination, I suggest the blending of the two concepts *socialize* and *individualize* as SOCIO-VIDUALIZE.

Independent from any 'prepackaged' and 'predetermined' teaching plan or material, socio-vidualizing requires the teacher to utilize spontaneous identification of linguistic and paralinguistic individual needs coupled with effective topic management that is based on flexible referential questions. Only then can the learners benefit from natural-like language development to the utmost. This approach might bring about new insights into re-conceptualizing and redesigning fully-instructed language learning classrooms where the teacher is dominant and the learners are spoon-fed.

These new insights may create an authentic semi-instructed learning space where the teacher and the learners work on the target language cooperatively. The learning space can be converted into a more appealing and context-sensitive one which is not dependent on any outlandish material that is inept and awkward both socially and locally. Instead of using prepackaged and one-size-fits-all plans and materials, the teacher can turn naturally occurring input into need-based learning opportunities. This term *socio-vidualize* refers to an approach rather than an applicable method; however, it turns into a practical micro strategy with the notion PID, which is explained in detail the section 5.7. The following figure presents the components of the two combined concepts 'socializing' and 'individualizing'.

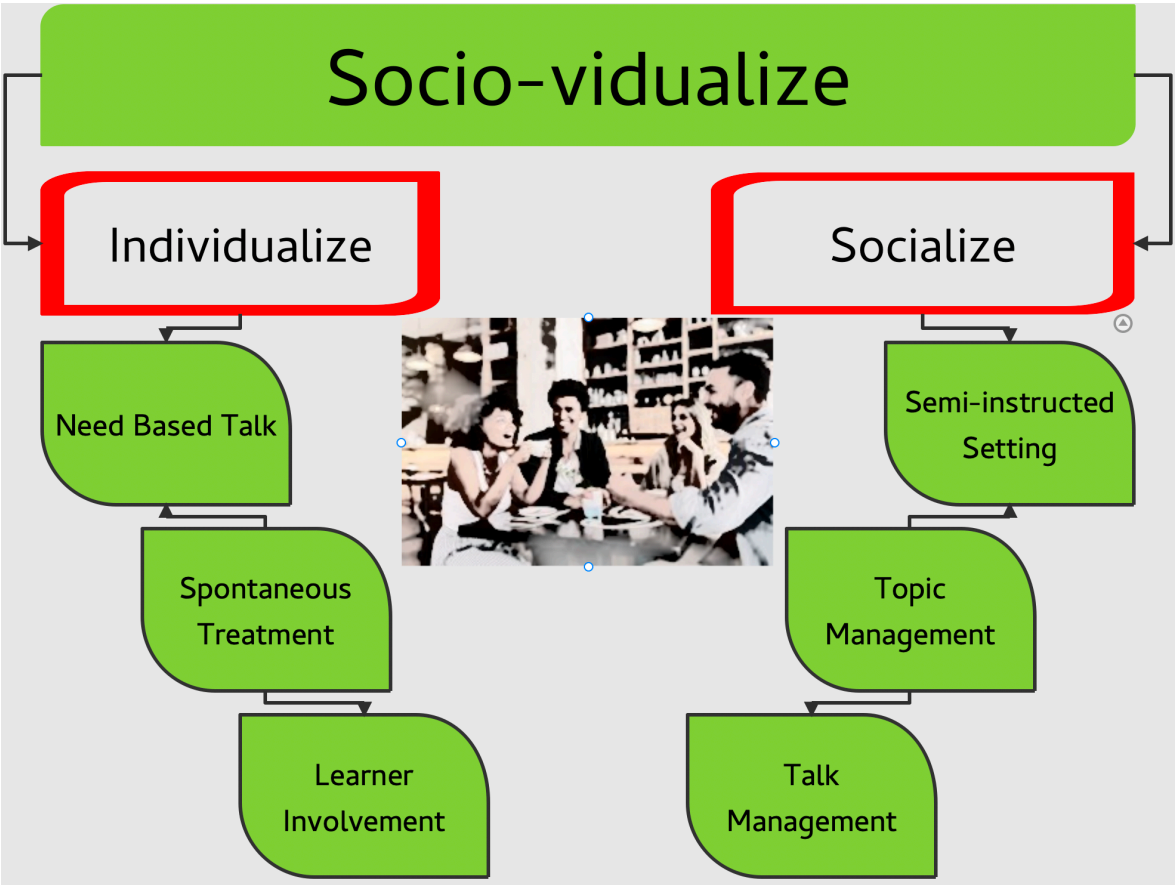


Figure 12. The Socio-vidualize component.

5.5.1. A drawback to Socio-vidualizing: Spontaneous Needs

To put it in a nutshell, the notion of socio-vidualizing under the umbrella term TIC sees it necessary to base the talk on spontaneous individual needs that pop up as the talk progresses. The setting is semi-instructed far away from being fully instructed due its nature of socializing. This process is fortified with referential questions that induce critical thinking and with topicalization that prevent the talk from becoming dull and allows it to flow. Spontaneous needs, it goes without saying, entails spontaneous treatment as shown in the figure below.

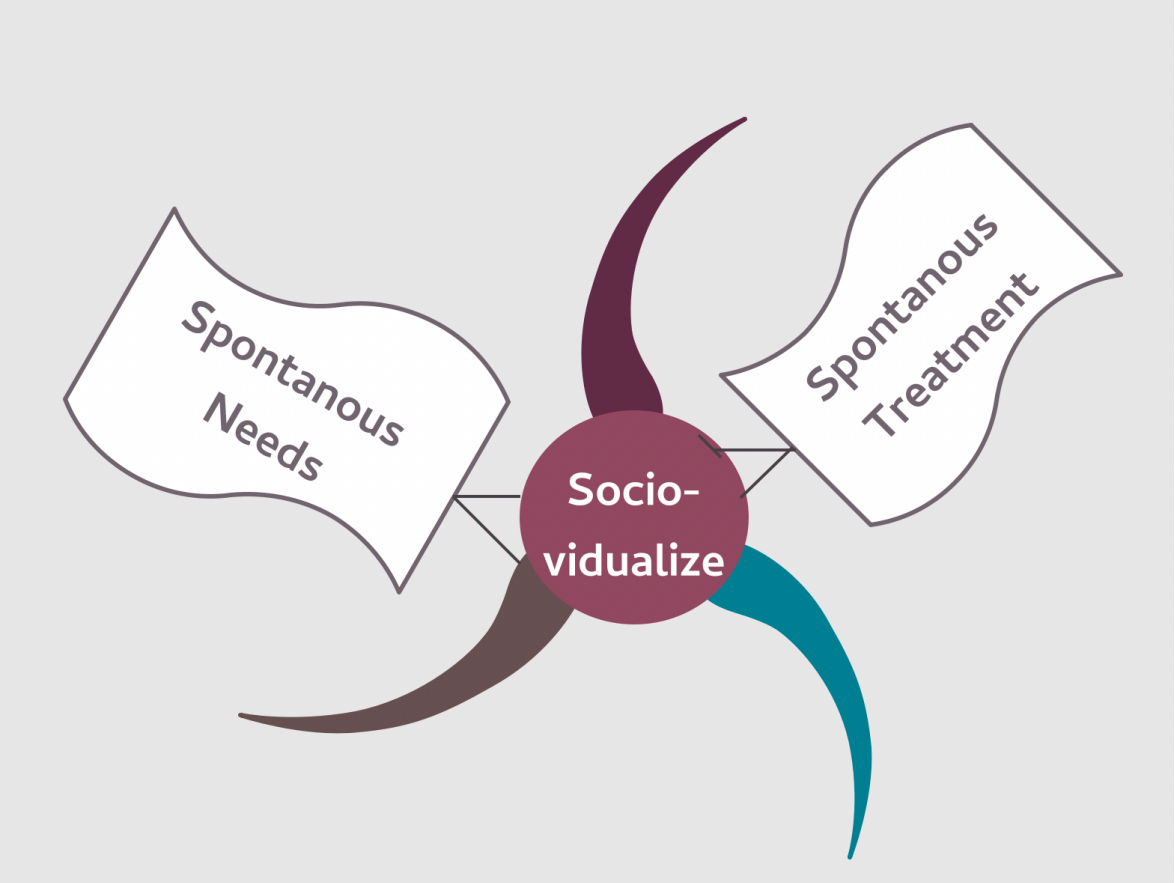


Figure 13. The socio-vidualize component with its structures.

That is why, it seems plausible to create and maximize learning opportunities for the learners based on their needs that surface over the course of interaction; however, is it that simple to identify and treat those needs? To answer the question whether spontaneous needs can be treated spontaneously, the following intertwined questions should be taken into consideration:

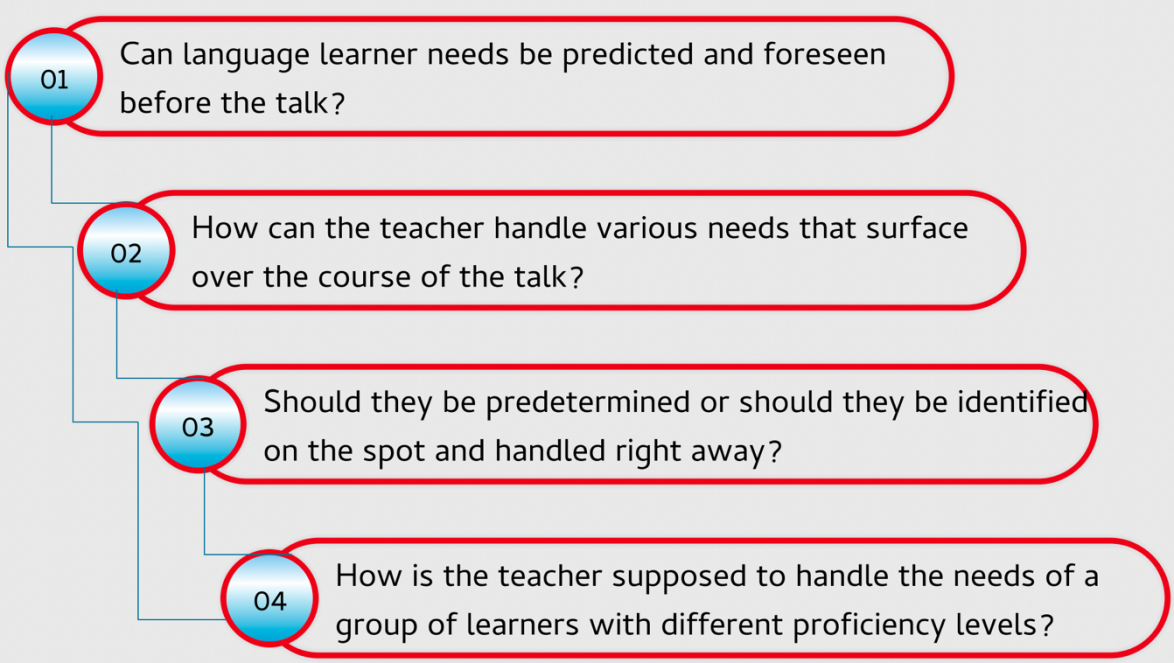


Figure 14. Questions on spontaneous needs and treatment.

With regard to the first question, predicting the needs, quite naturally, will be ineffective both contextually and practically because it should be noted that the talk setting within the scope of socio-vidualizing is a semi-instructed speaking club. This means it is a social setting and cannot be treated as a fully instructed language classroom which is generally bound to a plan and pre-packaged language teaching materials. Nonetheless, this does not necessarily mean that no language materials can be used for the sake of maximizing spontaneous learning opportunities given that the target language is taught within limited hours in an environment where it is not spoken as the official or second language but only instructed as a foreign language.

As for the second question, the learners bring along various needs spontaneously. These spontaneous needs can vary depending on the context, the learner and the activity as the talk unfolds. The teacher is expected to spot them and treat very carefully in a way that the learners with different levels can feel secure and raise awareness of their deficiencies. As to the third question, predetermining the needs would be inauthentic as it would necessitate putting every learner in the same pot. The main challenge associated with the last question

is highly critical as it refers to the developmental readiness of the learners with different L1 background and current L2 proficiency levels. This issue will be revisited in the following section comprehensively.

5.6. Grammar Deficiency

One of the most striking talk deficiencies discovered in data was that the learners lacked the mastery of the grammatical system of the target language, which led to communication breakdown and put a halt to the flow of interaction in many cases. Needless to say, the teachers endeavored to manage the talk by giving a very brief explanation for each grammatical point for the sake of keeping the talk flow. However, it was not clear whether the learners internalized those points and they were aware of them.

It is not a realistic approach to expect the learners to discover the rules and patterns of the linguistic system on their own in a speaking club or language classroom due to the fact that they gather to speak or to learn to speak within limited hours and days, and this is not enough to foster one's self-discovery capacity. It is commonly acknowledged that language is systematic and governed by rules (phonological, syntactic, semantic etc.). However, learning those rules by discovering is only feasible when learners are exposed to rich linguistic input in a natural social setting.

5.6.1. Making Grammar Salient

It is also widely accepted that grammar must be taught but the way to teach it has been a subject of debate. There is also no consensus on which grammar rules and how many of them should be taught (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Prabhu, 1990). Considering the nature of the talk management, it is not possible to allocate much time for form-focused activities using the most common inductive and deductive methods because they require pre-determined materials and content.

Evidently, awareness of the grammatical system was the first need that emerged during the talk management. The question is how the teacher can successfully stop to raise this awareness without losing the control of the talk. Kumaravadivelu (2003) offers the concept of 'input enhancement', to balance between inductive and deductive methods while focusing both on form (negotiation of meaning) and forms (grammatical activities) (Long, 1991). Input enhancement encompasses both the concepts of consciousness raising (Smith, 1981) and noticing the gap, both of which basically refer to intentionally attracting the learner's attention to the grammatical features of the target language to make them salient. However, this does not necessarily mean using the traditional way of teaching grammar rules (Rutherford, 1987).

In the traditional approach of grammar teaching, the rules are just taught explicitly based on a preplan not on spontaneous needs of the learners that emerge during the talk. So, the learners are passive receivers who does not play a collaborative role in acquiring grammatical competence. Traditional grammar teaching is mainly concerned with formal ordering of linguistic components without taking into consideration their contextual, textual and social meanings (Smith, 1991). For instance, when we teach a particular grammatical form, we teach it in formulas (e.g., present continuous > S + Ving + / NP + VP), its meaning (e.g., I am doing a specific action right now) and its function (e.g., it describes the actions taking place right now or planned future actions).

There are some suggested ways (Rutherford, 1987; Smith, 1991) to make linguistic features visually more salient: bolding, color coding, underlining and highlighting. In this kind of visual input enhancement; however, there is a possibility that learners notice the targeted linguistic structures but may fail to process them cognitively (Izumi, 2002) when they have no chance of producing them. In other words, one-way interaction may not necessarily yield any production in the end-state although it makes certain linguistic elements salient. Mere exposure to the salient linguistic features will not work unless it is facilitated by

modifications in interaction by means of which the interlocutors have the opportunity to gain the final attainment.

The chance to alter and shape the end-product helps them recognize a gap between what they want to say and what they can say since the interaction offers them the choice of thinking and taking an action to make modification in the input. It is commonly argued that both modified input and output have their roles in L2 acquisition (Ellis & He, 1999). As they are natural process of the attainment of a second language, it is quite possible to encounter challenges common to all learners. To tackle these obstacles, the role of collaborative scaffolding (Swain & Lapkin, 1998), also played by TIC, may help learners modify both output and input. However, what makes interactionally modified output superior to input is the fact that output involves generating already noticed linguistic elements internally whereas input enhancement draws attention induced by external factors. Therefore, enhancing input through visual aids will not change the result unless there is actual use of input and that is what Izumi (2002) indicated in his study. In other words, there is no significant effect of visual input enhancement on noticing which is accepted as a requisite for language acquisition by Schmidt (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000).

Accordingly, it can be said that noticing the gap between what the learners are able to convey in the target language in practice and the amount of knowledge they possess in theory is highly significant (Gass, 1997). This gap noticing can be promoted by visual aids; however, it does not necessarily result in production. What is more, activities based on consciousness-raising (e.g., grammar discovery tasks suggested by Ellis (1997) to make linguistic items salient) are generally pre-planned tasks selected from various data sources that can be authentic, inauthentic, oral or written. To sum up, although consciousness-raising and noticing gap activities give some experience or knowledge of particular linguistic properties, the learners might exploit them best when they are followed by meaningful classroom interaction (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

5.6.2. Nexus of Salient Grammar and TIC

The vital question here is how conducting grammar discovery tasks enhance TIC and how the teacher will be able to keep the talk flow while doing consciousness-raising activities. It was obvious from the obtained data that no matter what the teachers did to manage the talk in the speaking clubs, the interaction was interrupted or paused now and then. Even mutual understanding was broken down due to the grammar deficiency of some learners. In order to manage the talk, the teacher could not treat the pause for grammar as a pause for turn-taking in an ordinary talk. The learners cannot be asked to work on the grammar during an interaction and it is not feasible to employ grammar discovery tasks similar to those suggested by Ellis (1997). For instance, it is not applicable to ask them to identify and classify a specific grammar feature because such an expectation would necessitate teaching that particular grammar feature in the first place.

Allowing learners to judge the correctness of a grammar feature and to modify it accordingly based on their linguistic knowledge is not implementable, either, since such an activity would direct them to critically ponder over grammatical structures rather can conveying their message. In addition, some other mechanical grammar activities such as filling in the blanks, matching and rule provision for some grammatical information do not fit the very nature of an authentic talk on the grounds that they divert learners from the ongoing interaction. What is more, these consciousness-raising activities requires preparation beforehand, whereas the naturally occurring talk needs to be managed spontaneously. So, *how can the teacher pause the talk for the sake of concentrating on specific grammatical principle*?

5.6.3. A Probable Solution: FFI

One possible solution is to make some grammatical properties a part of NI and let the learners match or contrast the grammatical properties of the target language with the equivalent ones in their native language. This approach can make learners curious and activate their heuristic cognition to probe and notice the gap. In that way, learners will not be tasked with boring or decontextualized grammar tasks; on the contrary, they will be dealing with spontaneous grammatical forms that are needed for meaningful interaction. In a sense, this is what is meant by form-focused instruction (FFI) (Ellis, 2001; Long, 1991; Spada, 1997; Spada, 2011).

The concept FFI is defined by Spada (1997) as "… any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to form either implicitly or explicitly . . . within meaning-based approaches to L2 instruction [and] in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways" (p.73). Long (1991) states that FFI "…overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (p. 45). The main distinction between these two definitions is that the scope of FFI is more comprehensive in the definition by Spada (1997) as it entails both incidental and non-incidental opportunities of FFI.

However, Long's notion of FFI (1991) involves making use of spontaneous occasions that are contextual and need-based. This approach is more aligned with what this study holds in terms of making linguistic elements salient during an interaction. Pre-determined ways of focusing on forms contrast with the notion 'learning by talking' (Allright, 1984; Gass, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 1998) which basically means 'using language to learn the language itself' (Swain, 2000), which is the basic tenant of negotiated interaction.

5.6.4. Drawbacks to FFI

There is no doubt that FFI should be used and it is beneficial to raise awareness of the linguistic elements fundamental to meaningful interaction. The critical question is whether it should be employed explicitly or implicitly. There have been many studies that applied explicit FFI in the form of overt instruction, corrective feedback, the use of meta-language and clear signals; on the other hand, there are several other studies that employed implicit FFI using subtle signals such as frequently exposing learners to specific forms (Spada, 2011). Explicit FFI is more in line with the talk management in communicative activities (Spada, 2011) since it is time-saving while making linguistic features more salient and raising awareness to foster critical thinking. High frequency exposure to subtle language forms requires excessive amount of time for learner to discover the target forms, which distorts the authenticity and spontaneity of negotiated interaction.

Another challenge associated with explicit FFI is deciding on the optimal topicalization to consolidate the FFI. There is a bulk of research that suggest employing task-based or problem-solving activities in groups such as a job interview, making reservation for a flight, hotel room or dinner table and so on (Long & Robinson, 1998). The main problem with these kinds of activities is that they generally consist of the topics that have to be pre-selected and they therefore may not appeal to learners. When learners see the talk irrelevant, they are most likely to close their mind to the activities that do not address their interests. The following figure shows the two drawbacks to FFI.



Figure 15. Drawbacks to FFI.

5.6.5. Topicalization Through FFI

Although exposing learners to language forms might spoil the authenticity and spontaneity of the interaction that is going on, *using the language to talk explicitly and incidentally* about the language itself is kind of *negotiation within a negotiation* as it leads to 'topicalization' that is the second pillar of 'management of learning' proposed by (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). In other words, overt and occasional shifts to grammatical features does not divert learners from meaning because they are already engaged in it (Long, 1991) and interrupting and drawing attention to different things is a natural part of an ordinary and authentic interaction, yet still two important questions indicate two obstacles that are most probably experienced in many language classrooms filled with learners from different background. These questions are:

1- *How can linguistic forms be presented to the learners with various proficiency levels?*
2- *What if the spontaneous linguistic knowledge is way beyond their current level?*

Even if there are some studies which have indicated that the linguistic input should be slightly beyond the current level of language learners in order for the language development

to take place (Krashen, 1985), there are some others suggesting that the input which outstrips their level by a few stages can also result in language enhancement (Hamilton 1994; Spada, 2011). However, it should be noted that learners who are proficient in their L1 benefit more from overt, spontaneous and incidental exposure to FFI (Ammar & Lightbown 2005; Spada, 2011).

Complex grammatical items might be hard to discover during an interaction (Hulstijn & de Graaff, 1994) as sometimes are the simple ones. Although the concepts *simple* or *complex* grammatical items are controversial (Spada, 2011), it is of utmost importance to make grammar discovery activities a meaningful topic of conversation and to instill into learners the notion that grammar is a 'dynamic system' that establish a strong interdependent tie among form, meaning and use (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The difficulty notion of a grammatical item may vary from learner to learner as for some learners it is hard to notice third singular -s while easily learning formulaic complex sentence as a whole like 'Who did you talk to?', which requires seven criteria to form (DeKeyser, 2005). For some others, it is the other way around as they can easily perceive progressive -ing while having difficulty forming a sentence which requires combining a few words in specific rule-based sequence (Spada, 2011).

It can be said that, along with individual differences, the typological qualities of the concept simple and complex grammatical items indicate that the interactional competence of the teacher must take many incidental variables into account while managing the talk. All in all, spontaneous metalinguistic talk can lead to topicalization in the ongoing talk despite interruptions and shifts which are typically used to maintain a natural talk.

5.6.6. Authentication of Topics & FFI

Pre-selected topics as the ones in task-based or problem-solving activities may not appeal to learners and address their needs. Instead, learners are more prone to current and authentic topics that they can relate to their life. For instance, selecting *corona virus* as the main theme of the conversation will be more appealing while it is on every news bulletin all over the world and it is affecting their daily lives in many aspects. Learners will probably be interested in finding out key words or phrases such as *infection, being intubated, getting vaccinated or a jab, social distance, number of cases, being admitted to the hospital, wearing a mask, lockdown, curfew, quarantine, disinfection, sanitization, coughing, sneezing, fever, muscle and joint pain* and so on.

These lexical items become salient when they are frequently and meaningfully negotiated. At this point, learners can be encouraged to form groups and write down their personal experiences related to the topic while the teacher is scaffolding them and giving them explicit feedback on grammatical items that are necessary to construct simple or complex sentences. Plenty of topics and tasks such as the one mentioned above are doable in particular social contexts and they are easily designed without having any pre-packaged recourses at one's disposal.

With these spontaneous and attention-grabbing activities, L2 learners' own experience and emotions of the real-world can lead to socio-cognitive salience and sociocultural sensitivity, which can facilitate the input processing as they entail meaningful negotiation on conversational adjustments through interpersonal activity. This interactional modification makes a connection between form and meaning (Breen, 1985; Ellis & He, 1999; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Long, 1996; Mackey & Goo, 2012). Combined with topicalization, explicit FFI allows learner to notice overtly given grammatical items and after some time they begin to intake these items using them spontaneously (Spada, 2011).

5.7. Pausing the Talk: A Micro Strategy

Now that it is obvious that topicalization can be beneficial and ideal for FFI, as mentioned above, how can we get the optimal benefit from the overt FFI emerging from the spontaneous needs that are specific to the topicalization? It is evident from the data that the teachers got stuck in the event of communication breakdowns due to lack of grammatical knowledge of the speakers. Obviously, it could have not been practical and even feasible for the teachers to turn the interaction into activities with mere linguistic drills and exercises. However, they frequently were forced to pause the talk and provide explicit instruction or corrective feedback on broken grammatical items. This kind of spontaneous treatment generally did not go well with the flow of the talk either from the perspective of the management of interaction or learner involvement.

To overcome this obstacle, teachers can make the overt grammar instruction a micro part of the talk rather than treating a grammatical item as an intricate and mechanical topic. Furthermore, they are expected to base their linguistic feedback or instruction on contextual factors and incidental needs of the learners while taking into account their individual differences. In a way, they need to incorporate a mechanical topic into a meaningful interaction without letting the pause disrupt the flow of the talk. Of course, teachers did not just pause the talk for the sake of grammar treatment but they also paused for treating lexical deficiency. To refer to the treatment of the interactional issue described above, I conceptualize the concept PID as a micro strategy.

5.7.1. Pausing to Contextualize

Grammatical items along with lexical ones can be better studied and understood when a linguistic context is provided at a sentence level or inter-sentential level, which is closely related to the concept of *relevance* or *cohesion*. The linguistic clues at the inter-sentential level constitute a meaningful whole in oral or written texts as decoding one component of a sentence rely on the other (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). For instance, the lexical items *poor* and *single* will have different meaning in different linguistic contexts in *He was a poor single man*. So, the meaning of the word *poor* in sentences below vary depending on its linguistic context:

1- He was so *poor* that he couldn't afford to buy himself new clothes.

2- His performance was *poor* compared to the other football players.

3- *Poor* man! He was intubated for weeks after being admitted to the hospital for Covid-19.

4- He *is poor* at playing football

In the first sentence, it refers to someone who has very little money and not many possessions, whereas in the second one, it means *not as good as it could be or should be*. Although it means *being unlucky* in the third sentence, it denotes *not being good at doing something* in the fourth.

One of the talk pauses frequently done is contextualizing a lexical item to remove the ambiguity and confusion concerning what it refers to. Contextualizing a lexical item can be used as a sub-strategy of PID in managing the talk as in the following example: The learner is confused because he hears the teacher using the lexical item *call* with the meaning *adlandirmak* or *demek* (use a particular name or title for someone or something) in Turkish, whereas he knows it just by the meaning *aramak* (to telephone someone). He asks the teacher to tell the difference between the two meanings. The teacher provides a linguistic context by pretending the sound of the phone ring saying:

A: Hello! I called you many times this morning! But you didn't answer. Where have you been?

B: I am busy now! Can I call you back?

She types this short dialogue on the Microsoft Word page on her laptop connected to a huge screen so that all the other learners can see it. Then, she says and types some other sentences:

What was your nickname when you were a child? What did they call you? For example, I had a nickname and they called me "Elo".

After this example, she asks each learner to complete the gap in following the sentence with their nickname.

"They called me ----"

After each answer, she employs a referential question seeking to find out the reason why they were called with that nickname. By doing so, she tries to contextualize the target lexical item while making it meaningful through referential questions.

5.7.2. Pausing for Segmental Features

Another frequent factor that force the talk to pause is the difficulty caused by the endeavor to pronounce specific words correctly. Treating the lexical items on segmental level can be another sub-strategy of PID in managing the talk as in the following example. When a learner uses the word *called* pronouncing it as / kɒːləd / or / kɔːləd /, the teacher explains that the sound *ə* is omitted when the *-ed* suffix is added to the past tense form of the verb *call* and some other similar verbs such as *bore, cover, assume, book* and *walk*. The allophones /d/ or /t/ are linked to the penultimate phoneme. So, the correct pronunciation of these verbs is /boːrd/,/ˈkʌvərd /, /əˈsuːmd/, /bʊkt/ and /wɒːkt/.

She uses the verb *call* as a model to show the learner how to check the pronunciation and phonetic transcription of the other verbs. To do so, she uses the website of the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*: https://www.ldoceonline.com/*, which is a free complete vocabulary and grammar resource that aims to enhance learning of English. It has full contents online with online Thesaurus, Vocabulary Checker and examples from the corpus.

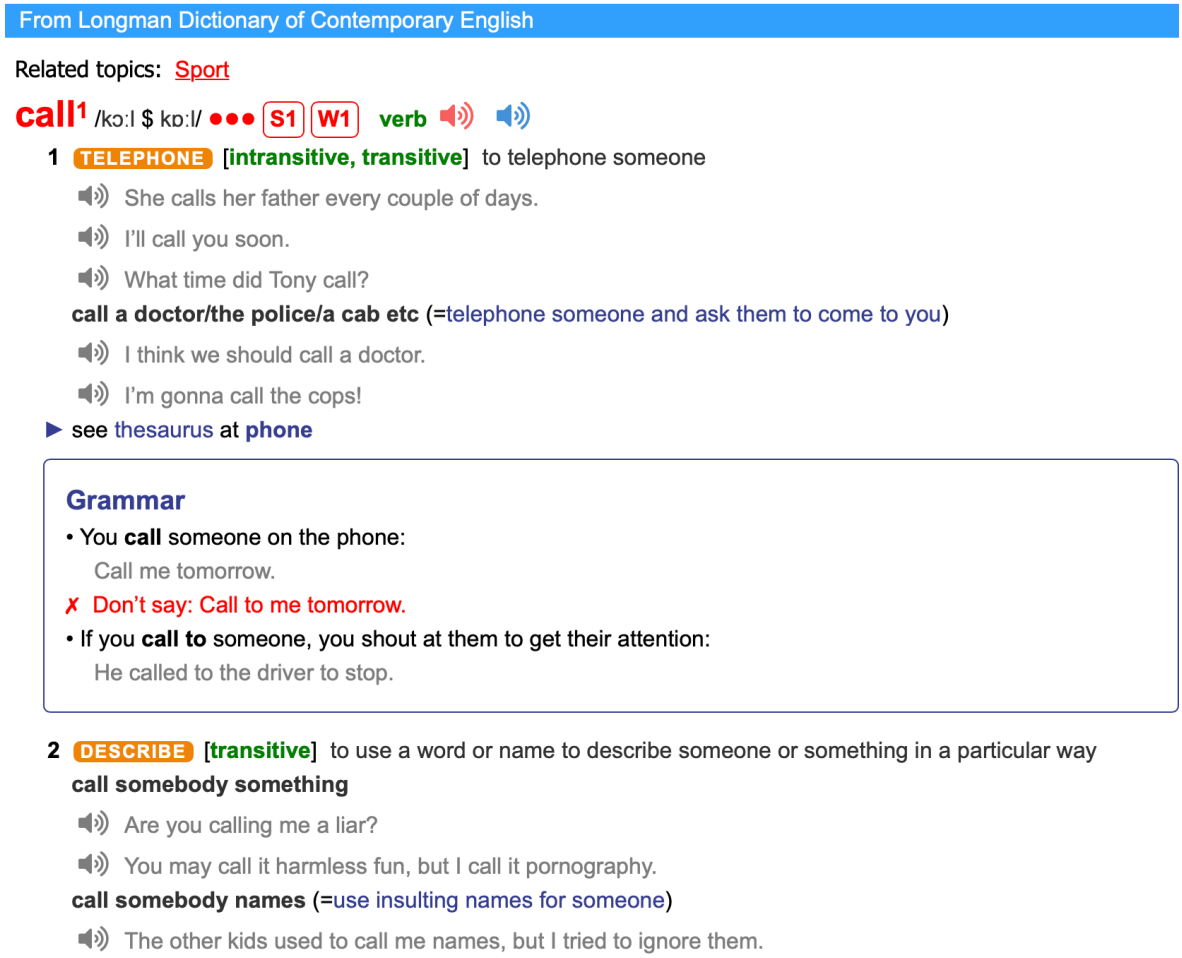


Figure 16. Inquiry to check the pronunciation and phonetic transcription of a word. Retrieved from https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/call.

What is more, she uses another website (https://youglish.com) to check its pronunciation and its use across various videos. It is a YouTube-based web tool that provides the correct pronunciation of words with different accents in multiple languages and of course in English.

You can hear the pronunciations of the same word by native or non-native speakers appearing on the video. You simply type a word or phrase into the search bar and the query returns hundreds of videos where real people use the searched word in a context instead of inauthentic and automated pronunciation. Also, you can choose British, American or all pronunciations with a captioned video. You can pause the video, rewind the target area and play it as many times as you wish. You can go forward or backward and scroll through the other videos. You can use the restricted mode to prevent inappropriate words or adult-level content from being entered or returned. This kind of online practical tools as well as some other alternative ones like Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) give the learners the ability to check their pronunciation, which plays a vital role in promoting learner autonomy by developing necessary strategies to self-access, self-evaluate and monitor their own pronunciation (McCrocklin, 2016).

Technological tools create an anxiety-free environment where learners are not discouraged from interacting (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Macintyre, 2007) as they feel in a secure and private learning zone (Banafa, 2008). ASR decodes and transcribes the oral of input received through a microphone using some pattern and algorithm (Levis & Suvorov, 2014). Siri on iPhones, Amazon Alexa or Google Assistant, Hound and Robin are some examples of ASR programs.

Along with contextualizing the use and pronunciation of the relevant word, queries on the website can also be narrowed down by-word class (noun, verb, adverb, adjective). For instance, type *call:v* if you want to search for it as a verb. Then, it might return hundreds of thousand hits as in the following:

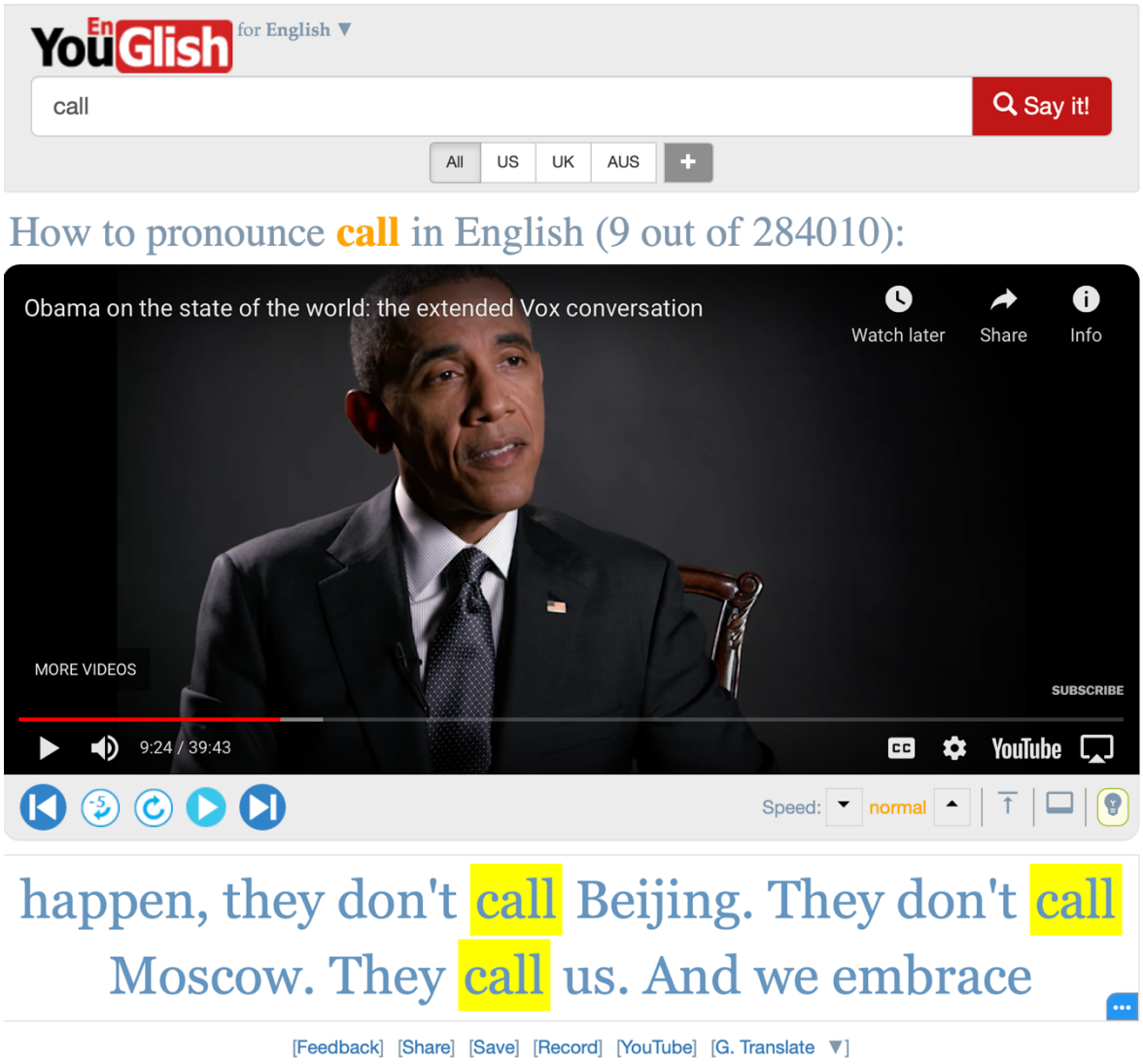


Figure 17. Inquiry to check the word “call” as a verb.
Retrieved from https://youglish.com/pronounce/they%20don%27t%20call/english?.

As for *call* queries as a noun, you type *call:n* and then you get hits as in:

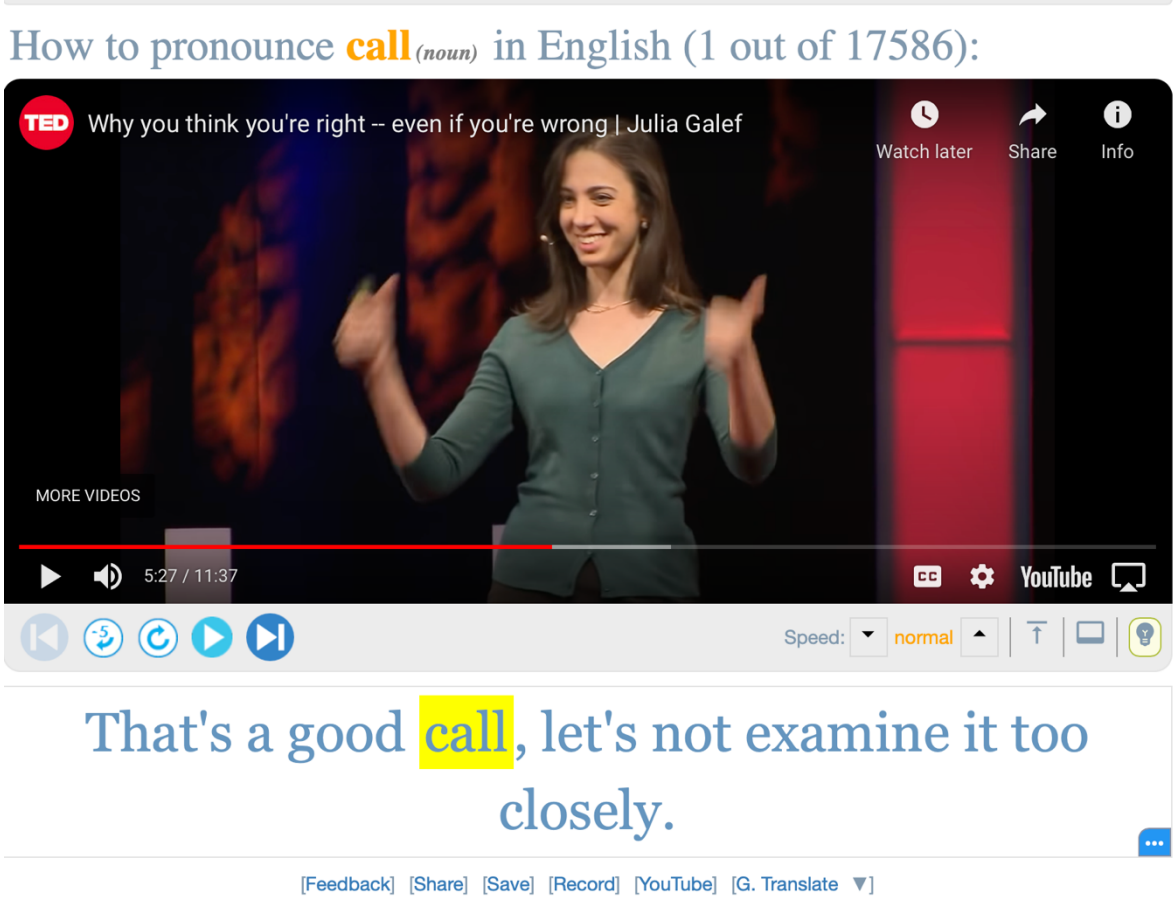


Figure 18. Inquiry to check the word "call" as a noun.
Retrieved from https://youglish.com/pronounce/call%20%3An/english?

You can also conduct your research by sentence type. You can use *call ?* for an interrogative form or *call !* for an exclamative form as in the following images respectively.

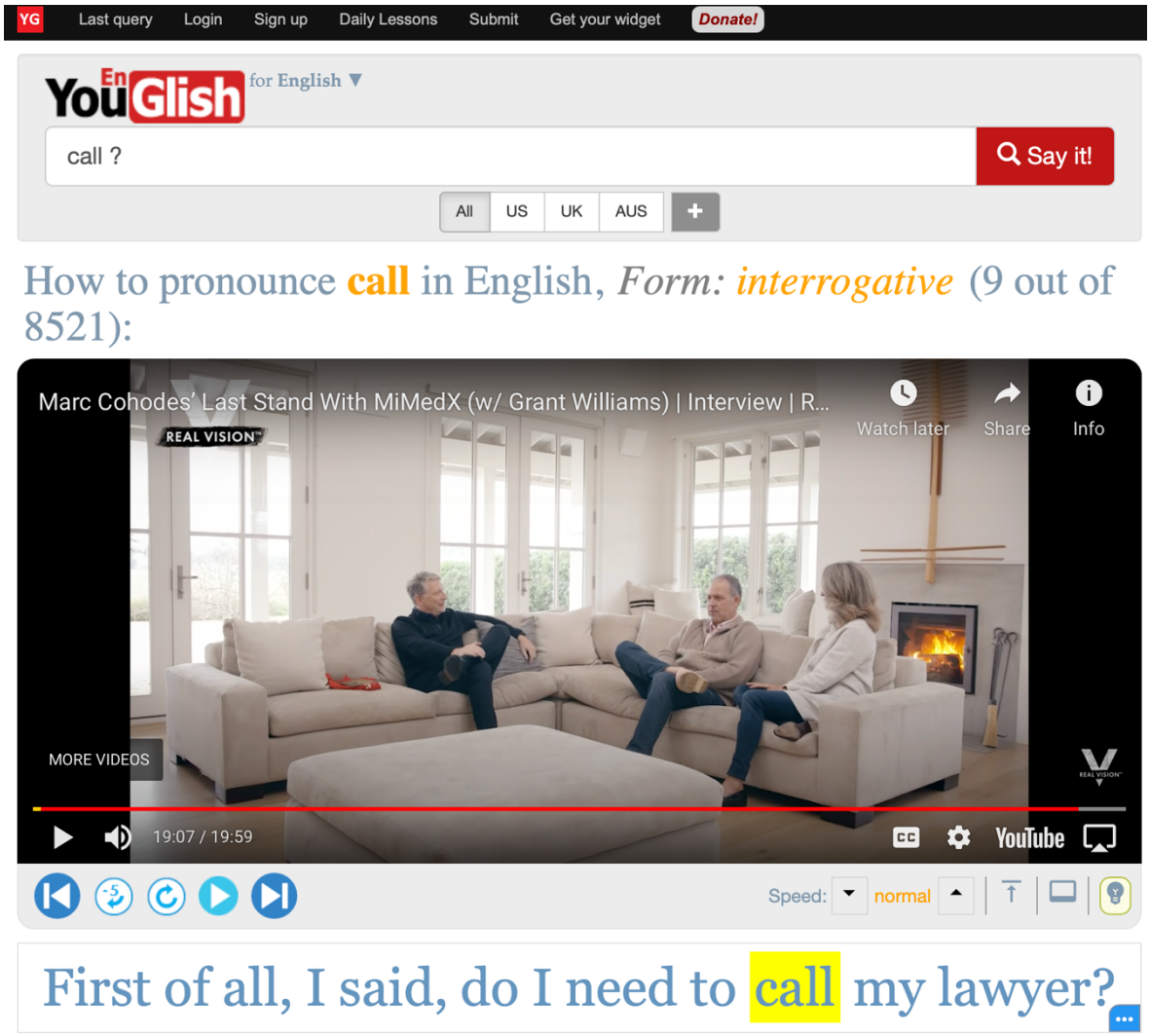


Figure 19. Inquiry to check the word "call" in the interrogative form. Retrieved from https://youglish.com/pronounce/call%20%3A%3F/english?



Figure 20. Inquiry to check the word "call" in the exclamative form. Retrieved from https://youglish.com/pronounce/call%20%3A%21/english?

Even you can base your search on gender. For instance, you can type *call :m* to see how the word *call* is pronounced by males across various authentic situations and accents as in the following screen shot:



Figure 21. Inquiry to check the word "call" used by a male.
Retrieved from https://youglish.com/pronounce/because%20you%20can%20call/english?

Similarly, you can type *call :f* to find out how the word *call* is pronounced by females with distinct pronunciation as in the following shot:



Figure 22. Inquiry to check the word "call" used by a female.
Retrieved from https://youglish.com/getbyid/12224721/call%20%20%3Af/english

To sum up, providing a linguistic context, using referential questions to make a particular lexical item more meaningful and treating it on segmental level are suggested sub-strategies of PID in managing the talk.

5.7.3. Pausing for Supra-segmental Features

As described above, the teacher pauses the talk temporarily to be able to keep it flow and manage it smoothly. For that end, she strives to contextualize the relevant lexical item through spontaneous linguistic input while concentrating on its segmental features, i.e. its pronunciation. The teacher also makes use of suprasegmental, also called prosodic, features. Two of them are *stress* and *intonation*. They are both sound contrasts beyond meaning-distinguishing individual sounds (phonemes). Stress is the relative emphasis most forcefully placed on certain syllables or phrases sentence with a greater amount of energy, which is more prominent in the flow of speech. Intonation refers to the rise and fall of the voice pitch, which makes it the melodic pattern of an utterance, while conveying a message (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2015).

Indeed, various nonlinguistic information about the emotional state of the speaker (e.g. being calm, angry, happy or sad) can be conveyed through intonation. The pitch differences include marking the boundaries of syntactic units. For example, the completion of a sentence is signaled by a falling pitch, whereas incomplete utterances are signaled by a rising intonation.

To convey discourse information by intonation, a high pitch can be placed on a specific word in an utterance to convey new information. For example, in the English sentences *Robin gave his new toys to his friend, but he also gave an old one*, if high pitch is put on the word *long*, then it is the new information. However, if it is placed on the word *gave* then it is the new information. In conclusion, intonation can clearly influence the grammatical category of words (e.g. (to) insult / ɪnˈsʌlt / and (an) insult / ˈɪnsʌlt /), change their meaning in different context and affect the meaning of the phrase or sentence (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2015).

When the learners utter some words separately one by one across a sentence, they sound mechanical and unauthentic. At this juncture, she intervenes and teaches them how to use *linking* in a number of ways. The aim of the pause is to show them how to produce connected speech by joining the pronunciation of two words for the purpose of making the speech flow together smoothly. She mainly shows two ways of linking:

a) *Consonant to vowel linking:* It is linking the first word ending with a consonant sound to the following word beginning with a vowel sound. She types the following examples with their phonetic transcription and linked versions:

One egg	*/ wʌn eg /*	*wʌneg*
four eggs	*/ fɔːr egz /*	*fɔːregz*
a box of eggs	*/ ə baːks əv egz /*	*əbaːksəvegz*
Cüneyt Arkın		*CüneytArkın*
Kadir İnanır		*KadirİnanIr*

The last two examples are the names of two renowned actors. Therefore, the teacher does not type their phonetic transcription as they are familiar with their pronunciation.

b) *Vowel to vowel linking:* It is linking the first word ending with a vowel sound to the following word beginning with a vowel sound. The sounds */ w /* or */ j /* can be added depending on the particular sounds to make a smooth transition. She types the following examples with their phonetic transcription and linked versions:

two egg	*/ tuː eg /*	*tuːweg*
three eggs	*/ θriː egz /*	*θriːjegz*

Overall, the interactional competence of teachers necessitates managing the classroom discourse both at micro and macro levels. The primary way to control the talk is to encourage the learners to engage in interaction using referential questions that aim to elicit unknown and authentic information. The talk, nevertheless, is halted by communication breakdowns

caused by grammatical and lexical deficiencies of the interlocutors. To find a way around this problem, the teacher pauses the talk to treat it through the micro-strategies mentioned above. This remedial pause does not spoil the ongoing talk; on the contrary, it leads a new topic for negotiation.

In other words, PID requires making use of spontaneous treatment for the incidental talk spoilers that emerge over the course of the interaction. Specifically, it entails contextualizing various lexical and grammatical items based on the linguistic context through both cohesion, which is based on structural and lexical contents, and coherence, which refers to making a text logical, consistent and meaningful. Furthermore, it contextualizes extra-linguistic input through segmental and para-segmental units. The following table outlines PID with its subconstructs.

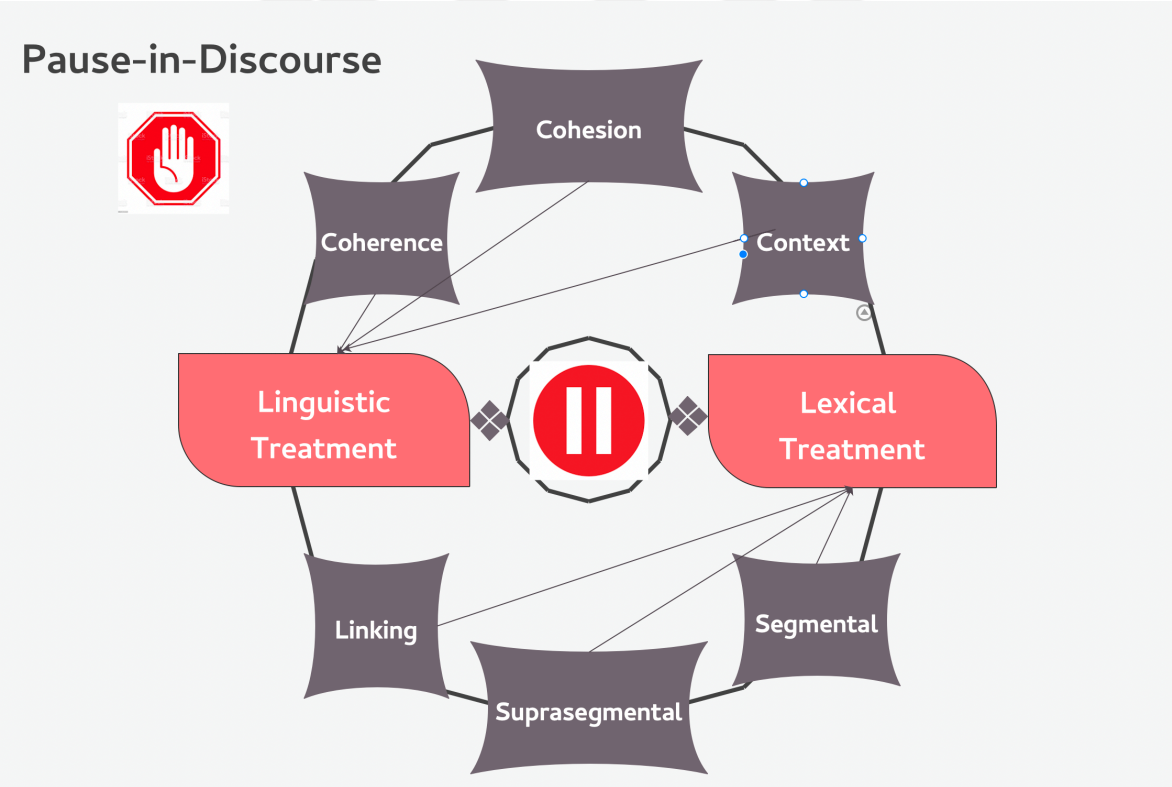


Figure 23. The Pause-in-discourse component.

5.8. Digital Literacy

It is beyond argument that contextualizing incidental grammatical input by making learners familiar with linguistic, extra-linguistic, situational or cultural contexts facilitates learning process (Kumaravadivelu, 2003), yet still this endeavor generally ends up with textual display and it rarely goes further. Textual context cannot provide all cultural or situational aspects of the target language, which constitute a critical phase in second language acquisition (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Providing contextual assistance mainly through textual clues remain incomplete and in need of more treatment to make the context more authentic. This turns out to be one striking challenge concerning contextualizing linguistic input during FFI.

So how can an EFL teacher contextualize the target language without being present in actual native context?

The competence of using digital mediums comes into play at this juncture now that reaching authentic materials is just one click away with the advent of the internet. The importance of digital literacy has become more apparent within the last two decades especially over the last few years as the whole world has undergone through an unprecedented disaster. Many developed and developing countries around the globe had to go into lockdown or impose curfew and quarantine to protect themselves against the infectious Coronavirus disease (COVID-19), which has been prevailing the entire world since 2019 when it first broke out in China. Many people had to self-isolate themselves for weeks until they recovered.

This pandemic showed us how vital it is to adapt and integrate into online distance education, to exploit online language materials and even some social media accounts (Instagram, Facebook, Telegram, Whatssapp etc.) and to have a good command of cyber class software (Zoom, Microsoft teams, Google Meet, Perculus, Starleaf, Skype Meet Now etc.) on various technological gadgets. On the other hand, the pandemic showed us that digital literacy skills are futile and it might result in digital divide when there is no effective access to the internet

and vital technological tools due to socioeconomic status (Yılmaz & Söğüt, 2022). Accordingly, in this study, digital literacy skills are aimed to be used to extend the scope of TIC rather than to be seen as an indispensable part of it that manages the interaction on its own. It is assumed that digital literacy can ameliorate the teaching process; or else, 'technologically illiterate' teachers will have to rely on what is available within the formal instructional setting and they therefore will not able to extend the learning process beyond the walls of the classroom. As they say technology will not replace teachers but technology will replace the teachers who do not use technology or teachers who use it will replace those who do not use it. However, using technology does not necessarily require discarding teachers from learning and teaching process. On the contrary, the teacher has always to be there guiding the learners when it comes to navigating through boundless online language learning materials.

Online video platforms such as YouTube broadcast countless authentic videos that can show all the missing aspects of textual context such as visuals that can aid cultural knowledge like interpreting facial expression, mimics, eye-contact, gestures and body position and so on, which can facilitate comprehension (Baltova, 1994). Along with numerous visual ones, they provide aural clues such as stress, intonation and accents, which are conceivably basic features of interaction (Guillory, 1998; Liversidge, 2000). The materials containing these features are not superficial as they are not produced specifically with a view to teaching and learning languages (Adams, 1995). Now that the internet is accessible almost anywhere and online education is indispensable to anyone interested in learning and teaching foreign languages without boundaries, it is essential to make digital literacy a component of TIC, turning the classroom discourse into a more natural-like communicative setting.

As explained above, there are numerous websites such as *https://youglish.com* that serves as an online video corpus. These kinds of corpora allow learners to check the pronunciation and use of the target language across various authentic videos. They feature real people who

use the searched word in a real context without automated pronunciation. One advantage of the video corpora is that you can pause the videos, rewind the target area and play it as many times as you wish. You can go forward or backward and scroll through the other videos. Another advantage is that they promote learner autonomy as they allow self-access without time and place restriction.

The digital literacy component is presented with its constructs and subconstructs in the figure below. The *basic digital skills* construct simply refers to the competence of the teacher to operate technological devises such as a laptop or a personal computer connected to an external screen that clearly show all the participants the visual and aural content. The main purpose is to be table to display the written language or allow the participants to watch and listen relevant videos on platforms such as YouTube, Youglish and Voicetube. It entails being able to use basic word processing programs such as Microsoft Word, Liberoffice or Calligra. It also necessitates basic knowledge of using internet browsers such Google Chrome, Apple Safari or Explorer. The main advantage of this component is that it allows teachers to provide learners with audio-visual aid that would not be viable otherwise.

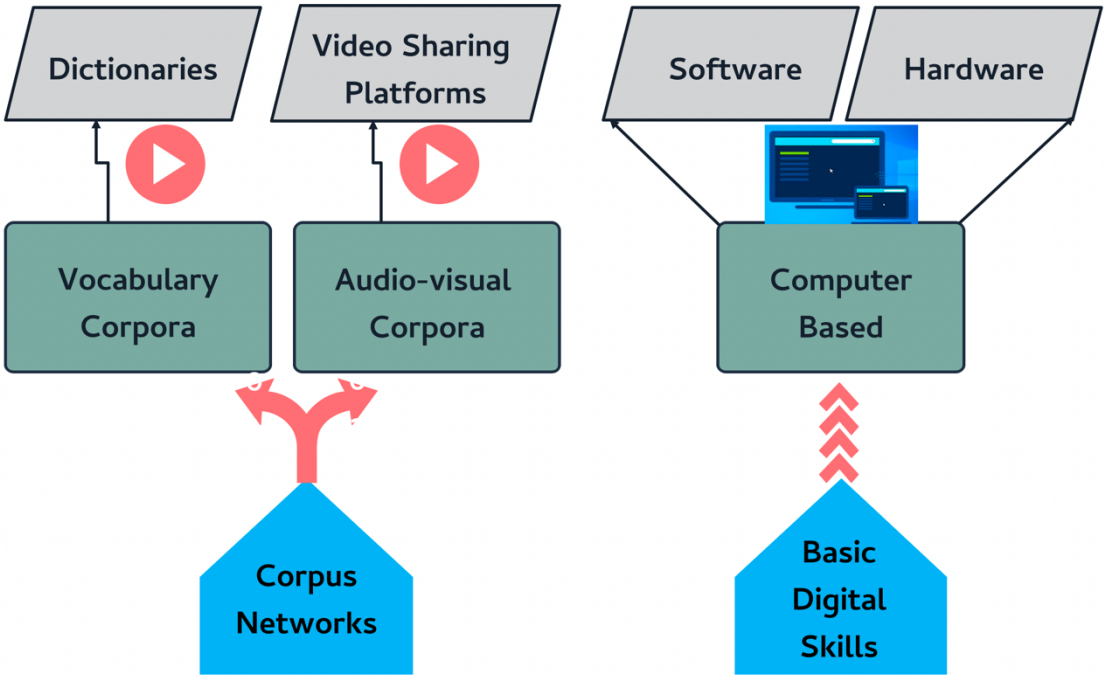


Figure 24. The TIC component: digital literacy.

5.9. Teacher Autonomy

It can be plausibly argued that it is not feasible and realistic to expect teachers to meet the unexpected and unpredictable needs of learners. Therefore, teachers must be given some freedom to design context-specific and need-based learning environment using their professional and experiential knowledge. To be able to use this freedom, they must be trained in a way that they can systematically monitor and manage the interaction by theorizing from they have practiced (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Although learning opportunities that surface spontaneously can be relevant or irrelevant to the ongoing conversation, the teacher should employ them willingly and eagerly.

The primary force that initiates and sustains L2 learning process is the willingness by the teacher, i.e. teacher autonomy, which has been downplayed as the learner willingness has been the main focus of attention (Barfield & Brown, 2007; Little, 2007). Acknowledging

autonomy as a capacity rather than an ability means it can be fostered and it is not an inborn feature. Considering its psychological construct, autonomy is not comprised totally of observable behaviors as individuals may wear a mask and behave autonomously in order to satisfy the expectations of others (Breen & Mann, 1997). That is, they may not be autonomous but pretend to be autonomous. This shows that autonomy is a capacity that cannot fully operate without its psychological dimension.

The teacher's 'capacity to take control over and responsibility for her learning' (Little, 1991) requires that the teacher must be psychologically ready to employ the TIC components when needed. To promote context-specific and individual-based needs of the learners, the teacher is supposed to take control over his own teaching. As willingness is not something innate and constant (Sinclair, 2000) it has to be autonomously and independently promoted (Littlewood, 1996). In other words, the ability to take self-control of their teaching depends on their willingness and self-determination (Dam, 1995). This dedication of the teacher makes him undertake the identities of a 'facilitator', 'resource person' and 'negotiator' (Littlewood, 1996).

Being a *negotiator* necessitates being sensitive to relevant (OK, 2016), irrelevant, incidental and meaningful tasks. Providing required knowledge and corrective feedback on any learner deficiencies through the aforementioned components of TIC is concerned with the teacher's role of *resource person*. However, scaffolding, meeting learners' spontaneous needs and treating their deficiencies can be done only within restricted hours in person and in a specific context, which can be either a semi-instructed, social setting or a fully instructed classroom.

So, *how can the teacher extend her support beyond the interaction environment and allow students to benefit from his interactional competence?*

The digital literacy component of TIC gets back to the stage here. Effectively guided by TIC, learners can be taught how to bear responsibility throughout their learning process. As mentioned above, there are numerous digital web tools that can be exploited. However,

learners can be lost seeing the vastness of these tools. What is crucial here is to provide them with a few so that they can show more initiative to take charge over learning, which will facilitate for learners to set goals and select their own learning strategies (Lier, 1996). Facilitating language learning process for learners is related to the role of *facilitator*. In other words, TIC requires teachers to be willing to take action to promote learners' language development.

This willingness is conceptualized as teacher autonomy by Little (1995) which can be fostered through educational interventions (McGrath, 2000). It is clear that the teacher is expected to have autonomy in the first place to promote learner autonomy through TIC as teacher bear the leading professional and personal responsibility in instilling autonomy into their learners within or outside the educational setting (Benson & Huang, 2008; Dam, 1995; Powell & McGowan, 1996).

Once learners reflect on their own learning and taste the freedom of learning on their own without being constantly spoon-fed, they will affectively and cognitively begin to take control over their learning (Little, 1995). Along with *facilitating negotiated interaction*, *promoting learner autonomy* is also one of the macro-strategies proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003) within pedagogical wheel mentioned above. Liberating learners by providing basic tools to help them learn how to learn entails negotiating with them about their language development and learning objectives (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989), which is effectively achieved through teacher autonomy.

In a sense, at the core of TIC lies self-directed professional development or professional action which is directed at maximizing learning opportunities to foster learner autonomy (Benson & Huang, 2008; McGrath, 2000; Smith, 2001). *Self-directed professional development* is concerned with psychological interpretation of autonomy (Benson & Huang, 2008) "…. as the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others" (Smith, 2001, p.1) or more comprehensively "….

as teachers' willingness, capacity and freedom to take control over their own teaching and learning" (Huang, 2007, p.33). Considering the indispensable role of teacher autonomy in keeping the interaction negotiated, it is essential to make it the first component of TIC because teachers cannot take control over their teaching and manage the talk when they are not willing and motivated to do so.

TIC must create an agenda for learners by the negotiation between the teacher and the learner over it and reflection by the learner and scaffolding by the teacher. This 'pedagogical dialogue' is based on an 'interdependent' process where learners and teacher act collaboratively to help learners to become psychologically ready to take their own responsibility (Benson, 2011; Little, 1991; Nakata, 2011). What is more, the notion of teacher or learner autonomy can be perceived differently in contextually and culturally diverse parts of the world.

As it has roots in the western culture, its appropriateness and implementations in non-western parts of the world may be problematic. However, it must be noted this process can be arduous and demanding as the notion of teacher-learner autonomy cannot be adopted overnight. A teacher who shares his teaching experiences and problems on virtual communities of practice or in teachers' room at a formal institution can be regarded as an autonomous teacher. "If learner autonomy is the capacity, freedom, and / or responsibility to make choices concerning one's own learning… teacher autonomy, by analogy, can be defined as the capacity, freedom, and / or responsibility to make choices concerning one's own teaching" (Aoki, 2002, p. 111).

More concisely, Aoki (2002) defines teacher autonomy 'as teachers' willingness, capacity and freedom to take control of their own teaching and learning' (ibid). These three key components of teacher autonomy, which are willingness, capacity and freedom, corresponds to the three broad dimensions of teacher autonomy respectively: social-motivational, technical-psychological, and critical-political. The Figure 26 below shows the component

'teacher autonomy' along with its four constructs, three sub-constructs of the 'self-determined' construct, three sub-constructs of the *facilitator* construct and two subconstructs for both the *negotiator* and *resource person* constructs.

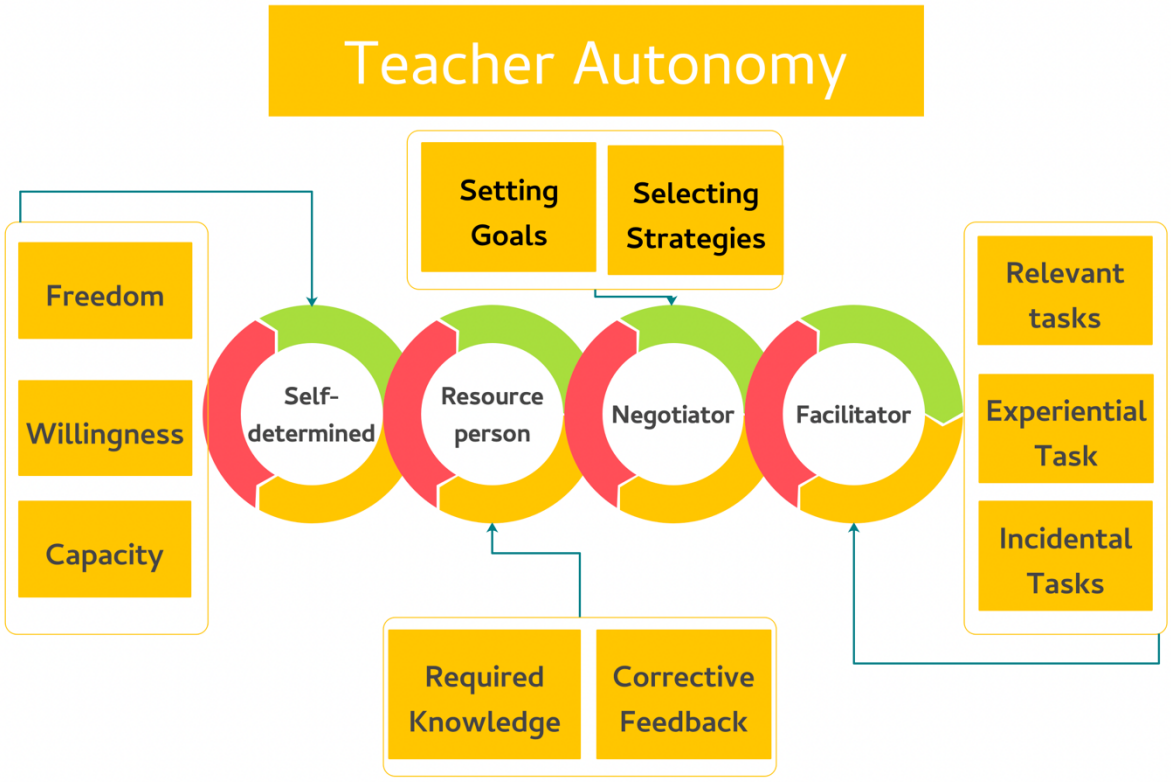


Figure 25. The TIC component: teacher autonomy.

5.9.1. Extending Interaction Beyond Instruction

Given the aforementioned analogy between teacher and learner autonomy, TIC does not aim to simply provide and organize resources for the growth of target language proficiency that can be autonomously exploited by learners. Instead, it seeks to help learners create and initiate individual directions to reach their goals using the resources offered and this is what is called 'proactive' autonomy by Littlewood (1999). This is one of the controversial points with regard to the long-run language development as "…very little research has focused

explicitly on the relation between learner autonomy, the processes of language learning and the development of proficiency in the target language." (Little, 2007, p.15).

So, *how can the teacher manage the talk and extend its scope beyond the learning environment*? *To be able to do so, how will teacher autonym operate in learners with different proficiency levels*? (Benson, 2010; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Little, 2007). Now that learning a language independently outside the class is the widely recognized idea (Benson, 2001), autonomy cannot be confined to the classroom environment and that is associated with the social learning spaces: *community of practice* (Balçıkanlı, 2017). Although autonomy can be teacher-initiated but not teacher-directed as learning takes place within social *the community of practice*, which can be either a physical or virtual one. It seems that such a serious issue as this could be tackled with the digital literacy component of TIC.

The subskills of this component allow learners to self-access to online language sources as the continuation of NI beyond instruction setting. As autonomy does not become a reality out of blue, the notion 'out of class learning' needs to be taken into consideration as the social dimension of autonomy. Teachers need to break the walls and get the learners out of the class because teaching hours are not sufficient to foster autonomy. Therefore, technological tools can compensate for the aspects that make the language learning process more like an ESL setting.

5.9.2. Do Not Teach But Make Them Think!

The objective of teacher autonomy as a component of TIC here is to help learners gain "… a capacity for thinking and acting independently that may occur in any kind of situation" (Littlewood, 1996, p.428). Thinking here refers to the *ability*, which requires having both knowledge and the necessary skills for acting independently. As for *acting*, it refers to *willingness*. These are two vital parts of autonomy and they are closely interrelated even interdependent. Littlewood (1996) further elaborates on developing practical strategies to

create self-directed learners who are competent as communicators to use language accurately, flexibly and appropriately in specific situations, both inside and outside the classroom where they create personal learning contexts through interacting. However, the important thing here is to guide learners so that they can navigate through boundless digital resources that accord well with their proficiency level.

The teacher not only initiates an activity and but also guides the learners to initiate their own activities independently as *digital native* and this guidance can be turned into a culture for the instruction setting (Barfield & Brown, 2007) where learners can construct their self-directed identity or *self-image* (Dörnyei, 2013). The root of this approach traces back to the great philosopher Socrates, who says "I cannot teach anybody anything. I can only make them think" and the great thinker Galileo, who says: "You cannot teach a man anything; you can only help him find it within himself". That is why, "…the goal of all education is to help people to think, act and learn independently in relevant areas of their lives" (Littlewood, 1996, p.434). However, despite too much interest in the concept of self-directed learning, you cannot see its reflection in the reality (Reinders, & Balçıkanlı, 2011).

Considering this, teacher autonomy is suggested to be another construct of TIC as it entails 'providing options and resources' and 'supporting learners' (Benson, 2012) beyond the formal learning settings through digital literacy. To see how far the learners have progressed, they can be 'encouraged to reflect'. That will show what language learning skills or strategies they have developed and the things they need to go through or have been through. What is more, it will provide information about the weak and strong points of the learners in the long run. Most importantly, through reflection, the learners can keep a record of what they have discovered so that they can complete the missing parts.

Reflection may contribute in enhancing the 'general level of self-esteem' in a range of contexts in your life (Benson, 2012). Based on their reflection, learners can make their own choices and set new goals creating their own identity while taking the teacher as a role model.

TIC may foster this endeavor but it cannot measure it since the measurement of autonomy is a complex issue. So, the autonomy should be fostered rather than measured (Benson, 2011). *A teacher employing different ways at regular intervals may get results on the efficiency of autonomy, but how can we interpret those results*? *The improvement means good, more improvement means better, but how far*? We cannot precisely discover or explain the improvement. However, we can pinpoint the learning speed in comparison of what the starting point was and what the current point is.

There are some ways; though, proposed for the measurement of autonomy, which are self-report, diaries, persuasive communication, self-evaluation, questionnaires (Dam, 2000). In order to get more accurate results, using more than one tool may be useful; however, the data obtained from self-description efforts may be deceitful. Benson (2010) states autonomy is not a testable construct and nor does it develop overnight (Navarro & Thornton, 2011). Planning, monitoring and evaluating one's own learning along with using authentic materials such as observation, diaries and journal entries indicates that autonomy should be considered to be a socio-cultural construct and it is not something that can be completely be observed within the classroom setting.

What is more, an individual may wear a mask of becoming autonomous for a specific period to attract the attention of others. Therefore, the notion of autonomy has to be extended outside formal learning setting where individuals should be able to think and act independently. However, having this ability does not guarantee that they are disposed to do so. Autonomy is not an innate *ability* but a *skill* that is acquired later as *knowledge* from an interaction with an educator within a context. Knowledge must pave the way to the *critical thinking*, which will allow learners to figure out how to take control over their learning.

Having skills and knowledge about critical thinking is not enough as you also need motivation / disposition and finally confidence. You may have the skill and knowledge while you are motivated but if you are not confident then you cannot be engaged actively in the

learning process. This shows that autonomy is a capacity that can be acquired later. In line with the basic tenant of the Constructivism, autonomy enables individuals to construct and reconstruct their own knowledge independently in the course of time. However, learners' style might conflict with teacher style (Rivers, 2001), so, *how can a teacher overcome this conflict while trying to direct a learner to become a self-directed and autonomous as an end state in the course of time*? In fact, rather than measuring autonomy, the developmental process of autonomy must be prioritized because autonomy is not a methodology like communicative approach as it cannot be structured and described easily even though there are some observable autonomous behaviors.

There are also some psychological factors influencing autonomy. What is more, it is not a fixed status either because an autonomous learner does not necessarily become autonomous in his real life. That is why, defining learner autonomy as 'taking charge and responsibility of one's own learning' is not sufficient to extend the scope of autonomy. Little's (1991) often-cited definition of learner autonomy as a *capacity* refers to a number of perspectives. In general, it refers to a learner's capacity for critical self-evaluation and self-determination, an ability to take control over and responsibility for her learning. This definition tells us that we need to consider the psychological dimensions of autonomy as well as the performance or practice side of it. Combination of theory and practice must take place to extend the scope of autonomy. Taking control over one's learning, that is, psychological dimension of autonomy, requires self-regulation, which is its performance or practice dimension (Schwienhorst, 2003). In fact, the psychological dimension refers to the awareness of the learning process rather than to a particular mode of learning (Wenden, 1998).

The following figure shows the basic four components of TIC and their constructs. In analogy to a web, it can be said the components are interdependent and intertwined supporting the overall language development. They might be interrelated but that does not mean one can predict another. For example, extra linguistic needs cannot predict linguistic

or paralinguistic ones. That is, treating intonation or stress deficiencies of a learner does not necessarily ameliorate the difficulties he has interpreting coherence or cohesion cues and therefore he needs receiving treatment. Each component can be utilized simultaneously or individually based on the treatment that surfaces during the interaction.

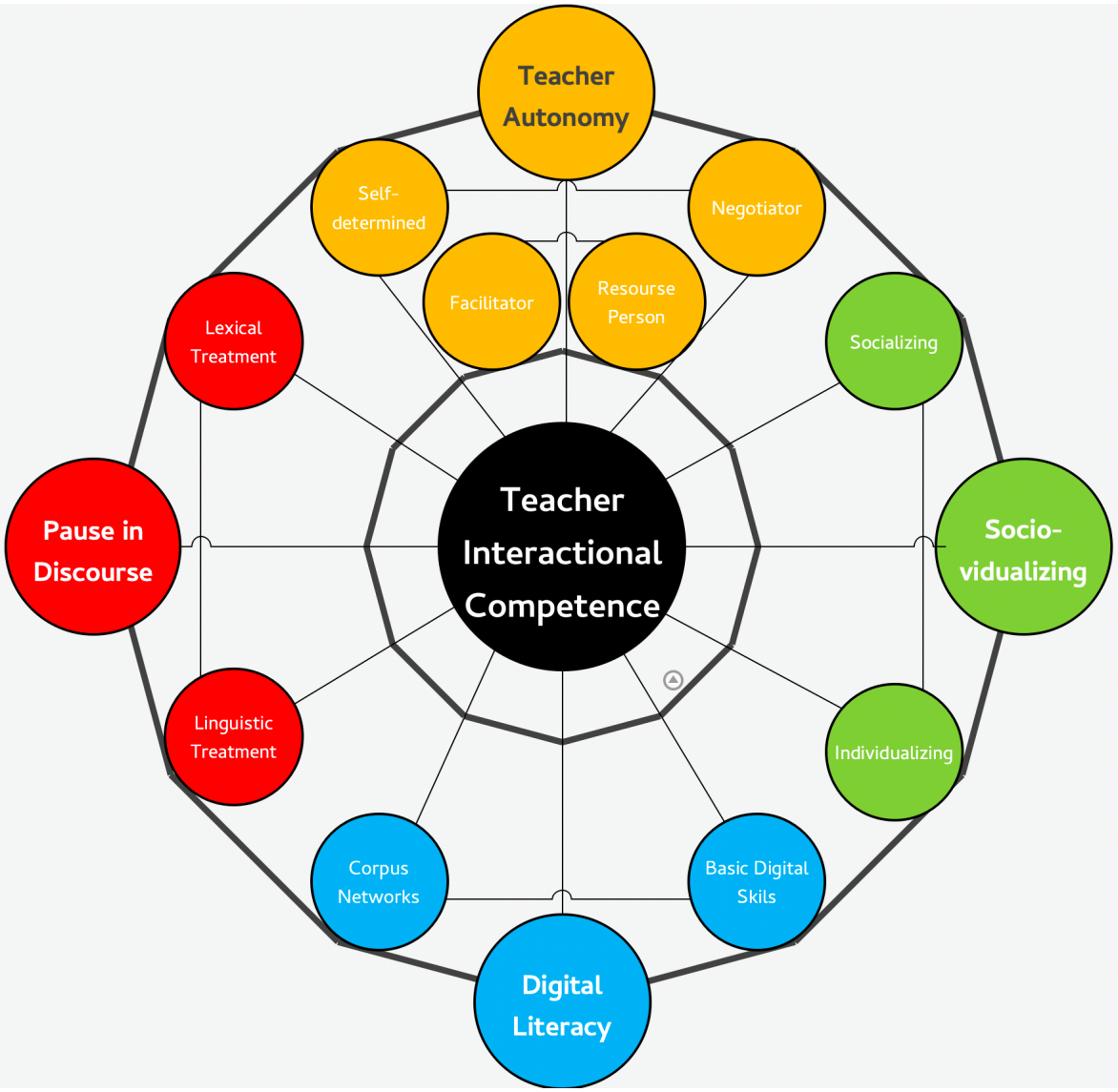


Figure 26. The TIC framework, its main components and constructs.

The figure below comprehensively shows subconstructs of each main component of the TIC framework.

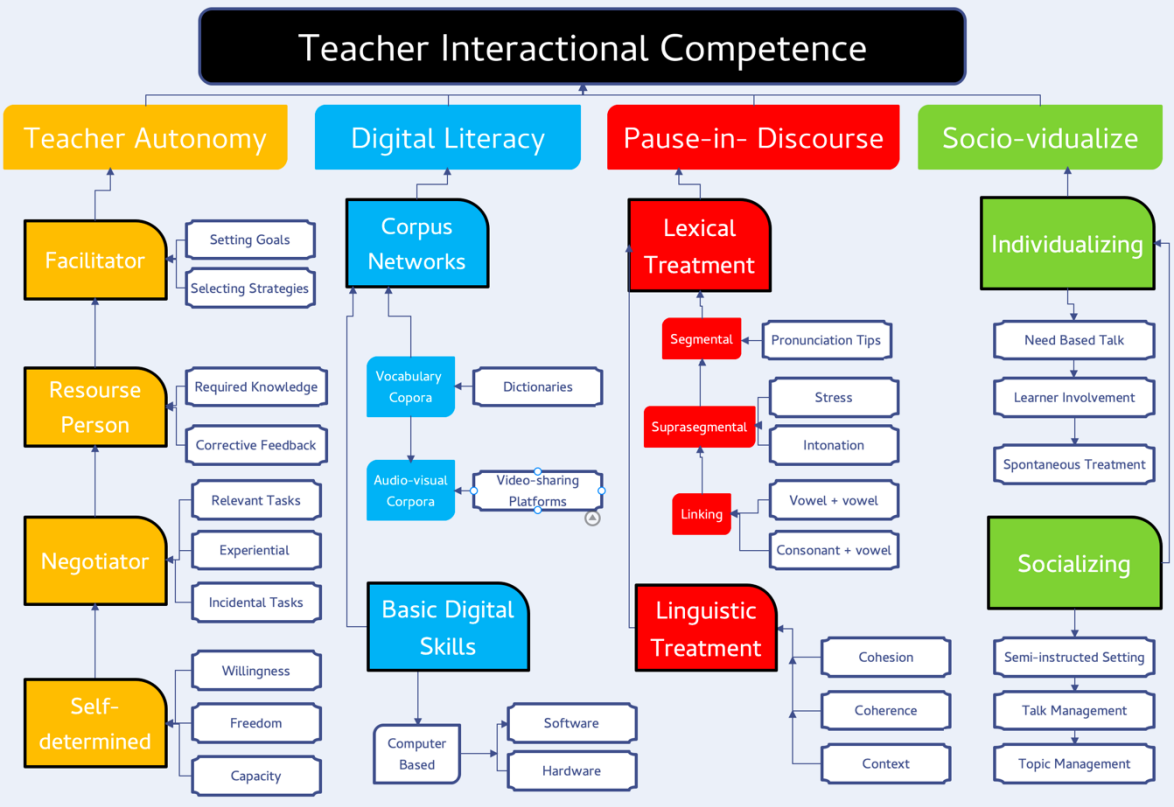


Figure 27. The subconstructs of TIC framework.

5.10. Conclusion

To summarize this section, the present study proposes a brand-new framework for managing the talk through TIC within and beyond semi-formal settings. The framework is four dimensional as it consists of four macro strategies, the boundaries of which are blurred since their micro strategies and characteristics can overlap. They are interwoven and interdependent with each influencing the other. It is not 'one-size-fits-all' framework which thereby may come up with context-specific and need-oriented outcomes. These four macro strategies are thought to act as principles that guide the micro-strategies. Two of them, *digital literacy and teacher autonomy*, can be traced back to theoretical and experiential notions of available within the literature bulk of L2 acquisition. As for the other two, *socio-vidualize and pause-in-discourse*, are novel concepts whose micro-strategies ; nevertheless, are rooted in the L2 research.

The suggested framework should not be regarded as an alternative to any other framework nor should it be considered a method; however, it can be solely treated as a guideline that helps ameliorate L2 teaching and learning process for language teachers, student-language teachers and teacher educators. It is not driven and therefore not restricted by a particular theory, though it can be fed by assumptions of several distinct theories grounded in classroom-oriented discourse research. In other words, the proposed pedagogic framework is designed by well-established perspectives of classroom discourse, classroom experimentation and L2 applications already available in classroom research findings. It should, however, be noted that their existence does not constrain the construction of a new framework.

The umbrella concept is the macro-strategy 'Facilitating Negotiated Interaction' (FNI) within the pedagogical framework proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003). TIC is a sub-construct of FNI and this sub-macro strategy refers to the teacher's ability to manage the teaching process in general and the classroom discourse in particular in a semi-instructed

and natural-like language learning space without predetermined materials or plans. The notion ‘socio-vidualizing’ comes next as a micro strategy and it stands for transforming the formal learning setting into a ‘social learning space’ where spontaneous ‘individual needs’ are met through ‘talk management’ and ‘topicalization’. It aims to involve language learners so that they can tackle the interactional limitations posed by ‘prepackaged’ language learning practice.

PID is another micro strategy for the treatment of issues learners with different L1 background and L2 proficiency levels encounter incidentally. To facilitate the employment of the PID strategy, the notion ‘digital literacy’ plays a significant role in contextualizing what is dwelled on throughout PID. The notion ‘teacher autonomy’ is the last micro strategy of TIC.

5.11. Implications

Anyone who is into teacher training, second language acquisition, teaching and learning a foreign language has always been curious about what is really going on in the classroom. This endeavor of curiosity and exploration has made CIC the center of attraction in language education (Daşkın, 2015; Girgin & Brandt, 2020; Moorhouse et al., 2021; Park, 2017; Seedhouse, 2008; Sert, 2015; Supakorn, 2020; Walsh, 2021; Walsh, 2006; Walsh, 2011; Walsh, 2014; Walsh & Mann, 2015). It is the teachers who are generally tasked with responsibility of 'mediating and assisting learning' with the help of interaction (Walsh, 2016). Furthermore, teachers are expected to be reflective, creative, flexible and strategic thinkers and practitioners in order that they can deal with unplanned needs of their learners and elf-evaluate their own teaching acts and theorize from them; accordingly, they transform, reshape, maximize and extend learning opportunities beyond formal learning environment (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

In line with these approaches, the findings of this study gives insights into converting fully instructed language classrooms into social learning space where the teachers manage the classroom discourse through a framework taking into account spontaneous learner-needs. The adopted framework suggested by this study might be taken as a model and the strategies employed can be adapted, transformed or extended depending on the context. The framework can be of immense use for autonomous learners, student-language teachers, teachers in the community of practice as it provides a roadmap whereby they can practice and test their theories and theorize from they have practiced.

Theoretical principles and classroom techniques employed within the walls of language classrooms restrict language teachers and learners because learner needs, expectations, attitudes and learning styles are too many to count. Such a flexible and guiding framework could handle unpredicted and spontaneous issues over the course of teaching and learning with a view to allowing language teachers to think strategically and expand on their

knowledge and skills. The suggested framework encourages teachers, teacher educators, and student-teachers not to be stuck in predetermined language materials or plans. Instead, it urges them to be creative, flexible and transformative and autonomous practitioners who treat any misconduct of classroom communication.

This study also has contributions to the earlier literature regarding the vital role that CIC plays in maximizing and utilizing learning opportunities and in managing the teaching acts and mediating the learning acts (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Moskowitz, 1976; Seedhouse & Jenks, 2015; Thornbury, 1996; Walsh, 2006). TIC allows language teachers to understand what is going on in the classroom and to manage the talk in it. It is therefore of high importance to raise awareness about the TIC and its interdependent components. The data obtained from the study reveals that talk management is caught up in unexpected deficiencies of learners with different backgrounds, which indicates that teachers are required to expect the unexpected; accordingly, they should maximize as many learning opportunities for individual needs as possible within and beyond the walls of the formal learning setting. This can be achieved by urging learners to become autonomous in forming their own learning space free from pre-packaged unauthentic language materials.

The macro strategy 'facilitating negotiated interaction' proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003) can encompass countless frameworks similar to the proposed one in this study for the purpose of professional development of language teachers in service, teacher educators and student-teachers and language learners. The professional development particularly entails managing the classroom discourse and diversifying and deploying various interactional resources for learners with different language proficiency levels.

The insights gained from the present study can also contribute to the understanding of the nexus between language pedagogy and language acquisition on the grounds that it was carried out in an EFL context with the aim of primarily exploring the processes teachers and L2 learners undergo. The obtained insights can make great contributions to the main concern

of debates in the field of teacher education among classroom researchers, SLA researchers, teachers, and teacher educators: 'bridging the gap between theory and practice' (Ellis, 2010). For instance; the framework proposed by the current study may help both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers to act autonomously and take immediate actions for unexpected learning and teaching problems.

The obsolete teacher education models based on the traditional perspectives cannot establish their own post-method pedagogy. To get rid of this barrier, transformative, reflective and flexible macro-strategic frameworks outlined by the study and by Kumaravadivelu (2003) can be the subject of more scientific inquiries. The implications suggested by the study call for more studies on creating 'interactional space for learning' by the joint involvement of teachers and learners who 'co-construct meaning' stress-freely (Walsh & Li, 2013) because the management of the talk by teachers and learner involvement is closely attributed to effectively maximizing learning opportunities (Walsh & Li, 2013).

The call by Walsh (2014) for reconceptualization of the CIC requires more attention from various research based on 'context-specific post method pedagogy' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) due to the striking fact that the ways to manage the classroom discourse can dramatically vary across different environments. Although administering CA-driven studies on CIC can be demanding and excruciating, it is rather convenient to employ some more feasible and operable strategies such as the ones proposed by Walsh (2014) and Kumaravadivelu (2003): frameworks like SETT without transcribing or self-observing, self-analyzing and self-evaluating 10-15-minute snapshot recordings through some devices, respectively. Such strategy as 'stimulated recall procedures' proposed by Walsh (2014) should be employed more frequently by CA-SLA driven studies as they are faster, insider-relevant and more easily applicable. This sort of strategy is carried through cross-check, double check and repeated playback by the teacher together with a colleague simultaneously.

Ghafarpour (2017) investigated the skills and knowledge of language teachers to self-observe, self-analyze and self-evaluate the classroom talk through 12 hours of tape recording and a teacher's dairy. Although her findings acknowledge that the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk framework proposed by Walsh (2006) is of use in developing critical reflective practice, they also urges that more studies should look out for context-specific instructional factors that contribute to the continued professional development of in-service teachers, pre-service teachers and teacher-educators. This is highly important in that promoting reflectivity and critical thinking may not work unless language learning environment is compatible with learner needs and it is context sensitive.

Therefore, creating a semi-instructed space such as ENIC proposed by the present study accounts for socio-contextual and cultural perspectives, which might maximize learning opportunities for language learners and TIC awareness of language teachers. In a similar vein, Gönen & Aşık (2016) used the framework SETT to promote reflective and critical thinking of pre-service English language teachers and their findings have important implications in terms of using self-evaluation to raise reflectivity awareness of language teachers. IMDAT is such a framework developed by Sert (2015) and has recently been integrated into local teacher training programs. It consists of five strategies:

1. (I)ntroducing CIC
2. (M)icro-teaching
3. (D)ialogic reflection
4. (A)ctual teaching
5. (T)eacher collaboration and critical reflection

Another framework for teacher training programs is SWEAR, devised by Waring (2021). It basically argues that classroom interaction should be one of the basic tenants of the agenda of teacher education. The framework highlights that the teacher talk should manage the classroom interaction along with offsetting the learner involvement and creating a space for

participation. It aims to raise teachers' awareness of probable issues that they may encounter over the course of classroom talk and the ways to sort out those interruptive barriers. It is composed of five stages:

1. (S)ituating a problem
2. (W)orking with a classroom recording
3. (E)xpanding discussions
4. (A)rticulating strategies
5. (R)ecording and repeating

One of the earliest frameworks that is based on experiential teacher reflections is the SETT framework devised by Walsh (2006). It is made up of four modes that urges teachers to self-reflect on their classroom practices:

1. Managerial mode
2. Materials mode
3. Skills and system mode
4. Classroom context mode

He labels each stage of a lesson as a mode with a set of *interactional features* such as *referential questions* which have some pedagogical aims like *eliciting unknown information*. In the managerial mode, the learning process is managed and activities are set up. As for the second mode, various materials such as text, audio or video recording are employed. The management of learning process and successfully setting up relevant activities allows teachers to focus on specific language items, vocabulary and particular skills in the third mode. In the final mode, classroom context mode, learners are ready to state their opinions as a response to referential questions (ibid.)

There is no doubt the aforementioned frameworks (IMDAT, SWEAR & SETT) foster language teachers' awareness through critical reflective practices and allow them to spot interruptive, obstructive and problematic practices apart from constructive ones. They have

been adopted to train L2 teachers in various local contexts (Aşık & Kuru Gönen, 2016; Coyle et al., 2010; Ghafarpour, 2017; Howard, 2010; Sert, 2015; Skinner, 2012; Ünal, Bozbıyık & Acar, 2018; Yang, 2014). Raising teachers' awareness is one point that they all share in common since they mostly endeavor to raise teachers' awareness of CIC based on their stimulated accounts of their previous experiences and that is conducted through dialogic reflection or written summaries of reflection.

However, unlike these frameworks, the framework presented by the current study guides L2 teachers to treat obstructive practices and make use of constructive ones in action rather than following the action. Therefore, the present study has similar practical and wider implications for pre-service and in-service teacher training programs such as TEFL, ELT, TESOL, CELTA and DELTA. On the other hand, Mann & Walsh (2013) express their concern that reflective practice on CIC is taken for granted as if it worked by all means. However, it is viewed and described ambiguously in language teaching context, thus requiring a data-led approach that operationalizes it systematically; or else, practitioners may not make use of it as expected. As it is shaped by institutional and context-specific factors, it needs more concrete evidence regarding the effective reflectivity. This can be achieved through *actual dialogic reflection, written summaries of reflection after the action and reflection and spontaneous treatment in action.*

As presented above, the aforesaid frameworks help language teachers become aware of CIC so that they can create collaborative learning classrooms where learners are involved more in classroom interaction and teachers balance the talk management through effective elicitation. What is more, they enable teachers to become reflective practitioners through dialogic and written feedback sessions and to become transformative intellectuals that critically theorize from their reflections. However, they are restricted to be implemented within particular periods and sessions. That is why, Sert (2019) calls for longitudinal studies to be implemented with the aim of tracing the perpetual professional development of

reflective and collaborative teachers who create space for learner involvement. Nevertheless, this bears a limitation in terms of tracking and documenting the continued professional development of language teachers who are expected to be equipped with CIC since learner needs and teaching contexts are constantly changing.

The brand-new blended concept, *socio-vidualize*, proposed by the present study implicates the identification of individual needs on the spot and re-conceptualizing traditional fully-instructed language learning classrooms. Due the nature of the frameworks, they are employed by classroom discourse studies mostly carried out in a formal classroom at public or private schools / universities. However, the *socio-vidualize* notion offers a semi-instructed, social and natural-like learning setting in which learners are guided and scaffolded free from a completely pre-determined syllabus. Such a context is provided by ENIC which involves the students in a collaborative interaction according to context-specific and learner-oriented needs.

A common feature shared by such frameworks as IMDAT and SWEAR is the endeavor to raise awareness of L2 CIC through video-enhanced technology whereby researchers edits and tags videos recordings of the classroom discourse. They can be regarded as micro-analytic reflective teacher education frameworks since they incorporate observation and feedback tools like stimulated recalls, dialogic reflective feedback sessions and reflective writing summaries into classroom talk. Nevertheless, these endeavors generally ends up with textual or oral accounts of what happened previously. The striking challenge is that these frameworks use technology to assist learning about CIC following the actual context so that they can be aware of and use it in the subsequent contexts.

Whereas the TIC framework proposed by the present study sees technology and digital literacy skills as an integral component with the aid of which language teachers manage the talk and engage learners. However, it should be noted that this component can work best when the L2 context is appropriately digitalized. The component requires a constant access

to the internet and a laptop connected to an external screen which mirrors what you type and display. It allows language teachers to extend the scope of TIC and ameliorates the teaching process. Most importantly, this component pulls down the walls of formal instructional setting.

The *digital literacy* component of the framework seeks to contextualize the talk by providing visual, aural and textual aid within the actual context of the ongoing talk. This is done through online video corpora and dictionaries. This is a highly practical application that integrates basic digital literacy skills into L2 teaching and learning since it enables both teachers and learners to self-access without time and place restriction. Incorporating technologies into teacher education programs with the aim of enhancing teacher professional development has been recommended by numerous studies (Çelik, Baran, & Sert, 2018; Koehler, Mishra, Hershey, & Peruski, 2004). Coyle, Yanez & Verdu (2010) indicate that teacher education programs should dwell on enhancing digital literacy skills of student-teachers in addition to their classroom interactional competence. The findings of this study is in line with the macro strategy 'digital literacy' of the proposed framework by the present study.

In rapport with these recommendations, the present TIC framework implicates using technology in interaction and in action; nonetheless, although it outlines step by step how to employ it, it does not specify how to urge teachers to use it. To that end, Sert's IMDAT can be employed to raise awareness of development of L2 Classroom Interactional Competence of teachers thereby making teachers aware of the digital literacy component of TIC. IMDAT seeks to make teachers familiar with the notion CIC through hands-on sessions at the initial phase. The trainees are required to provide written self-reflection. This is followed by a micro teaching session either observed by a trainer or video-recorded. The third stage entails dialogic feedback between the trainer and the trainee and self-reflection by the trainee. In

the fourth stage, another micro-teaching session is conducted and observed by a peer this time. The final stage ends with collaborative peer-feedback.

Raising awareness of TIC through critical self-reflection for the purpose of developing CIC remains incomplete and theoretical unless any development is tracked and documented in practice. To bridge the gap between theory and practice as to CIC awareness and professional development, Perkins (2018) designed a practical two-hour-workshop and recommends improving the sample one and conduct similar ones more frequently. Sert (2019) also indicates that it is necessary to bridge between the findings from research on classroom interaction and what teachers and teacher educators actually do. Making practitioners aware of CIC is a must but this endeavor is ineffective if they are not equipped with necessary to tools to make use of CIC in practice. Most importantly, to document whether the gap between theory and practice is bridged, we need to document the professional development of the practitioners in the course of time.

The IRF structure observed in the data mostly contained either display questions or referential questions and they constituted a big part of the talk between the learners and teachers. This finding is in line with the research regarding the questions employed in classrooms as they suggest that almost half of the classroom discourse consists of questions (Chaudron 1988; Cook 2008). That is why, language teachers' questioning techniques have been the main focus of the research on classroom interaction (Thompson, 1997; Tsui 1995). Referential questions are believed to be more valuable to promoting the talk since they push learners to be involved in the interaction with 'a greater effort and depth of processing' (Thornbury, 1996, p. 281).

Unlike display questions, they cognitively exert a good deal of energy eliciting new information that is unknown to the other interlocutors because they make learners strive for giving opinion on new topics or clarifying and explaining the given one (Tsui, 1995). Nevertheless, after some point referential questions can become routinized when used too

much in an IFR structure. It would not be fair to claim the IRF structure using display or referential questions are totally ineffective but rather it can be suggested that they can be effectively used in accordance with the pedagogical purpose of the teacher and learner level.

In other words, it cannot be argued that display questions are totally useless even though the answers to this kind of questions are known to other participants. To illustrate, trying to elicit information and forcing beginner learners or even some pre- / intermediate learners who are not good at constructing basic sentences in the target language will be pointless. It will do more harm than good (Seedhouse, 1996; Walsh, 2006). That is why, Walsh's framework employ referential questions in the final phase 'the classroom context mode'. Based on the obtained data, it is evident that the nature of the talk is dynamic rather than being static. In order to construct the talk and push it forward, the type of the questions employed can change in an alignment with the pedagogical goal.

As explained above in the data analysis chapter, using just referential questions to for the sake of meaningful exchanges does not save the talk from becoming dull and ordinary after some point and they fail to make the talk go further. The findings implicate that teachers are expected to pause and treat the context-specific and spontaneous needs of learners. Pausing the discourse should not discourage teachers from managing the talk. Instead, they should diversify questions, adjacency pairs and three-parts together with effective topicalization.

The 'I' action in a typical IRF sequence can be in the form of a display or referential question, which will shape 'R' action in turn and the feedback type and its impact, as a result. Effective and incentive feedback can promote learner involvement, hereby helping the teacher modify and manage the talk. The PID component of the TIC framework is closely related to teachers' 'F' action since PID tailors the talk to the spontaneous responses. Giving feedback entails altering and adding to the talk and this is the point where learners learn more (Cullen, 2002; Long & Sato, 1983; Willis,1992). Even though the talk is paused, it is not disrupted. Rather,

it diversifies and enriches sources for topicalization as teachers can reformulate the given response or question or extend on the answer and correct it (Walsh, 2006).

Providing corrective feedback is an essential part of PID, which means that using other type of feedbacks like recasting or request for clarification does not completely fulfill the aim of PID because paraphrasing may not make the corrected part salient to learners (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Pica, 1988) and it is time-consuming as it can be puzzling. What is more, the treatment through PID is spontaneous, need-based, contextualized and based on clear signals. Being as such, it saves time given the time restriction in language classes. Therefore, implicit corrective feedback is not preferred by PID as it extends the think-time, which might distort the flow of the negotiated talk.

Providing explicit corrective feedback makes the self-directed teacher a resource person and doing so through digital literacy skills extend the feedback session beyond the interaction setting as learners may take the teacher as a model utilizing the technological tools wherever they have access to them. It should be noted that PID does not suggest teachers should strictly employ explicit corrective feedback. Rather, other treatment strategies also can be pedagogically implemented based on the teacher's agenda (Kasper, 1986; Walsh, 2006).

The research on CIC focused on providing learning opportunities for learners through meaning based social practices. Both teachers and learners have been seen as competent interlocutors who make use of classroom interaction effectively (Hall et al., 2011; Koshik, 2002; Kramsch, 1986; Mori, 2002; Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2013) and who are considered to have a role in co-constructing meaningful interaction (Walsh & Li, 2013). Although the basic characteristics of classroom interactional competence are clearly defined, still there is a need for more guidelines for teachers about how to interactively manage the classroom discourse and for learners to actively be involved in the classroom interaction (Tsui, 1996; Walsh & Li, 2016).

In line with Walsh's (2013) call to integrate CIC into teacher education programs, this study also implicates that more workshops, frameworks and similar tools should be developed and utilized so that candidate teachers and in-service teachers can become reflective practitioners who are aware of the value of the interdependency link between classroom interaction and learning opportunities. To raise awareness of CIC and promote the professional development of teachers, one of the common strategies employed by most research on classroom interaction has been to transcribe a video or audio recording (Cullen 1998; Nunan, 1987; Thornbury, 1996; Tsui, 1996).

As an alternative to the challenging transcription task, Walsh, (2014) proposes a framework (SETT) for teachers to self-observe, self-analyze and self-evaluate their micro-teaching experiences as insiders. He also offers 10-15-minute snapshot recordings extracted from different parts of a serious of a lesson at different classes and different times paired with 'stimulated recall procedures" where an outsider, a colleague, comments on and evaluate the recorded micro-teaching. The distinguishing feature of Walsh's framework from others is that he points out that the context plays a critical role in classroom interaction. On the other hand, Seedhouse (1996) highlights that although a classroom has its own context within its own term, it cannot match a natural social context.

However, the social constructivist theories sees classroom context as a social environment in which teachers and learners manage and reconstruct the talk that can be compared to the natural interaction beyond the classroom walls (Allwright, 1984; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Nunan, 1987). Accordingly, the present study call for many more studies, using CA lens, should focus on and draw attention to more concrete evidence-based and data-driven devices and frameworks that create reflective practitioners and strategic thinkers with professional self-image and identity (Sutherland, Howard & et al., 2010).

The current study offers stripping TIC and SIC out of CIC and treat them separately although they are interdependent and intertwined. The aforementioned frameworks raise both TIC and SIC awareness and give insight into how to promote collaborative classroom discourse. In a micro-analytic study examining extended student talk promoted by one EFL teacher, Gümüşok & Balikçi (2020) suggest that practitioners should promote extended student talk and maximize and facilitate learning opportunities in order to contribute to studies concerning EFL classroom discourse.

With a view to promoting pedagogical awareness and situated classroom practices of language teachers, Nanni, Hooper & Hale (2018) devised a framework for teachers to follow based on their own classroom CA action research from Japan, Thailand and the U.S. This study, accordingly, calls for a framework that can make CIC an integral part of teacher education programs for the professional development of language teachers through reflection and dialogic interaction.

The TIC framework proposed by the present study is composed of four macro strategies that have ten micro-strategies with twenty-eight tasks in total. TIC is projected as a sub-construct of the macro-strategy of 'facilitated negotiated interaction' of the pedagogic wheel by Kumaravadivelu (2003). However, it should be noted that there could be unknown, unexplored or alternative context-specific strategies and tasks. The framework does not proclaim that it is 'one-size-fits-all'; nevertheless, it might be taken as a model or starting point by other studies with the aim of documenting and mapping the notion TIC through the teacher's talk and topic management. Accordingly, the framework does not seek to propose new L2 learning hypotheses as it is formed relying on data-driven and theory-neutral CA; however, it can be affiliated with various L2 theories.

The brand-new notion PID offered by this study may be of high use for newly qualified language teachers who has trouble managing the classroom discourse. The new comers can be trained and inducted into professional teacher talk management by video recording,

observing and analyzing the incidents where the experienced teacher pauses the talk and contextualize linguistic or lexical items based on spontaneous needs of learners during the interaction. Without delving into complex and subtle details, teachers can explicitly treat these items because of their incorrect use or the learners' lack of knowledge of their usage. This approach is in rapport with the call by Seedhouse (2008) for an induction tool for novice teacher trainees that consists of fine-grained conversation analysis of professional discourse through videos or observation.

It is also in line with the call by Sert (2019) for fine-tuned conversation analysis of classroom interaction to maximize learning opportunities, which can facilitate the talk management of language teachers tasked with simultaneous handling of multiple actions such as correcting linguistic mistakes and giving feedback. They are supposed to instantly decide, pause and carry out these conducts mostly within the blink of an eye. To be aware of the significance of the talk management can help enhance professional development of language teachers and contribute in creating a 'technology-enhanced, reflective, micro-analytic teacher education framework' (p.216).

The present study's research context is a semi-instructed interaction club and considers the classroom interaction a semi-authentic talk with its own particular features. Therefore, the classroom discourse should be viewed as a natural talk that aligns with a variety of pedagogical goal of teachers within a range of context (Seedhouse, 1996; Walsh, 2002). Some classroom contexts might be characterized with fixed instructions, routine and ordinary activities; as a matter of fact, most of them can be shaped by location-specific social and political factors and even a series of moments special to those contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Macedo, 1994; Pennycook, 1989; Walsh; 2006). This is in rapport with the 'particularity' parameter of Kumaravadivelu's (2003) 'post method pedagogy'.

The *socio-vidualize* component of TIC framework proposed by the present study stems from this approach in addition to being grounded in the personal insights obtained from

classroom-oriented research in the community of practice. Individual learner-needs are endless and they are identified in numerous different classroom context that may be regarded as social settings. The notion suggested by this term implicates adjusting fully-instructed language learning classrooms to social and individuals needs of both teachers and learners. It aims to make use of as many opportunities as possible through talk management of incidental and experiential topics rather than pre-selected linguistic forms or functions / notions. The idea behind the brand-new term *socio-vidualize* is to create an open-ended language learning context in which non-linear meaningful interactional activities are frequently employed so that learners can have many opportunities to comprehend the spoken language and utter what they intend to convey and perform what is required by the other interlocutors.

Figuring out and describing how learners learn and how teachers teach in various L2 classroom contexts through different multimodal resources has been the focus of many studies on classroom discourse. These studies provide useful tips for professional development of language teachers but still it seems that we are to bridge the gap between what have been theorized and what must be practiced. One of the main reasons is that academics investigate, obtain empirical findings and publish them; nonetheless, in service teachers in the community of practice are not into reading the papers because either they are tasked with many things or because they have no idea how to reach and follow them (Borg 2009; Thornbury, 2017). They generally resort to experiential and self-discovery theories concerning the management of the classroom interaction (Walsh, 2013). To bridge this gap and mediate between theory and practice, both researchers and teachers must collaborate. The former must guide the latter by providing the implications of their studies that are readable, attractive and readily applicable (Thornbury, 2017).

Many researchers have got the bottom of the notion *classroom management* whereas the role of *classroom interaction* in the management of overall classroom events, how it can be developed and how it can influence learning has been downplayed (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). What is more, most pre-service or in-service teacher training programs (e.g. DELTA & Trinity DipTESOL) lacks a section devoted to classroom discourse and some language teaching methods expects language teachers speak less or modify their talk to the level of learners (Cullen, 1998; Thornbury & Watkins 2007; Walsh, 2013).

Even though these programs may not be able for now to include a specific section on 'classroom interaction', the framework suggested by this study along with other precedent ones (IMDAT, SWEAR, SETT etc.) can bridge this gap as they can be readily exploited by teacher educators independently. These frameworks might orient teacher training in TEFL programs towards post-method pedagogy because they are context-specific and need-based frameworks that aim to help in service and preservice language teachers become reflective, critical and transformative intellectuals. These frameworks beside the macro-strategic one suggested by (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) should be the focus of more scientific inquiries and they should be extended or modified accordingly. Using such frameworks, language teacher educators can help student-teachers become aware of the importance of classroom interaction, which will enable them to acquire classroom interactional competence (Walsh, 2006).

The basic idea behind the notion CIC is to 'mediate and assist learning' which places classroom discourse at the heart of maximizing learning opportunities that are specific to a particular classroom mode and learners (Walsh, 2013). Gaining CIC is highly critical for professional developmental of language teachers because they can align the classroom interaction with their pedagogical goals. This is the first feature of CIC according to Walsh (2006). A teacher must know how to manage and align his talk with the dynamic nature of classroom event. A teacher who asks referential questions to beginner learners on a subject

that requires display questions will fail to make use of CIC. This is in line with the PID component of the framework suggested by the present study, which basically expects teachers to stop the talk to align spontaneous learners needs with what they aim to achieve. However, what makes PID eminent is its microscopic treatment for lexical and grammatical items.

The second feature of CIC is to create a space for learning where learners can be readily involved in classroom discourse (Walsh, 2006). This can entail the teacher's extending wait-time for learners to take turns and respond. It might also entail decreasing teacher-echo by not repeating what is previously uttered. For instance, the teacher pauses the talk and extends the wait-time so that learners can formulate their response to referential questions asked by the teacher. Too much teacher-echo can halt the ongoing interaction. A teacher that fails to create a learning space for learners as described above fails to have CIC. The *socio-vidualize* component of our framework is somewhat related to this characteristic of CIC since it aims to form a semi-instructed environment in which learners are encouraged to participate in the talk by meeting their on-the-spot needs.

Along with aligning the talk with pedagogical goals and making room for learning opportunities, CIC requires shaping and transforming what learners produce in the form of feedback (ibid). This is the third feature of CIC and it is concerned with 'teacher autonomy' component of the suggested framework because the teacher serves as a self-directed resource person. To illustrate, the teacher can seek clarification in the event of ambiguity and scaffolds learners when they need help. She can also model them and repair broken language use so that they can participate in the interaction and convey their message. This allows learners to gain a capacity for critical self-evaluation and self-determination, which is what Little (1991) describes as the ability to take control over and responsibility for learning. This somehow bridges the gap between the psychological dimension and performance dimension of autonomy as it results in 'self-regulation' (Schwienhorst, 2003).

5.12. Limitations

The number of the participants in the study was limited to three in-service teachers and four adult learners. The low number of participants might raise some concern regarding the external validity of CA findings. However, given the nature CA, it is hardly feasible to analyze the conversation of the participants that are many in number. Therefore, most eminent studies on classroom discourse collected data from a limited number of participants. CA has the nature of particularity which is restricted to a particular discourse conducted by particular interactants within a particular context (Hellermann, 2009; Mehan, 1979; Seedhouse, 2004). This feature of particularity narrows down the number of participants to the limits of the feasibility of a naturally occurring conversation.

The brand-new framework suggested by the present study is data-driven, experience-based and theory-and-method-neutral. In other words, it is grounded in the insights obtained from classroom-oriented research. This naturally entails some amount of individual subjectivity. However, due to the particularity nature of CA, the present study is in rapport with action research. That is why, the framework can be regarded as an initial and raw attempt which can be improved by other 'research cycle' (Thornbury 2017). What is more, it may inform the subsequent studies after being piloted as a part of workshops conducted by teacher educators for in-service and pre-service language teachers.

The basic sources of CA is the audio or video recordings of naturally occurring talk-in-interaction, which can be seen as a limitation to this study because it does not use other common data sources in the social science. As mentioned above, CA is data-driven and theory-neutral and it therefore cannot be preconceived and manipulated by individualistic perspectives of researchers (ten Have, 2007) but rather emic perspectives (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Peräkylä, 2004).

Furthermore, investigating CIC through the talk management of teachers using IRF sequence; that is, through referential and display questions along with spontaneous topicalizations is achieved only through participant-relevant perspectives. The researcher cannot predetermine and manipulate data resources as she may do while using other common data sources. For instance, in an interview, interviewees can give observational information unknown to and unseen by the researcher; moreover, field notes and examples given intuitively by the researchers are not complete and authentic (ten Have, 2007). Unlike CA, other data resources are generally based on the comparison of pre-determined interactional skills.

What makes CA more appealing is its detailed system of transcription for analyzing the sequential, temporal, nonverbal conduct in talk-in-interaction through its visual or audio recording. Data-driven observations shape the research context, which makes it safe from unexpected events. The present study's research context is a semi-instructed interaction club which is different from fully-instructed classrooms. Hence, it can be claimed that its findings may not be generalized due to the particularity of the context. However, due to its nature, CA has a neutral stance when it comes to theorizing about L2 learning and teaching even though its findings can be used to better understand the process.

For the sake of providing reader-friendly transcription, some transcription conventions showing gestures were excluded. However, some pictures of the participants and the natural environment where the ENIC club was held were provided to show the authenticity of the interaction and the context. The study basically dwelled on investigating the talk management of the teachers, which was mainly based on employing various types of questions and topicalization. That is why, the main focus was on the dialogic interaction rather than the body language of the participants.

5.13. Suggestions for Further Studies

There have been numerous studies on the classroom interactional competence of student-teachers, preservice teachers within a specific context and in-service teachers within the formal walls of language teaching and learning. However, the present study, to the best knowledge of the researcher, is the first to explore how the interactional competence of teachers of *adult L2 learners* unfolds through the lens of CA in a semi-instructed, social and natural-like learning setting. This may suggest that CA-SLA related studies be expanded to different angles, to more cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies. For instance, there should be studies focusing on the transfer of L1 interactional practices to L2 talk and code-switching in authentic environments (Golato, 2002; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2002).

What is more, the ENIC club, which is a semi-instructional language learning environment arranged specifically for the present study with adult beginner learners, can be organized with different learners with various age groups and different levels of language proficiency. A comparison can be made to track down how the talk management of these different groups is accomplished and if there are any differences in the development of interactional resources employed by the same teacher for different groups.

What is more, based on the teaching experience, the interactional competence of rookie teachers and experienced teachers can be analyzed to explore if there is any difference in terms of teacher interactional practices. In future investigations, the viability of the suggested framework can be tested to see if it has an effect on the TIC of different teachers in different formal language teaching contexts: primary, secondary and tertiary.

On the other hand, it can be argued that excluding the modalities while analyzing the extracts of the talk could be problematic since this kind of analysis might not give you the whole picture the ongoing conversation through mere transcriptions (Sert, 2015). In order to provide more convincing data, further similar studies to the current one should be carried out to enjoy multimodal and semiotic data (Mondada, 2007).

It is also suggested that future studies should investigate the proposed TIC framework taking each of its four main components as a focal point. By doing so, the viability of each component could be tested separately. This might contribute to the efforts of finding out the missing parts of the framework to refine and upgrade it.

Another suggestion by the present study would be to investigate the proposed framework in terms of its influence on the idiosyncratic process of teacher development in which there are a variety of choices offered for developing teacher learning skills. In other words, it should also be inquired if the declarative knowledge of the framework has an observable effect on language teachers' attitude towards teaching. As the attitude of teachers is shaped by a cognitive process that influences their performance, investigating the teaching and learning skills of teachers that can be acquired through the framework may contribute to their professional development and thereby structuring their self-identity and beliefs.

Furthermore, the proposed TIC framework can be used more frequently to train student-teachers of English. First things first, they should receive a training session similar to the one suggested by IMDAT (Sert, 2015) in order for them to be able to readily use the framework without any roadblock. The training session should be repeatedly employed until they are fully competent to use it. Once they are ready, they can be audio and video recorded while employing the framework in actual teaching sessions.

Based on conversation analytic evidence, they can be given oral or written feedback about their weaknesses and strengths pausing and rewinding the recordings, the advantage of which is that they do not need to be stimulated to recall what they worked, what was less effective and what needed to be improved. Using stimulated recall or mentor post-observation feedback may not be as effective as expected since the participants may not recollect some important points. Therefore, student-teachers can be encouraged to use the SETT framework devised by Walsh (2006) to self-evaluate their micro-teaching experiences as insiders.

This procedure will surely foster their TIC awareness through critical reflective practices. Most important of all, they will be able to spot interruptive, obstructive and problematic practices and treat them with constructive feedback. It can be adopted and employed to train in-service L2 teachers in various local contexts, as well. Using CA methodology, dialogic or written reflection of any kind paired with stimulating audio and especially video records can induce in-service, pre-service and student teachers to appreciate the significance of reflective practices of micro-teachings (Waring, 2013).

5.14. Concluding Remarks

Before closing, as a researcher, I intend to clarify the primary purpose of the present study and whether it met my expectations. This investigation set out to explore how three teachers managed their talk in a non-formal teaching space. For that end, a micro analysis of the naturally occurring talk of the teachers was employed. It was found out that the IRF sequence characterized the CIC of the teachers. The analysis showed that although the IRF sequence was a resource to manage the talk in many cases, it failed to push the talk further and became a pedagogical constraint when it was not followed by topicalization. It became monolithic and routinized after some point because it was frequently used by the teachers as a means of controlling the talk rather than a resource to diversify the talk.

It was highly important to fully understand how the participants took turns and assembled the moves of the IRF. This is what CA researchers have generally focused on (Li, 2013). The pedagogical implications drawn from the sequential analysis of the discourse between the teachers and the students were not pre-conceived. Rather, the sequential analysis projected and implicated the pedagogical recommendations that were projected in the form of a framework (TIC).

The TIC framework is a sort of guideline for language teachers of English who are willing to manage the talk of their teaching space, which naturally makes it teacher-centered. However, it does not downgrade the learner initiatives or attempts that contribute to the ongoing talk. On the contrary, it allows the students to take turns, to response and even encourages them to initiate a sequence and respond voluntarily. That is to say, the classroom talk always goes beyond the typical IRF sequence and it always entails more turns, more responses and more feedback. It is not constrained to the three moves, which otherwise would be too mechanic and unnatural.

Expanding the talk creates or maximizes learning opportunities. Therefore, the present study embarked on documenting, describing and analyzing the observable behaviors of teachers striving to manage the discourse for the purpose of creating a setting rich in those opportunities. The CA analysis of data brought no satisfying evidence as to the smooth talk management of the teachers. What is more, earning opportunities were restricted to the IRF sequence. This gap urged me to come up with the proposed framework whereby in-service and preservice teachers, and student teachers may expand their management of the classroom discourse to maximize learning opportunities. Such a framework could also be of use for raising awareness about CIC contributing to the efforts of integrating it into teacher training programs.

REFERENCES

Adams, T. (1995). What Makes Materials Authentic? ERIC, Institute of Education Sciences: No. ED391389.

Allwright, R. L. (1981). What Do We Want Teaching Materials for?. *ELT Journal, 36*(1), 5-19.

Allwright, R. L. (1984). The Importance of Interaction in Classroom Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics 5*(2), 156-71.

Allwright, R. L. (1986). Making sense of instruction: What's the problem? *Papers in Applied Linguistics-Michigan, 1* (2), 1-10.

Allwright, R. L., & K. M. Bailey (1991). *Focus on the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Ammar, A. & Lightbown, P. (2008). Teaching marked linguistic structures - more about the acquisition of relative clauses by Arab learners of English. In A. Housen & M. Pierrard (Eds.), *Investigations in Instructed Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 167-198) Berlin, New York: De Gruyter Mouton.

Aoki, N. (2002). Aspects of teacher autonomy: Capacity, freedom, and responsibility. In P. Benson, & S. Toogood (Eds.), *Learner autonomy 7: Challenges to research and practice* (pp. 111-124). Dublin: Authentik.

Aşık, A. & Kuru Gönen, S. İ. (2016). 'Pre-Service EFL Teachers' Reported Perceptions of Their Development Through SETT Experience'. *Classroom Discourse, 7*(2), 164-183.

Balaman, U. (2016). *A Conversation Analytic Study On the Development of Interactional Competence in English in an Online Task-Oriented Environment*. Doctoral Dissertation, Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Science, Ankara

Balçıkanlı, C. (2017). The 'English Café'as a social learning place. In G. Murray & Terry Lamb, *Space, place and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 61-75). Routledge.

Baltova, I. (1994). The impact of video on the comprehension skills of core French students. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 50*(3), 507-532.

Banafa, F. H. (2008). *Effects of IT on pronunciation*. LaVergne, TN: Lightning Source.

Barfield, A., & Brown, S. (Eds.) (2007). *Restructuring autonomy in language education: Inquiry and Innovation.* Basinstoke: Palgrave.

Benson, P. (2012). Learner-centered teaching. In A. Burns & J.C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to pedagogy and practice in second language teaching* (pp. 30-37). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.

Benson, P. (2010). Teacher education and teacher autonomy: Creating spaces for experimentation in secondary school English language teaching. *Language Teaching Research, 14*(3), 259-275.

Benson, P. (2011). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching, 40*, 21-40.

Benson, P. & Huang, J. (2008). Autonomy in the transition from foreign language: Learning to foreign language teaching. *D.E.L.T.A.*, 24, 421-439.

Berger, E., & Doehler, S. P. (2015). Direct Reported Speech in Storytelling: Enacting and Negotiating Epistemic Entitlements. *Text & Talk, 35*(6), 789-813.

Borg, S. (2009). English language teachers' conceptions of research. *Applied Linguistics, 30*(3), 358-388.

Breen, M. P. (1985). The Social Context for Language Teaching: A Neglected Situation? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 7*(2)135-58.

Breen, M. P., & Mann, S. J. (1997). Shooting Arrows at the Sun: Perspectives on a Pedagogy

for Autonomy' in Benson and Voller. In P. Benson, & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning* (pp. 132-149). London: Longman.

Brock, C. (1986). The effects of referential questions on ESL classroom discourse. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*(1), 47-59.

Cazden, C.B. (1986). 'Classroom discourse', in M.C. Wittrock (ed.) *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, New York: Macmillan

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning*, New York: Cambridge University.

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic Structures*. Walter de Gruyter.

Clarke, M. A. (1983). The Scope of Approach, The Importance of Method, and The Nature of Technique. In J. E. Alatis, H. Stern, & P. Strevens (eds.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics 1983: Applied Linguistics and the Preparation of Second Language Teachers* (pp. 106-15). Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University.

Clift, R. (2016). *Conversation Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Cook, V. (2008). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching* (4th edition). London: Hodder Education.

Coyle, Yvette & Yañez, Lorena & Verdú, Mercedes. (2010). The impact of the interactive whiteboard on the teacher and children's language use in an ESL immersion classroom. *System. 38*. 614-625.

Çelik, S. & Baran, E. & Sert, O. (2018). The Affordances of Mobile-App Supported Teacher Observations for Peer Feedback. *International Journal of Mobile and Blended Learning, 10* (2), 36-49.

Cullen, R. (1998). Teacher talk and the classroom context. *English Language Teaching Journal, 52*(3), 179-87.

Cullen, R. (2002). Supportive teacher talk: the importance of the F-move. *ELT Journal 56*(2), 117-127.

Dam, L. (1995). *From theory to classroom practice*. Dublin: Authentik

Dam, L. (2000). Evaluating Autonomous Learning. In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath & T. Lamb (Eds), *Learner Autonomy, Teacher Autonomy, Future Directions*, (pp. 48-59). Pearson Education Limited: Essex.

Daşkın, N. C. (2015) Shaping learner contributions in an EFL classroom: Implications for L2 classroom interactional competence. *Classroom Discourse*, 6 (1), 33-56.

DeKeyser, R. M. (2005). What makes learning second-language grammar difficult? A review of issues. *Language Learning,* 55, S1 [Special Issue], 1-25.

Di Pietro, R. (1987). Strategic Interaction: Learning Languages Through Scenarios. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Dixon, L. Q., Zhao, J., Shin, J., Wu, S., Su, J, Bugess-Brigham, R., et al. (2012). What we know about second language acquisition: A synthesis from four perspectives. *Review of Educational Research, 82*(1), 5-60.

Dörnyei, Z. & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and Vision: An Analysis of Future L2 Self Images, Sensory Styles, And Imagery Capacity Across Two Target Languages. *Language Learning, 63*(3), 437-462.

Drew, P. (2005). Conversation Analysis. In K. L. Fitch & R. E. Sanders (Eds.), *Handbook of Language and Social Interaction* (pp. 71-102). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Duff, P. A., & Talmy, S. (2011). Language Socialization Approaches to Second Language Acquisition: Social, cultural, and linguistic development in additional languages. In D. Atkinson, (ed.), *Alternative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition* (95-116). New York: Routledge

Edwards, D., & Potter, J. (2005). Discursive Psychology, Mental States, and Description. In H. te Molder & J. Potter (Eds.), *Conversation and Cognition* (pp. 241-259). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Ellis, R. (1992). The Classroom Context: An Acquisition-Rich or an Acquisition-Poor Environment?". In C. Kramsch & S. McConnell-Ginet (eds.), *Text and Context:*

Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives on Language Study (pp. 171-86). Toronto: D.C. Heath and Co.

Ellis, R. (1999). *Learning a Second Language Through Interaction*. Philadelphia: John Benjamin.

Ellis, R. (2001). Investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning* 51, 1−46.

Ellis, R. (2010). Second Language Acquisition, Teacher Education and Language Pedagogy. *Language Teaching, 43*(2), 182-201.

Ellis, R., & He, X. (1999). The Roles of Modified Input and Output in The Incidental Acquisition of Word Meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *21*(02), 285-301.

Ellis, R. & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring Language Pedagogy through Second Language Acquisition Research*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.

Ellis, G., & Sinclair, B. (1989). *Learning to Learn English: A Course in Learner Training. Teacher Handbook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Fagan, D. S. (2012) 'Conversation analysis as a methodology for examining teacher knowledge in practice'. In Soneson, D. & Tarone, E. (eds.), *Expanding Our Horizons: Language Teacher Education in the 21st Century: Selected Papers from the 6th and 7th International Language Teacher Education Conferences* (pp. 183–205). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition.

Fanselow, J. F. (1997). Beyond Rashomon: Conceptualizing and Describing the Teaching Act. *TESOL Quarterly*. 11 (1), 17-39.

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On Discourse, Communication and (Some) Fundamental Concepts in SLA Research. *Modern Language Journal*, *81(3)*, 285-300.

Flavell, J. H. (1971). Stage-related properties of cognitive development. *Cognitive Psychology, 2*(4), 421-453. https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0285(71)90025-9

Fox, B. A., Hayashi, M., & Jasperson, R. (1996). Resources and Repair: A Cross-Linguistic Study of Syntax and Repair. In E. Ochs, E.A. Schegloff, & S.A. Thompson (Eds.), *Interaction and Grammar* (pp. 185–237). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Garfinkel, H. (1964). Studies of The Routine Grounds of Everyday Activities. *Social Problems, 11*(3), 225-250.

Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, Interaction, and the Second Language Learner*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Gass, S.M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course (3th Ed.).* New York: Routledge

Gass, S. M., Behney, J., & Plonsky, L. (2013). *Second Language Acquisition: An introductory Course*. New York: Routledge.

Ghafarpour, H. (2017). Classroom Conversation Analysis and Critical Reflective Practice: Self-evaluation of Teacher Talk Framework in Focus. *RELC Journal, 48*(2), 210–225.

Girgin, U, & Brandt, A. (2020). Creating space for learning through 'Mm hm' in a L2 classroom: Implications for L2 classroom interactional competence, *Classroom Discourse, 11*(1), 61-79.

Goffman, E. (1983). The interaction order. *American Sociological Review, 48*(1), 1-17.

Golato, A. (2002). German Compliment Responses. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*(5), 547-571.

Gönen, S. İ. & Aşık, A. (2016). Reflectivity Through The Analysis of Teacher Talk: The Case of Pre-Service English Language Teachers . *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 13*(36).

Guillory, H. G. (1998). The effects of key word captions to authentic French video in foreign language instruction. *CALICO Journal, 15*(1), 89-108.

Gümüşok, F. & Balıkçı, G. (2020). Promoting extended student talk in an EFL classroom. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6*, 205-228.

Hall, J. K., Hellermann, J. & Doehler, S. P. (Eds.) (2011). *L2 Interactional Competence and Development.* Bristol, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Hamilton, R. (1994). Is implicational generalization unidirectional and maximal? Evidence from relativization instruction in a second language. *Language Learning,* 44, 123–157.

Hatch, E. (1978). Discourse Analysis and Second Language Acquisition. In E. Hatch (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition*, 401–35. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

He, A. W. (2004). CA for SLA: Arguments from The Chinese Language Classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, *88(4)*, 568-582.

Hellermann, J. (2008). *Social Actions for Classroom Language Learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Hellermann, J. (2009). Looking for Evidence of Language Learning in Practices for Repair: A Case Study of Self-Initiated Self-Repair by an Adult Learner of English. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 53*(2), 113-132

Hellermann, J. & Cole, E. (2009*).* Practices for social interaction in the language-learning classroom: disengagements from dyadic task interaction*. Applied Linguistics, 30(2),* 186-215.

Heritage, J. (2013). Epistemics in Conversation. In J. Sidnell & T. Stivers (eds.), *The Handbook of Conversation Analysis* (pp. 370-394). West Sussex: Blackwell.

Hinkel, E. & Fotos, S. (2011). *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms: Integrating Form-Focused Instruction in Communicative*. New York: Routledge

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy in foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. A. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70* (2), 125-132. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/327317

Howard, A. (2010) 'Is There Such a Thing as a Typical Language Lesson?' *Classroom Discourse, 1*(1) 82-100.

Huang, J. (2007). Teacher autonomy in second language education. *CELEA Journal*, 1, 30-42.

Hulstijn, J. & Graaff, Rick. (1994). Under what conditions does explicit knowledge of a second language facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge? A research proposal. *AILA Review,* 11, 97-122.

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2008). *Conversation Analysis: Principles, practices and Applications*. Oxford: Polity.

Jarvis, G. A. (1991). Research on Teaching Methodology: Its Evolution and Prospects. In B. Freed (ed.), F*oreign Language Acquisition Research and The Classroom* (295-306). Lexington, Massachusetts: D.C. Heath and Company.

Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of Transcript Symbols with an Introduction. In. G. H. Lerner (Ed.), *Conversation Analysis: Studies Form First Generation* (13-34). John Benjamins.

Johnson, K. (1995). *Understanding Communication in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Ishida, M. (2006). Interactional Competence and The Use of Modal Expressions in Decision-Making Activities: CA for Understanding Microgenesis of Pragmatic Competence. In K. Bardovi-Harlig, J. C. Félix-Brasdefer, & A. Omar (Eds.), *Pragmatics and Language Learning* (pp. 55-79). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Ishida, M. (2009). Development of Interactional Competence: Changes in The Use of Ne in L2 Japanese During Study Abroad. In H. Thi Nguyen & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Talk-In-Interaction: Multilingual Perspectives* (pp. 351-387). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Izumi, S. (2002). OUTPUT, INPUT ENHANCEMENT, AND THE NOTICING HYPOTHESIS: An Experimental Study on ESL Relativisation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 24*(4), 541-577.

Izumi, S., & Bigelow, M. (2000). Does Output Promote Noticing and Second Language Acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, *34*(2), 239-278.

Kasper, G. (1986). Repair in foreign language teaching. In G. Kasper (ed.) *Learning, Teaching and Communication in the Language Classroom*. Aarhus: Aarhus University.

Kasper, G. (2009). Locating Cognition in Second Language Interaction and Learning: Inside The Skull or in Public View? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *47*(1), 11-36.

Kasper, G., & Wagner, J. (2011). A Conversation-Analytic Approach to Second Language Acquisition. In D. Atkinson, (ed.), *Alternative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition* (167-180). New York: Routledge

Kelly Hall, J., Hellermann, J., & Pekarek Doehler, S. (Eds.). (2011). *The Development of Interactional Competence*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Kim, Y. (2009b). Korean Discourse Markers -Nuntey and -Kuntey in Native–Nonnative Conversation: An Acquisitional Perspective. In H. Thi Nguyen & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Talk- In-Interaction: Multilingual Perspectives* (pp. 317-350). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Koehler, M.J., Mishra, P., Hershey, K., & Peruski, L. (2004). With a little help from your students: A new model for faculty development and online course design. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 12*(1), 25-55.

Koshik, I. (2002). Designedly Incomplete Utterances: A Pedagogical Practice for Eliciting Knowledge Displays in Error Correction Sequences. *Research On Language and Social Interaction, 35* (3), 277-309.

Kramsch, C. (1986). From language proficiency to interactional competence. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(4), 366-372.

Kramsch, C. (2000). Second Language Acquisition, Applied Linguistics, and the Teaching of Foreign Languages. *The Modern Language Journal, 84(3),* 311-236.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis*. London: Longman.

Krashen, S. (1987). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. London: Prentice-Hall International.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1993). Maximizing learning potential in the communicative classroom. *ELT Journal 47*(1), 12-21.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond Methods: Macrostrategies for Language Teaching*. New Haven: Yale University.

Ladefoged, P. & Johnson, K. (2015). A Course in Phonetics (7th edit.). USA: Cengage Learning

Langacker, R. W. (1987). *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar: Vol. 1: Theoretical Prerequisites*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2010). Having and Doing: Learning from a Complexity Theory Perspective. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, C. Jenks (eds.), *Reconceptualizing Learning in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 52-68). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Lee, Y. (2006). Towards Respecification of Communicative Competence: Condition of L2 Instruction or Its Objective? *Applied Linguistics, 27*(3), 349-376.

Lee, Y. A., & Hellermann, J. (2014). Tracing developmental changes through conversation analysis: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis. *TESOL Quarterly, 48*(4), 763-788.

Levis, J. and Suvorov, R. (2022). Automatic Speech Recognition. In The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics, C.A. Chapelle (Ed.). Retrieved from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0066.pub2

Li, H. (2013). Student Initiatives and Missed Learning Opportunities in an IRF Sequence: A Single Case Analysis. *L2 Journal, 5* (2). http://dx.doi.org/10.5070/L25218838 Retrieved from https://escholarship.org/uc/item/9tf451nb

Liddicoat, A. J. (2007). *An Introduction to Conversation Analysis*. London: Continuum.

Lier, L. V. (1996). *Interaction in the language Curriculum: Awareness, Autonomy and Authenticity*. London: Longman

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University.

Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy 1: Definitions, issues, and problem*. Dublin: Authentik.

Little, D. (1995). Learning as a dialogue: the dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. *System 23* (2), 175-181.

Little, D. (2007). Language learner autonomy: some fundamental considerations revisited. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*, 14-29

Littlewood, W. (1996). Autonomy: An anatomy and a framework, *System 24* (4), 427-435.

Littlewood, W. (1999). Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. *Applied linguistics, 20*(1), 71-94.

Liversidge, G. B. (2000). *The Role of Closed-Captioning in Second Language Acquisition*. Tokyo, Japan.

Long, M. H. (1996). The Role of Linguistic Environment in Second Language Acquisition. In W. Ritchie and T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego: Academic.

Long, M. & C. Sato (1983). "Classroom foreigner talk discourse: Forms and functions of teachers' questions". In H. Seliger and M. Long (eds.). *Classroom-oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 268–285). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, D. Coste, R. Ginsberg & C. Kramsch (eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (pp. 39−52.). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Long, M. & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.

Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*, 37-66.

Macedo, D. (1994). Preface. In P. McLaren & C. Lankshear (eds.), *Conscientization and Resistance* (pp. 1-8). New York: Routledge.

Macintyre, Peter. (2007). Willingness to Communicate in the Second Language: Understanding the Decision to Speak as a Volitional Process. *The Modern Language Journal.* 91, 564 - 576. 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00623.x.

Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2012). Interaction Approaches to Second Language Acquisition. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics (2748-2758). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Mann, S. & Walsh, S. (2013). RP or 'RIP': A critical perspective on reflective practice. *Applied Linguistics Review 4*.

McCrocklin, S. (2016). Pronunciation learner autonomy: The potential of Automatic Speech Recognition. *System, 57*, 25-42.

McGrath, I. (2000) Teacher autonomy. In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath and T. Lamb (eds.) *Learner autonomy, teacher autonomy: Future directions* (pp. 100-110). London: Longman.

Markee, N. (1994). Towards an Ethnomethodological Respecification of Second Language Acquisition Studies. In E. Tarone, M. Gass, & A. Cohen (Eds.), *Research Methodology in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 89-116). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Markee, N. (2000). *Conversation analysis.* Mahwah, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum

Markee, N. & Kasper, G. (2004). Classroom talks: An introduction. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*(4), 491-500.

Markee, N., & Kunitz, S. (2015). CA-for-SLA studies of classroom interaction: Quo vadis? In N. Markee, (ed.), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction*, (425-439). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell

Markee, N., & Seo, M. S. (2009). Learning Talk Analysis. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *47*(1), 37-63.

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning Lessons: Social Organization in The Classroom*. Cambridge: Harvard University.

Mehan, Hugh (1979). "What Time Is It, Denise?" Asking Known Information Questions in Classroom Discourse. *Theory into Practice*. *18*(4), 285-294.

Molder, H. te, & Potter, J. (Eds). (2005). *Conversation and Cognition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Mondada, L. (2007). Multimodal resources for turn-taking: Pointing and the emergence of possible next speakers. *Discourse Studies, 9*(2), 194-225.

Mondada, L., & Doehler, S. P. (2004). Second Language Acquisition as Situated Practice: Task Accomplishment in The French Second Language Classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 501-518.

Moorhouse, B. L., Li, Y. & Walsh, S. (2021). E-Classroom Interactional Competencies: Mediating and Assisting Language Learning During Synchronous Online Lessons. *RELC Journal*, 1–15

Mori, J. (2002). Task Design, Plan, and Development of Talk-In-Interaction: An Analysis of A Small Group Activity in A Japanese Language Classroom. *Applied Linguistics 23*(3). 323-347.

Mori, J. (2004). Pursuit of Understanding: Conversation Analytic Account of a Small-Group Activity in A Japanese Language Classroom. In R. Gardner & J. Wagner (eds.). *Second Language Conversations* (pp. 157-177). London: Continuum.

Mori, J. (2010). Learning Language in Real Time: A Case Study of The Japanese Demonstrative Pronoun are in Word-Search Sequences. In G. Kasper, H. Thi Nguyen, D. R. Yoshimi, & J. K. Yoshioka (Eds.), *Pragmatics & Language Learning, 12* (15-42). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Moskowitz, G. (1976), The Classroom Interaction of Outstanding Foreign Language Teachers. *Foreign Language Annals, 9* (2), 135-143. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-

9720.1976.tb02639.x

Nakata, Y. (2011). Teacher s' readiness for promoting learner autonomy: A study of Japanese EFL high school teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27* (5), 900-910.

Nanni, A. & Hooper, D. & Hale, C. (2018). Conversation Analysis in Language Teacher Education: An Approach for Reflection Through Action Research. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education 33*. 54-71.

Navarro, D., & Thornton, K. (2011). Investigating the relationship between belief and action in self-directed language learning. *System, 39*(3), 290-301.

Nunan, D. (1987). Communicative Language Teaching: Making It Work. *ELT Journal, 41*(2), 136-45.

Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and Language Learning*. London: Longman.

Ok, S. (2016). Autonomy in an EFL Teacher Training Context: Trainee Teacher Perceptions of Instructor Expectations, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 41 (3), 66-86

Omaggio, A. C. (1986). *Teaching Language in Context*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Ortega, L. (2011). SLA After the Social Turn: Where Cognitivism and Its Alternatives Stand. In D. Atkinson, (ed.). Alternative approaches to second language acquisition (167-180). New York: Routledge.

Park, J. (2017). Multimodality as an Interactional Resource for Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC). *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3*(2), 121-138.

Doehler, S. P. & Lauzon, V. F. (2015). Documenting change across time: Longitudinal and cross-sectional CA studies of classroom interaction. In N. Markee (eds.), *Handbook of classroom discourse and interaction* (pp. 409-424). Wiley-Blackwell

Doehler, S. P. & Pochon-Berger, E. (2011). Developing 'Methods' for Interaction: A Cross-Sectional Study of Disagreement Sequences in French L2. In J.K. Hall, J. Hellermann & S. P. Doehler (Eds.), *L2 Interactional Competence and Development* (pp. 206-243). Bristol, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Pekarek Doehler, S., & Pochon-Berger, E. (2015). The development of L2 interactional competence: evidence from turn-taking organization, sequence organization, repair organization and preference organization. In T. Cadierno & S. W. Eskildsen (eds.) *Usage-Based Perspectives on Second Language Learning* (pp. 233-270), Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Powell, J.H. & McGowan, T.M. (1996). In search of autonomy: Teachers' aspirations and expectations from a school-university collaborative. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 12* (3), 249-260.

Pennycook, A. (1989). The Concept of Method, Interested Knowledge, and The Politics of Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly 23*(4), 589-618.

Peräkylä, A. (2004). Making Links in Psychoanalytic Interpretations: A Conversation Analytical Perspective. *Psychotherapy Research, 14*(3), 289-307. 10.1093/ptr/kph026.

Peräkylä, A., (2011). Reliability and Validity in Research Based on Naturally Occurring Social Interaction. In D. Silverman, (ed.), *Qualitative research* (3rd Ed.) (365-382). London: Sage.

Perkins, L. (2018). Developing classroom interactional competence through a teacher development workshop. (*Unpublished master's thesis).* King's College, London, UK.

Pica, T. (1988). Interlanguage adjustments as an outcome of NS-NNS negotiated interaction. *Language Learning, 38* (1), 45-73.

Prabhu, N. S. (1990) There is no best method -Why? *TESOL Quarterly, 24,* 161-176.

Reinders, H., & Balçıkanlı, C. (2011). Learning to foster autonomy: The role of teacher education materials. *Studies in Self-access Learning Journal, 2*(1), 15-25.

Rivers, W.P. (2001). Autonomy at All Costs: An Ethnography of Metacognitive Self-Assessment and Self-Management among Experienced Language Learners. *The Modern Language Journal, 85* (2), 279-290.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A Simplest Systematics for The Organization of Turn-Taking for Conversation. *Language, 50*(4). 696-735.

Schegloff, E. A. (2007). Sequence Organization in Interaction. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Schegloff, E. A., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up Closings. *Semiotica, 7*, 289-327.

Schegloff, E. A., Ochs, E., & Thompson, S. (1996). Introduction. In E. Ochs, E. A. Schegloff, & S. A. Thompson (Eds.), *Interaction and grammar* (pp. 1-51). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Schwienhorst, K. (2003). Learner autonomy and tandem learning: Putting principles into practice in synchronous and asynchronous telecommunications environments. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 16*(5), 427-443.

Seedhouse, P. (1996). Classroom interaction: possibilities and impossibilities. *ELT Journal, 50*(1), 16-24.

Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The Interactional Architecture of the Second Language Classroom: A Conversational Analysis Perspective.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Seedhouse, P. (2005). Conversation Analysis and Language Learning. *Language Teaching 38*(4), 165-187.

Seedhouse, P. (2008). Learning to Talk the Talk: Conversation Analysis as a Tool for Induction of Trainee Instructors. In S. Garton & K. Richards (Eds.), *Professional Encounters in TESOL* (pp. 42-57). UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Seedhouse, P. & Jenks, C.J. (2015). International perspectives on ELT classroom interaction: an introduction. In Jenks, C.J. & Seedhouse, P. (Eds.), *International perspectives on ELT classroom interaction* (pp. 1-9). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Sert, O. (2011). *A micro-analytic investigation of claims of insufficient knowledge in EAL classrooms*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Newcastle School of Education, Communication and Sciences, Newcastle upon Tyne.

Sert, O. (2013). 'Epistemic Status Check' as an Interactional Phenomenon in Instructed Learning Settings. *Journal of Pragmatics, 45*(1). 13-28.

Sert, O. (2015). *Social Interaction and L2 Classroom Discourse*. Edinburgh University.

Sert, O. (2019). Classroom Interaction and Language Teacher Education. In S. Walsh and S. Mann (Eds.) *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teacher Education,* (pp. 216-238). London: Routledge.

Sert, O., & Jacknick, C. (2015). Student Smiles and the Negotiation of Epistemics in L2 Classrooms. *Journal of Pragmatics, 77*, 97-112.

Sert, O. & Seedhouse, P. (2011). Introduction: Conversation Analysis in Applied Linguistics. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language) 5*(1), 1-14.

Sert, O., & Walsh, S. (2013). The Interactional Management of Claims of Insufficient Knowledge in English Language Classrooms. *Language and Education, 27*(6), 542-565.

Sidnell, J. (2010). *Conversation Analysis: An Introduction*. West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Sidnell, J., & Stivers, T. (2013). *The Handbook of Conversation Analysis*. West Sussex: Blackwell.

Sinclair, B. (2000). Learner autonomy: The next phase? In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Learner autonomy, teacher autonomy: Future directions* (pp. 4-14). Harlow: Longman.

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University.

Skinner, B. (2012) 'Changing Identities: An Exploration of ESL Trainee Teacher Discourse in Microteaching'. *Classroom Discourse, 3*(1) 46-64.

Slimani, A. (1989). The Role of Topicalization in Classroom Language Learning. *System 17*(2), 223-34.

Smith, R. C. (2001). Teacher education for teacher-learner autonomy. *Language in language teacher education*. 1-13.

Sharwood Smith, M. (1991). Speaking to many minds: On the relevance of different types of language information for the L2 learner. *Second Language Research,* 7, 118-32.

Snow, C. E., & Ferguson, C. A. (1977). *Talking to Children: Language Input and Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Spada, N. (1997). Form-focused instruction and second language acquisition: A review of classroom and laboratory research. *Language Teaching* 30, 73−87.

Spada, N. (2011). Beyond form-focused instruction: Reflections on past, present and future research. *Language Teaching.* 44 (2), 225-236.

Stern, H. (1992). *Issues and Options in Language Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University.

Supakorn, S. (2020). A Conversation Analytic Study of Classroom Interactional Competence. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network Journal, 13*(2), 15-40.

Sutherland, L, Howard, S. & Markauskaite, L. (2010). Professional identity creation: Examining the development of beginning preservice teachers' understanding of their work as teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*. 455-465.

Swain, M. & S. Lapkin (1998). Interaction and Second Language Learning. Two Adolescent French Immersion Students Working Together. *Modern Language Journal, 83*(3), 20-37.

Swain, M. (2000). The Output Hypothesis and Beyond: Mediating Acquisition Through Collaborative Dialogue. *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*, 97-114.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative Competence: Some Roles of Comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in Its Development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swain, M. (1995). Three Functions of Output in Second Language Learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidelhofer (Eds.), *Principle and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honour of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 125-44). Oxford, England: Oxford University.

Taleghani-Nikazm, C. (2002). A Conversation-Analytic Study of Telephone Conversation Opening Between Native and Nonnative Speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*, 1807-1832.

ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing Conversation Analysis: A Practical Guide*. London: Sage.

Thompson, G. (1997). 'Training teachers to ask questions. *English Language Teaching Journal 51*(2), 99-105.

Thornbury, S. (1996). Teachers research teacher talk. *ELT Journal, 50*, 279-88.

Thornbury, S. (2017). *The New A-Z of ELT: A Dictionary of Terms and Concepts*. London: Macmillan.

Thornbury, S. and Watkins, P. (2007). *The CELTA Course Trainer's Manual*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Tsui, A.B.M. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In K.M. Bailey and D. Nunan (eds.), *Voices from the language classroom* (pp. 145-167). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Tsui, A. B. M. (1995). *Introducing Classroom Interaction*. London: Penguin.

Tsui, A. B. M. (1989). Beyond the adjacency pair. *Language in Society*. 18(4), 545-564.

Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research, 6*(1), 3-23.

Walsh, S. (2003). Developing Interactional Awareness in The Second Language Classroom. *Language Awareness. 12*, 124-42.

Walsh S. (2011). *Exploring Classroom Discourse: Language in Action*. London: Routledge.

Walsh, S. (2006) *Investigating Classroom Discourse*. London: Routledge.

Walsh, S. (2013). *Classroom Discourse and Teacher Development*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University.

Walsh, S. (2014). Developing Classroom Interactional Competence. *Language Issues, 25* (1), 4-8.

Walsh, S., & Mann, S. (2015). Doing reflective practice: a data-led way forward. *Elt Journal, 69*(4), 351-362.

Walsh, S. (2021). Classroom Interactional Competence and evidence-based reflection. In Dippold, D., & Heron, M. (Eds.), *Meaningful Teaching Interaction at the Internationalised University: Moving From Research to Impact* (pp. 13-24). Routledge.

Walsh, S. & Li, L. (2013). Conversations as Space for Learning. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics 23* (2), 257-266.

Waring, H.Z. (2021). Harnessing the Power of Heteroglossia: How to Multi-task with Teacher Talk. In: Kunitz, S., Markee, N. & Sert, O. (eds.), *Classroom-based Conversation Analytic Research. Educational Linguistics* (pp 281-301). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-52193-6_14

Wenden, A. L. (1998). Metacognitive Knowledge and Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics, 19* (4), 515-537

Willis, J. (1992). Inner and outer: spoken discourse in the language classroom. In M. Coulthard (ed.), *Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge.

Woods, D, & Fassnacht, C., (2012). *Transana* v3.0 available at http://www.transana.com. Madison, WI: The Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin System.

van Lier, L. (1988). *The Classroom and the Language Learner*. London: Longman.

VanPatten, B. (2004). Input and Output in Establishing Form-Meaning Connections. In B. VanPatten, J. Williams, S. Rott, M. Overstreet (Eds.), *Form-Meaning Connections in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 29-47). New York: Routledge

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

Ünal, D. Ç., Bozbıyık, M. and Acar, Y. (2018) 'Almanca Öğretiminde Sınıf İçi Etkileşimsel Yetiye İlişkin Bir İhtiyaç Analizi ve Durum Tespiti' [A Situation and Needs Analysis on Classroom Interactional Competence in German Language Teaching]. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*. doi:10.16986/HUJE.2018040663.

Yang, S. (2014) 'Interaction and codability: A multi-layered analytical approach to discourse markers in teacher's spoken discourse', in J. Romero-Trillo (ed.) *Yearbook of Corpus Linguistics and Pragmatics 2014,* (291-313). New York: Springer International Publishing.

Yılmaz, A. & Söğüt, S. (2022). Language education for social justice: Reproductions or disruptions through technology. *Computers & Education*. 187.

Yule, G. (2013). *The Study of Language* (5th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Rutherford, W. (2014). *Second Language Grammar (1st ed*.). Taylor and Francis.

Zimmerman, D. H. (1999). Horizontal and Vertical Comparative Research in Language and Social Interaction. *Research on Language & Social Interaction, 32*, 195-203.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX.1 Clift Transcription Conventions

Temporal and sequential relationships

[[	Separate left square brackets, one above the other on two successive lines with utterances by different speakers, indicates a point of overlap onset, whether at the start of an utterance or later.
]]	Separate right square brackets, one above the other on two successive lines with utterances by different speakers indicates a point at which two overlapping utterances both end, where one ends while the other continues, or simultaneous moments in overlaps which continue.
=	Equal signs may come in pairs: one at the end of a line and another at the start of the next line. They are used to indicate two things: If the two lines connected by the equal signs are by the same speaker, then there was a single, continuous utterance with no break or pause, which was broken up in order to accommodate the placement of the overlapping talk. If the lines connected by two equal signs are by different speakers, then the second followed the first with no discernible silence between them, or was 'latched' to it When there is a single equal sign in the course of one tum-at-talk it shows that the speaker is circumventing tum transition by compressing the space in which transition to a next speaker may occur.
(0.5)	Numbers in parentheses indicate silence. Silence is standardly represented in tenths of a second, so (0.5) indicates half a second's silence.
(.)	A micro-pause of less than one-tenth of a second.
Aspects of speech delivery	
.	The period indicates a falling, or final, intonation contour, not necessarily at the end of a sentence.
?	Similarly, a question mark indicates rising intonation, not necessarily a question.
,	A comma indicates 'continuing' intonation, not; necessarily a clause boundary.
¿	An upside-down question mark indicates a low rise, i.e., stronger than 'comma' intonation, but weaker than that indicated by a question mark.
:	Colons are used to indicate the prolongation or stretching of the sound just preceding them. The more colons, the longer the stretch
-	A hyphen after a word or part of a word indicates a cut-off or self-interruption, often done with a glottal stop. The cut-off here is used to implement a self-repair.
Under	Underlining is used to indicate some form of stress or emphasis, either by increased loudness or by higher pitch.
CAPITALS	Particularly increased loudness relative to surrounding talk is indicated by capital letters.
° °°	The degree sign indicates that the talk following it is markedly quiet or soft. When there are two-degree signs, the talk between them is softer than the talk around it.

_: :	Combinations of underlining and colons are used to indicate intonation contours as follows:If the letter(s) preceding a colon is underlined, then there is an 'inflected' falling intonation contour. If a colon is itself underlined, then there is an inflected rising intonation contour.
↑↓	The up and down arrows mark sharper rises or falls in pitch than would be indicated by combinations of colons and underlining, or may mark a whole shift, or resetting, of the pitch register at which the talk is being produced.
> < < >	The combination of 'more than' and 'less than' symbols indicates that the talk between them is compressed or rushed. Used in the reverse order, the 'more than' and 'less than' symbols can indicate that a stretch of talk is markedly slowed or drawn out.
Hh (hh)	hearable aspiration is shown where it occurs in the talk; the more hh's, the more aspiration. The aspiration may represent breathing or laughter. If it occurs inside the boundaries of a word, it may be enclosed in parentheses in order to set it apart from the sounds of the word.
Other markings	
(( ))	Double parentheses are used to mark the transcriber's description of events.
(Mm) (up)/ (out)	When all or part of an utterance is in parentheses, or the speaker identification is, it indicates uncertainty on the transcriber's part. Alternate hearings are given when it is not possible to distinguish between them.
(-)	Sometimes transcribers designate the number of syllables heard with dashes; these indicators of what might have been said are particularly useful in joint or group collaboration over transcripts.
( )	Empty parentheses show no hearing was possible of what was being said.

APPENDIX.2 Consent Form

T.C. Gazi Üniversitesi

Eğitim Bilimleri Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ GÖNÜLLÜ ONAM FORMU

Sizi Eyüp DİLBER tarafından yürütülen "Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizcenin Öğretildiği Yarı Resmi Bir Ortamda Etkileşim Yönetimi yoluyla Öğretmen İletişim Yetisi üzerine Bir Konuşma Çözümlemesi Çalışması" başlıklı araştırmaya davet ediyoruz. Bu araştırmanın amacı yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin etkileşim becerisinin yarı öğretimli sosyal ortamlarda gelişimini konuşma çözümlemesi yöntemi ile analiz etmektir. Araştırmada sizden tahminen bir saat ayırmanız istenmektedir. Araştırmaya sizin dışınızda tahminen üç katılacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen *gönüllülük* esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmanın amacına ulaşmak için sizden beklenen, kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmadan düzenli olarak görüntülü-sesli olarak kaydedilen "İngilizce Etkileşim Kulübüne" katılım sağlamanızdır. Bu formu okuyup onaylamanız, araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz anlamına gelecektir. Ancak, çalışmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmayı bırakmak hakkına da sahipsiniz. Bu çalışmadan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacak olup kişisel bilgileriniz *gizli tutulacaktır;* ancak verileriniz yayın amacı ile kullanılabilir. İletişim bilgileriniz ise sadece izninize bağlı olarak ve farklı araştırmacıların sizinle iletişime geçebilmesi için "ortak katılımcı havuzuna" aktarılabilir. Eğer araştırmanın amacı ile ilgili verilen bu bilgiler dinginde şimdi veya sonra daha fazla bilgiye ihtiyaç duyarsanız araştırmacıya şimdi sorabilir veya ……..…. e-posta adresine ve ……. numaralı telefondan ulaşabilirsiniz. Araştırma tamamlandığında genel/size özel sonuçların sizinle paylaşılmasını istiyorsanız lütfen araştırmacıya iletiniz.

Yukarıda yer alan ve araştırmadan önce katimeyiz verilmesi gereken bilgileri okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, gönüllü olarak üzerime düsen

sorumlulukları anladım. Çalışma hakkında yazılı ve sözlü açıklama aşağıda adi belirtilen araştırmacı tarafından yapıldı. Bana, çalışmanın muhtemel riskleri ve faydaları sözlü olarak da anlatıldı. Kişisel bilgilerimin özenle korunacağı konusunda yeterli güven verildi.
Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve telkin olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının :
Adı-Soyadı:
İmzası:
İletişim Bilgileri:

İletişim bilgilerimin diğer araştırmacıların benimle iletişime geçebilmesi için "ortak araştırma havuzuna" aktarılmasını; a) kabul ediyorum b) kabul etmiyorum (lütfen uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz)

Araştırmacının:
Adı-Soyadı: imzası:

Şahidin:
Adi-Soyadı:
İmzası:



“GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR...”