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**PREFERENCE IN THE CLASSROOM: A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC STUDY IN
THE CONTEXT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN
LANGUAGE**

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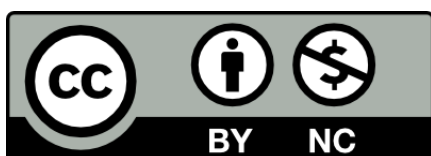
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It has been a rough few years.

Never thought of living this process, this manner.

Grasp. Relive. Dasein.

Never thought of living this process.

Here I am, on the edge of myself.

Never thought of living.

Flash forward. Never thought.

The seconds walk. Wake up.

Never.

Thanks to everyone who collaborated in this process.

- Cristián Barrios Viedma

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*Tierra de lodo y sequía
aguas queridas y pulidas,
tierra de llanto y sangría
montes callados y planicies ladinas.
Chile, no duermas
sigue hablando al horizonte
deja tus huellas
y persigue al simbiote.*

- Valentina Herrera

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*I'm looking for signs,
stay there a little longer,
rainwater wells up.*

- Skaler Labrin Antiman

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Abstract

The present study aims to investigate and analyze classroom interactions in both online and face-to-face lessons. Specifically, this thesis intends to study the different interactional and pedagogical resources that teachers utilize around the concept of preference in the classroom. The data we used corresponds to mixed recordings, both online and face-to-face, from the years 2021 and 2022 of classes conducted at Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación (UMCE) in the English Department. The classification of the data was conducted by means of a coding that separated both online and face-to-face classes, in addition to subdividing the type of questions asked. Subsequently, a certain number of examples to be transcribed were carefully selected using the Conversation Analysis (CA) method. In order to carry out the analysis of the examples in a detailed manner, we used the Jeffersonian transcription method (2004). Also, each concept involved in CA was defined, so that they could be used in the further development of this seminar.

The development and subsequent analysis was carried out in 3 chapters. In each of these, we analyzed the transcriptions made from the video-mediated data, focusing on the patterns that were repeated, in order to reach a conclusion. Finally, a discussion is presented in which final conclusions can be found regarding the strategies used by the teachers that gave the best results to pursue a response. In addition to this, after the discussion, the limitations of this study are presented, as well as potential research that derives from it.

Key words: classroom interaction, conversation analysis (CA), preference, turn-taking, sequence organization, repair, English as a foreign language (EFL).

Resumen

El presente estudio tiene como objetivo investigar y analizar las interacciones en el aula tanto en clases de modalidad online como presenciales. En concreto, esta tesis pretende estudiar los diferentes recursos interaccionales y pedagógicos que los profesores utilizan en torno al concepto de preferencia en el aula. Los datos que hemos utilizado corresponden a grabaciones mixtas, tanto online como presenciales, de los años 2021 y 2022, de clases realizadas en la Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación (UMCE) en el Departamento de Inglés. La clasificación de los datos se realizó mediante una codificación que separaba tanto las clases online como las presenciales, además de subdividir el tipo de preguntas realizadas. Posteriormente, se seleccionó cuidadosamente una determinada cantidad de ejemplos a transcribir utilizando el método de Análisis de la Conversación (AC). Para llevar a cabo el análisis de los ejemplos de una manera detallista, se utilizó el método de transcripciones de Jefferson (2004). También, se definió cada concepto que involucra el AC, de manera que se pudiesen utilizar en el desarrollo de este seminario.

El desarrollo, y posterior análisis, se realizó mediante 3 capítulos. En cada uno de estos, analizamos las transcripciones realizadas desde los videos, y enfocándonos en los patrones que se repetían, para así llegar a una conclusión. Finalmente, se presenta una discusión en la cual se pueden encontrar conclusiones finales en cuanto a las estrategias utilizadas por los profesores que dieron mejores resultados para encontrar una respuesta. Aunado a esto, se encuentra ya en el final de este documento, la limitaciones que se tuvo en este estudio, además de potenciales investigaciones que derivan de esta.

Palabras clave: interacción en el aula, análisis de la conversación (AC), preferencia, toma de turnos, organización secuencial, reparación, inglés como lengua extranjera (EFL).

Introduction

Through this research, we will develop a qualitative analytic study of conversations in the context of Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. This research is preference-oriented, which means that we will inspect the structure of preference in the classroom to pursue responses and foster participation.

This research has been carried out in the context of the COVID 19 pandemic during the year 2021, and also, the present year in the context of face-to-face lessons. The data have been collected by means of audio and video recordings.

As aforementioned, this research has presented a new challenge for us at the moment of gathering information. Namely, in the context of collecting information of previously recorded material along with recording new data in a post-pandemic context. Comparing different types of data has opened new possibilities for investigating the use of pedagogical resources at the moment of pursuing a response.

When we decided to embrace this challenge, the aim was to solve some crucial questions of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The first question that arised was, what were the interactional or pedagogical resources that were utilized around the concept of preference in the classroom. Our primary concern was how reformulations of an instruction worked in language classes in the context of Teaching-Learning English as a Foreign Language.

In this regard, the second question attempted to understand which linguistic and sequential characteristics of the reformulations were presented in classes of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Lastly, we gathered information that allowed us to recognize how these findings could be translated into more effective strategies in terms of fostering student participation in the

classroom. Consequently, we expect this research to be of great help to aid teachers to find more effective strategies and techniques to engage students into class participation.

Literature Review

In this section, we will present our literature review, in which we explain the main concepts of our research, providing definitions and general explanations about each of them. Starting with the definition of Conversation Analysis (CA) and how this concept was built, and then, the foundations of CA: turn-taking, sequence organization, repair, and preference.

Since our research focuses on reformulations, considering the teachers' orientations to the concept of preference, we organized the literature review to connect the explanations with what we considered pertinent to understand our project.

After explaining the foundations of CA, considering the educational context in which our research took place, it is highly relevant to analyze the foundations in the educational setting as the context implies institutional talk. Finally, there is a summary of the main concepts of CA.

In the subsequent section, we will explain the methodology and design used for our research, along with a visual table of the collected data.

Conversation Analysis

Liddicoat (2007) and Clift (2016) claimed that CA is an empirical discipline that deals with contextualized talk, inspecting how a language is used by the participants of an interaction. Additionally, CA aims to understand "how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of actions are

generated” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998, p. 14), such as requesting, announcing, inviting, etcetera.

In order to analyze an interaction, the utterances are understood as contextualized actions (Liddicoat, 2007; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998). Therefore, analysts inspect how participants fulfill their actions in contextualized interactions, also called the next-turn proof procedure (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998). On this matter, the authors confirmed that an analysis may involve assumptions if there is a pattern, but the focus would be on the accomplishments of the participants, thus there is no predetermined set of rules as these are provided by the participants. Consequently, analysts have to inspect their data with an objective eye to have data of what is occurring instead of what the people involved in the interaction think they are doing. Furthermore, analysts employ unmotivated looking, in other words, discovering “what is going on in the data, rather than searching for a particular pre-identified or pre-theorized phenomenon” (Psathas, 1990, as cited in Liddicoat, 2007).

Furthermore, to collect data, analysts employ recordings since recordings allow the analyst to inspect into it an infinite number of times and to look for details that may be missed, such as the intonation of some words, overlap in a conversation, etcetera (Liddicoat, 2007). From its origin, Harvey Sacks, a pioneer in CA, used recordings for their research about how “ordinary conversation may be a deeply ordered, structurally organized phenomenon” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998, p. 17) since then, recordings have been the main tool to collect data.

To understand this discipline, it is mandatory to provide a brief explanation of the foundations of CA, so we support the definitions below in Markee’s (2015) and Hutchby and Wooffitt’s (1998) research.

A key concept in CA is turn-taking, this is related to how the participants construct and allocate when to talk, usually doing it one party at a time (Jefferson, Schegloff, & Sacks, 1974). Besides, the turns are organized considering the actions the participants are trying to accomplish. For example, after someone asks X, it is expected that the next speaker answers the question. The concept described is known as sequence organization. In addition, some problems may occur in a conversation, such as mishearings or misunderstandings (eg. misunderstanding a question for a pre-announcement). These issues and others that appear while talking in a conversation require the use of repair mechanisms, which helps to solve any problem in talk-in-interaction. Finally, another key concept in CA is preference, which provides accountable information of the accomplished actions in an interaction, for instance, if the action is an invitation, the preferred answer would be an acceptance, while the dispreferred answer would be a declination.

In this regard, any modifications to the interaction, such as the number of parties involved, expressing a dispreferred response, etcetera, shape how the participants take their turns at talk.

Turn-taking

In an interaction, one person talks at a time, providing and receiving information in an organized manner that is organized by turn-taking (Jefferson, Sacks, & Schegloff, 1974). When we communicate, it means, undeniably, that people are restricted to other people's turn, as it is impossible to talk with someone if we are not judging what was said, waiting actively to take a turn (Clift, 2016). Therefore, organizing and managing when to talk and who talks next is connected to a turn-taking system. In fact, Jefferson, Sacks, and Schegloff (1974) detailed a model that still stands uncontested, which contains a set of, what they called, apparent facts:

1. Speaker-change recurs, or at least occurs.
2. Overwhelmingly, one party talks at a time.
3. Occurrences of more than one speaker at a time are common, but brief.
4. Transitions (from one turn to the next) with no gap and no overlap are common. Together with transitions characterized by slight overlap, they make up the vast majority of transitions.
5. Turn order is not fixed, but varies.
6. Turn size is not fixed, but varies.
7. Length of conversation is not specified in advance.
8. What parties say is not specified in advance.
9. Relative distribution of turns is not specified in advance.
10. Number of parties can vary.
11. Talk can be continuous or discontinuous.
12. Turn-allocation techniques are obviously used. A current speaker may select a next speaker (as when he addresses a question to another party); or parties may self-select in starting to talk.
13. Various 'turn-constructual units' are employed; e.g., turns can be projectedly 'one word long', or they can be sentential in length.
14. Repair mechanisms exist for dealing with turn-taking errors and violations; e.g., if two parties find themselves talking at the same time, one of them will stop prematurely, thus repairing the trouble. (pp. 700-701)

Some points are not concerned directly with turn-taking, although each element added in interaction also modifies how the turns will be organized (eg. changing the number of parties).

Regardless of turns, Jefferson, Sacks, and Schegloff (1974) claimed that when people initiate a turn, trying to provide a relevant turn, it is also labeled as a completion point. Although Jefferson, Sacks, and Schegloff (ibid), Atkinson and Heritage (1984), and Sidnell (2010) indicated in an interaction, people may provide a *possible* completion point that the next speaker may judge as a relevant turn. This space of a possible completion is addressed as monitor space (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984), in other words, when the next speaker judges whether to accept or not the previous speaker's action (invitation, offer, command, etcetera).

Along the same lines, between the turns, some silences can be interpreted as the end of a turn (inter-turn silence) or within a turn (intra-turn silence) (Clift, 2016). Silences are part of conversations, but when “there is no uptake, should that speaker choose to deal with the incipient silence, TCU beginning organization and TCU ending organization provide alternative sets of resources”¹ (Ochs, Schegloff, & Thompson, 1996, p. 95). This statement was supported by Clift (2016), who provided examples in which the speakers tended to overextend what was said after a long silence because none of the recipients started a turn. Therefore, intra-turn silences may be misunderstood as inter-turn silences producing overlaps.

Moreover, Jefferson, Sacks, and Schegloff (1974), and more recently, Clift (2016), demonstrated that overlapping is common in conversation and usually non problematic, typically appearing by the end of a turn, taking the last two or three words of a sentence. In this regard, unless the parties consider the overlap problematic, it does not interfere with the conversation progress (Clift, 2016). However, in the case of a misunderstanding, people need

¹ TCU, Turn Constructional Unit.

to clarify this issue by using repair mechanisms (Jefferson, Sacks, & Schegloff, 1974), retaking some previous turns to identify the matter.

Hence, the aforementioned applies to calls and face-to-face interactions, but for in-person interactions, the most noticeable features are gaze and gesture. In respect to gaze, Goodwin (1980) and Atkinson and Heritage (1984) stated that at some point in the current turn, the recipient will gaze back. A problem related to *at some point* is that sometimes the current speaker has to retake the turn, without achieving the completion point nor stating a relevant turn (Goodwin, 1980). In Atkinson and Heritage (1984) and Clift's (2016) researches, they admitted that addressing the recipient before providing sentences helped to avoid restarting turns or using repair mechanisms. Other strategies adopted by the participants were gestures, body movements, and fillers (*eh, uh, ah*, etc.), applying them to obtain the recipient's gaze. In Clift (2016), this topic was expanded to express that there were cases in which participants looked away during a turn but did not affect their participation. Therefore, it is not a problem when the recipient judges, constructs, and is able to state the next turn coherently.

In providing a relevant turn, as it was exposed, there are many factors working in a turn-taking system. Understanding how the turns are managed in a conversation may help not to overlap with the other participants and to comprehend the intra and inter-silence turns. For researchers, turn-taking helps to understand how people organize who, how, and at what moment a person should initiate or finish a turn. In distributing the turns, the actions and interactions accomplished in a conversation carry out the main part since, as we will see in the following point, turns at talk are shaped by sequence organization.

Sequence Organization

For this research, the concept of sequence organization is profoundly important. Unlike other areas, such as psychology and linguistics, which similarly study one aspect of words and sentences, in CA there is the possibility of analyzing the phenomenon of conversation at a higher level, and thus understanding social actions more easily through sequence organization (Schegloff, 2007). One of the main functions of this concept is to provide communicative actions in an orderly, coherent, and orderly manner. Along the same lines, Schegloff (ibid) mentioned that co-participants are the main subjects who observe and evaluate in detail the interactions of the parties, in order to know how they are positioned in front of the preceding party, and also the type of response that should be given, according to the previous turn.

Since we focus on conversations and their respective analysis, we must emphasize that most of the turns within the sequences occur between two different people, for instance, in pairs. This phenomenon, within CA, and even more specifically, in the analytical study, is known as adjacency pairs, the basic unit on which sequences in conversation are built (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). Every conversation is made up of a basic unit, which are the adjacency pairs, and they are of vital importance for a conversation. Without this unit, the conversation would not exist.

According to Atkinson and Heritage (1984), adjacency pairs consist of sequences which have the following features: (1) Two utterance length; (2) Adjacent positioning of component utterances; (3) Different speakers producing each utterance (p. 32). To understand this sequence of adjacency pairs, it is also necessary to understand that this unit is divided into more than one speaker, and in a conversation, the first part is the one that initiates a response, which is expected. The clearest example of this is greeting a person. When one person greets

someone else, the other is expected to respond to the greeting, since the two form a sequence and do not present themselves as individual units. This same event is usually repeated on occasions such as farewells, requests, offers, question-answer pairs, among other examples of everyday situations that occur on a daily basis.

Additionally, Schegloff (2007) mentioned that what he calls a *base pair*, can be expanded in three different parts: The first before the first pair part (FPP); the second after the second pair part (SPP); and finally between the FPP and the SPP, as can be seen in the following scheme:

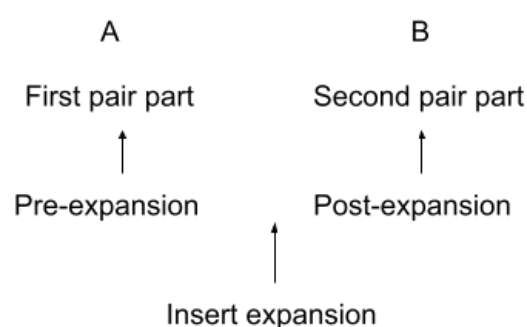


Figure 1. Expansions in adjacency pairs (Schegloff, 2007).

In a conversation people attempt to accomplish actions in an interaction, such as invitations, greetings, etcetera. So, when a speaker initiates an action, this speaker is oriented to expect a certain answer before receiving it, also called preferred answer, which leads us to the concept of preference.

Preference

In the case of CA, the concept of preference is defined by Atkinson and Heritage (1984) as:

A range of phenomena associated with the fact that choices among nonequivalent courses of action are routinely implemented in ways that reflect an institutionalized ranking of alternatives. Despite its connotations, the term is not intended to reference personal, subjective, or 'psychological' desires or dispositions. (p. 53)

In this regard, Kunitz and Markee (2015) stated that preference in CA helps to visualize whether an action is accomplished without any problems. The authors explained when an action is initiated, for example, a question, the next turn would usually be an answer. Also, answering would be the preferred pattern, while silences, misunderstandings, disagreements, or even avoiding the question, may be considered as the dispreferred pattern.

As proposed by Clift (2016) preference responds to a bias, which is related to the interaction between preferred structures to be used or chosen over dispreferred ones. Furthermore, hesitation or delay usually does not appear in preferred responses, thus the following characteristics can be found in short silence instances:

(1) they are delayed by pauses, and/or (2) they are introduced with prefaces (markers such as 'well' 'uh', partial agreement/ appreciations/ apologies, or qualifications); (3) they include accounts (explanations for not providing preferred response) and (4) a declination component which addresses the first pair part. (Levinson, 1983, as cited in Church, 2004)

Showing dispreference markers also demonstrates that people chose to be polite at expressing dispreference; otherwise, its absence would be impoliteness (Bilmes, 2014).

Hence, a response (preferred or dispreferred) also conveys the individual motivations of a speaker, adding the maintenance of their faces, in other words, their public image (Goffman, 1967, as cited in Lerner, 1996). On this subject, Bilmes (2014) stated people tend to use dispreferred markers thus, politeness is chosen over impoliteness. In fact, Clift (2016) declared sociocultural factors influence preference since cultural norms of a particular place play a role in biasing particular structural features, that is to say, it can shape and influence the way in which turns and sequences are conformed. An example of this is the use of pre-expansions in a sequence, which has the purpose of minimizing the possibility of declination, said request is sometimes answered even before it is stated, as recipients may infer it solely by being exposed to the pre-expansion.

Preference is motivated by solidarity-seeking, and the avoidance of conflicts (Clift, 2016). Selting (1996) for instance, while studying prosodically marked structures labeled as “astonished” or “surprised”, concludes that there is a preference for agreement or alignment by the recipient with the speaker’s astonishment; otherwise, they would later account to the speaker for their lack of alignment, which exhibits an orientation both to the interpretation of astonishment and the preference for alignment. Said phenomenon is linked to the avoidance of conflict, since a dispreferred answer may generate conflict with the speaker’s beliefs. Pauses between the first and the second part of adjacency pairs can also constitute instances of preference. “The timing of a response is best understood as a turn-constructive feature, the first virtual component of a preferred or dispreferred turn format, one without a one-to-one relationship in the actions speakers use it to perform” (Kendrick & Torreira, 2014, as cited in Clift, 2016). That instance of silence, however, opens the door for the speaker to propose alternatives to receive a preferred response.

As we can see, analysts cannot assume a person's choice was their personal choice and not forced by the public image. Bilmes (2014) stated that CA does not aim to understand the speaker's choices because:

(1) CA is not suited to quantification, i.e., it cannot usually produce defensible statistical results and (2) To the extent that CA occupies itself with quantification and empirical generalization, it steps outside of its own unique methodological approach and its core concerns and into the realm of 'normal' social science. (p. 55)

However, what CA can do is expose those choices, managing that information. For example, to understand how relevant the choices for the interaction were, to inspect into the actions accomplished by the participants in an interaction, and so forth.

Repair

As it was stated above, preference is an important aspect when social solidarity is sought in everyday conversations. Also, it is a relevant topic when silences and pauses occur in these ones. In relation to the latter, repair is an essential factor that will be developed in this section.

Repair can be understood as the mechanisms used by speakers and recipients in an interaction to solve problems in speaking, understanding, and hearing (Clift, 2016). This definition is relevant for the purpose of this research since it makes the difference between the foundational concept of repair and the pursuit of a response through reformulations. Therefore, when we talk about repair practices, we may refer to disruptions in "these actions (that) are unique in that they systematically supersede whatever was due next in a turn, thus disrupting the preference for progressivity" (Schegloff, 1979, pp. 277- 278).

Repair is treated by participants as a “priority activity” which takes precedence over turn-taking and preference organization systems (Clift, 2016). It is important to highlight that the term repair is not purely committed to fixing mistakes and errors, since not all errors are corrected and not all talk connected to repair can be considered a mistake. For example, an airplane passing by, which interrupts what has been said (Clift, 2016). Thus, “repair is neither contingent upon error, nor limited to replacement and nothing is, in principle, excludable from the class repairable” (Schegloff et al., 1977).

Before talking about examples of situations that are in need of repair -which are directly connected with reformulations- we have to distinguish between the types of repairs that will be part of our research. These categories are incidental in how interactions are organized. The first category refers to self- and other- repair (see Fig.2). It is important to remark that this category is not only limited by speaker and recipient relations but also to parties, namely, not only to individuals, but to co-participants of their particular groups (Clift, 2016). The second category refers to self- and other-initiated repair. It is relevant for the purposes of our research to state that “self-initiated repair [...] interrupts the progressivity of the turn, whereas other-initiated repair [...] interrupts the progressivity of the sequence” (Kitzinger & Mandelbaum, 2013, p. 231). Related to this matter, Clift (2016) concluded that repair is hence an action by itself, and also an instrument for other actions.

1. Self-initiated self-repair (SISR) a) SISR in same TCU b) SISR in transition space c) Third position repair	3. Other-initiated self-repair
2. Self-initiated other-repair ‘Word searches’ and anticipatory completions	4. Other-initiated other-repair

Figure 2. Forms of repair, with preference ordering. (Clift, 2016)

Clift (2016) explained that some distinctions can be made between the stages of repair, and who initiates them. For instance, we can recognize that both a self-repair and an other-repair situation may emerge from either self or other-initiation. In other words, repair can be triggered either by the current speaker or by the recipient; equivalently, it can be completed by the current speaker or by a receiver (Kääntä, 2010a).

Repair practices are a widely studied phenomenon that advocates both mundane conversation and institutional talk. Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) viewed repair as “addressed to recurring problems in hearing, speaking or understanding” (p. 361) on the ongoing talk that may result in a problem at the moment of generating reciprocal understanding. Kääntä (2010a) remarked that when this process is initiated, it interrupts the appearing talk and introduces a boundary sequence into the primary activity core. Once the trouble is resolved, participants of the talk can continue the initial activity.

Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) also proclaimed -related to the organizational relatedness of self- and other- initiated repair- that there is deep-seated commanding preference for self-correction over other-correction. Kääntä (2010a) relied on the assertion that a moment before other-initiations start, a chance is given for the current speaker to produce both a self-initiation and self-repair situation. The author remarked that self-initiated self-completed repair is the favored and the most used repair model in everyday conversation.

Finally, Kääntä (ibid), related to the matter of correction in classroom interactions, stated that the activities that occur in classroom settings are target oriented and consequently they deal with divergent types of concerns in understanding and producing talk. However, the author remarked that this is a common and essential part of the interaction and not only a border sequence that might be dealt with. Finally, Kääntä (ibid) explained that when this part sequence is resolved, the main action can be reestablished.

Institutional Talk: CA in the Classroom

Institutional talk in the educational setting is different from others such as meetings or interviews. Seedhouse (2009) declared the institutional core goal in L2 classroom interaction is teachers teach the L2 to the students. It is pertinent to note that the institutional core goal is the same no matter the place or the pedagogical methods applied "as the pedagogical focus varies, so the organization of the interaction varies" (Seedhouse, 2015, p. 373). In this regard, what was expressed is a general statement since the interactions can be either learner-centered or teacher-centered, implying the interactions would be organized differently.

Furthermore, there is a set of properties supporting the previous statement to affirm that educational interactions work differently from any other kind of institutional interaction. According to Seedhouse (2015), these properties can be applied to any L2 classroom as they are inherited to the institutional core goal. These properties are presented below:

- 1) "Language is both the vehicle and object of instruction" (Long, 1983, as cited in Seedhouse, 2009), being teaching and learning L2 only possible through language.
- 2) Being part of a L2 classroom means that the interaction between teachers and students evolve since by using the L2, the teacher can evaluate the students' state and acquisition of language, while the students also provide evidence of how efficient the relationship between the pedagogical strategies and the interactions applied are progressing in the L2 classroom.
- 3) The students provide information of what is expected of them to produce, so teachers evaluate the interaction and the students' participation. "This property does not imply that all learner utterances in the L2 are followed by a direct and

overt verbalized evaluation by the teacher (...). It means that all learner utterances are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher” (p. 3).

In the following subsections, an explanation of the foundations of CA in the context of the educational setting is shown, starting with the concept of turn-taking.

Turn-taking in the Classroom

In a classroom, turn-taking is generally organized by the teacher. Consequently, teachers’ authority is reflected in allocating the turns, nominating students or the whole class, and starting turns after a student’s turn (Koole, 2012; Sari, 2020). Sari (ibid) expressed that it is clearly teachers’ authority, but their power is not absolute since students can nominate themselves for the next turn by raising their hand. Although it would be a teacher who would assign them the upcoming turn.

There are cases in which students’ turn is choral. For example, Koole (2012) presented some instances in which teachers uttered incomplete sentences for the students to complete them. “It provides an intra-turn completion point, where a recipient can initiate anticipatory completion, resulting in a collaborative completion sequence” (Lerner, 1991, as cited in Wong & Zhang, 2010), calling them compound TCU. These incomplete elicitations are accompanied by gestures and gazes (Walper, 2021). Hence, teachers can accompany what they are uttering with nonverbal elements to support students' turn completion. Consequently, what was stated by a teacher’s turn can be validated as a relevant turn by students through gaze and gestures (Markee, 2015). However, Markee (ibid) declared that nods may be problematic when the students cannot apply what was said since nodding means confirmation in this context. In the same research, while giving feedback after an evaluation, the students provided nods and gestures, indicating that, in the following turns, they will express their future actions.

In the case of EFL, a turn starts slowly with some fillers, but then the speech is more fluent (Gardner, 2008). Gardner (ibid) rarely found cases in which a turn is abandoned by a student as teachers usually asked pertinent questions based on students' abilities in the foreign language. Although in a class, every student may have developed one skill more than the others, so students are limited in participating by how developed their skills are for the diverse activities (Gardner, 2008; 2013).

Sequence Organization in the Classroom

The role of the teacher in the classroom not only allows us to identify this research as a pedagogical topic, but also, in turn, to identify a subject that has the main influence on the structure of conversations in the classroom. As Gardner (2013) mentioned "the teacher is the one who mainly imparts knowledge to students, generally corrects students and controls turn-taking and sequence organization, and who has greater rights to initiate and close sequences" (p.1).

The organization within the classroom can be very varied due to the heterogeneity that occurs according to each establishment, course and teacher's management. For this reason, Seedhouse (2004) argued that the organization of classroom interaction, specifically of turn-taking and sequence, varies as the pedagogical focus varies. This assertion allows us, as researchers, to have an idea that the analysis that will be developed throughout this research may have variations that are directly related to the pedagogical focus in each case.

One of the contributions of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) was to be able to identify some complex structures that are generated in the classroom. As explained above, the organization of a conversation marks both the rhythm and the type of response that is expected. In this case, the authors suggest that in this space, the organizational sequence starts with the first turn, which is at the teacher's disposal, while the response should be given by a

student, who in turn would expect a response or feedback from the teacher, which would immediately take the third turn. Mehan (1979) called this event Initiation - Response - Evaluation (IRE), in which the teacher and a student participate directly and then return again to the teacher, respectively. Furthermore, the author established that regularly, the teacher has the knowledge of the answers to their own questions, which allows them to take the third turn without problems to give feedback. Also, the students, being within such a structured system, learn from a young age their role in the IRE.

Finally, the importance of the IRE in the classroom lies in the space that is generated in between. According to Lee (2007), this shift, as it is where feedback is given, is the moment in which errors are corrected, doubts are resolved, or the answer is given as correct, which means that it can lead to other sequences, such as a reformulation or repair- initiation.

Preference in the Classroom

According to Schegloff (2007), teachers use preference with educational purposes, more commonly by formulating questions with built-in answers, which leads to a preferred answer from the students. Margutti (2006) has also explored different techniques that teachers apply when making a question with a preferred answer, such as binary questions (up or down, mountain or plains). The format of binary questions as well as yes-no interrogatives, reduces the number of possible answers from the student, which helps the teacher to pursue a preferred answer more efficiently (ibid).

In the cases when someone nominates a person to take the next turn, this person is forced to speak (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). Additionally, when it is a question-answer sequence, in which a next speaker is designated, their answer becomes automatically relevant (Aline & Hosada, 2013). Then, the teacher may assess the student, providing preferred or dispreferred feedback. Hellermann (2002) observed cases in which

teachers provided dispreferred feedback to the students' answers, but the teachers did not include what the student declared in their next turn or did not evaluate the students answers or was weakly assessed, as 'okay', with a confusing intonation. Teachers' intonation is relevant as it indicates their orientation to include or not the students' responses as part of the lesson. Furthermore, repetitions are used by teachers to delimit the students' response, in other words, to stop overexpansion when the teachers identify how the students are building their turns.

Students also participate in avoiding problems in interaction. Pekarek (2015) found that L2 learners frequently provide yes-but type utterances. In other words, they initiate their turns producing first a confirmation of what was said and then their individual opinions (opposed to the former speaker). The students present these kinds of responses to diminish the disagreement, but these turns are still dispreferred responses since they typically present delay.

When Pekarek (2015) studied less advanced students, they demonstrated fewer strategies than the advanced learners. It was expected since students are limited by their linguistic competencies to express their opinions, so for less advanced students, it was more challenging to show, for example, weak disagreement. Moreover, Church (2004) declared that people tend to follow what is accepted to say, for example diminishing disagreement by agreeing first with what we do not agree with. In this regard, the author claimed, individual motivations and linguistic preferences tend to overlap, but as we have expressed above, we can analyze only talk-in-interaction in contextualized settings and explain the phenomenon from what the participants accomplish in the interaction.

In the classroom setting, students adapt their turns to the preferred organization of the teachers. Hence, students can predict and project which actions have started to produce a

possible relevant turn, expecting to represent the preferred response (judged by the teacher). Otherwise, students and teachers will have to recur to the repair mechanisms.

Repair in the Classroom

After reviewing the important topic of preference in institutional interactions, the last part of this review is going to be committed to the repair practices. This is pivotal, since repair is the core mechanism in conversations that operates to fix troubles such as silences and dispreferred responses whenever they occur.

Bolden et al. (2012) indicated that previous conversation analytic research has established that when a sequence-initiating activity starts and a response is properly missing, delayed or just deficient, speakers may use a spectrum of practices for pursuing a response. They highlighted that the way in which a response is pursued may expose the speaker's analysis of what the difficulty in producing a response might be. Additionally, the researchers remark that pursuing a response might deal with the absence of an immediate reply (Pomerantz, 1984, as cited in Bolden et al., 2012). This lack of response may be symptomatic of problems of knowledge, understanding, reference or even of forthcoming disagreement. This is relevant in terms of pursuing a response in a classroom since dispreference may also be understood as a problem of reference or incipient disagreement.

Bolden et al. (2012) assured that speakers possess a diversity of types of systems for pursuing a response, which may include the ones that organize sequences and turns. They also added a third type of resource, a repair-based one. This means of repair might be understood as a substitution of an indexical reference with a full-form remark. The authors also concluded that speakers tend to use an indexical repair as a moment to re-complete their turns. By that, refreshing the pertinence of a response.

In classroom interaction, pedagogical activities focus on correct answers that are understood as preferred (Kääntä, 2010b). The researcher explained that teachers tend to react socially negatively when a dispreferred answer is presented. This may end up, for instance, in silence or in corrective feedback. This is also connected with the relations of power that exist in classroom settings, which are an interesting topic to be developed. However, this is not the focus of our study, and thereby will not be developed here.

Additionally, Kääntä (2010b) developed the concept of the IRE (initiation-response-evaluation) sequence in relation to how teachers introduce or implement repair. This sequence is part of the activities implemented in classroom settings. This third-turn practice describes how trouble sources can be either repaired by teachers or by students. Therefore, Kääntä (ibid) stated that in classroom interaction we can observe teacher-initiated teacher-repair (teachers carry out the repair), and two forms directly related with students: teacher-initiated self-repair (where the designated student repairs themselves after a repair has been initiated by the teacher) and teacher-initiated peer-repair (when teachers require accurate responses from another group of students).

One crucial part of our study is the matter of silence in classroom interaction and consequent repair or reformulations that are produced either by teachers or students. In this respect, research on both institutional talk and everyday conversation has revealed “how silence in the TRP and beyond is employed by interactants to shape their emerging turns of action as dispreferred” (Schegloff 2007; Pomerantz 1984; Macbeth 2000, 2004; Hellermann 2003; Margutti 2004; McHoul 1990, as cited in Kääntä, 2010b). Kääntä (ibid) explained that in everyday conversations, silences longer than one beat are marked as dispreferred. In classroom interactions, the author explained that silence in the third turn has proved to be an interactional instrument to express dispreference. They also remarked that other analysts have emphasized that when teachers delay the third turn, thus creating a silence, apparently alters

the subsequent organization of the established interaction. Kääntä (ibid) indicated that this situation emerges from the fact that the teacher considers the student response as problematic.

With regard to silence, Kääntä (ibid) concluded that teachers utilized this resource to construct variously organized third turn actions. These particular methods may delay the production of the third turn, which is then generated. From these studies, we can conclude that students treat the silence as a type of repair initiator and consequently they produce a repair to help their classmates. Teacher's third turn silent actions are a strong resource that make students be engaged into the class and therefore participate in the repair endeavor. Such silent actions may be followed by a teacher's correction, assertion, or restatement.

To close this section and move to the analysis of our own data, we must state the relevant differences between the different types of corrections that are performed in classroom interactions. Lyster (2015) stated that "one way to classify different types of CF (Corrective Feedback) is to distinguish between either providing target forms or not" (p. 213). The author explained that a distinction can be made, for instance, between reformulations and prompts. On the one hand, Lyster (ibid) explained that reformulations can include explicit correction and recasts. Both resources equip learners with target reformulations. On the other hand, prompts are indicators that push students to produce self-repair without being supplied with the correct form. This category includes resources such as elicitations, repetitions of learners' errors, etc.

The focus of our study centers on the importance of the feedback that is done when silence and dispreferred responses are presented. Additionally, it focuses on how reformulations and to some extent certain types of prompts can be of great help to pursue a response in a classroom setting. This prompts the following research questions:

- What are the interactional/pedagogical functions around the concept of preference in the reformulation of an instruction or question in language classes in the context of the teaching-learning of English as a foreign language?
- What are the particular linguistic and sequential characteristics of the instances studied?
- How can these findings be translated into effective strategies and techniques in terms of fostering student participation in the classroom?

Next, we present the methods through which we intend to answer these questions.

Methodology

The general objective of this thesis is to describe the analysis of the interaction, as well as the interactional and pedagogical functions in front of the concept of the preference. The main focus will be on the reformulation, either in an instruction or in a question, to find out effective strategies and techniques in terms of having more student participation in classes.

Settings and Participants

First of all, it is important to highlight the video-mediated recordings which provided us with a large amount of material to analyze the interactions and also the speech of students in different contexts, that is, online classes and of different subjects. Therefore, the emphasis was not always the same, for example, on some occasions there are classes in which students receive new content. On the other hand, some other lessons were more related to seminars, hence, the students talked more than the teachers.

Secondly, thanks to the progression regarding the pandemic, face-to-face activities were no longer prohibited. However, the use of masks in small and / or crowded places did not prevent us from going to the University and gathering the data. We could record a vast

amount of data which was entirely face-to-face interactions in classes at Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación.

The participants of our study were teachers at the University and their corresponding students. Mainly, we tried to focus on classes where teachers tended to speak more so that we could gather more responses. However, we have video recordings where the students talked even more than the teachers, but in this case our focus was on the interaction that occurred between them, since these took place not only in workshops sessions but also in seminars.

Building a Collection

The form in which we proceeded in our research was about collecting a large amount of data which were video-mediated recordings during the year 2021, gathering thirty-nine in total. The data was analyzed through a coding system that has the following points to highlight.

First of all, we proceeded with assigning the video's name in order to classify the recordings in the mediated data. Secondly, we put the time stamp, which indicates the specific minutes and seconds where the utterance occurred. Thirdly, the name of the video-example, here we described with a short number of words what the interaction is about. After this, there is the target line in which we reproduced the target sentence or question that was intended to analyze. Lastly, the reformulation, where we searched for the reformulation of the target sentence or question.

The second part of the coding starts with the type of question, and teacher's name. In the case of the type of question, we considered the wh-questions, yes or no questions, and the mixed questions in which both types were mixed during the reformulation. The names of the teachers were only relevant in order to have more clarity in the classification of the data at the

beginning of the analysis. However, they were displayed anonymously in this research in order to protect their identities. Following the coding's procedure, we have the section of comments, in which we had space to elaborate more on the context of the example and add relevant information. Then, we begin with the interrogatives: (1) "Does the question get a response?" Additionally, the options "yes" and "no"; (2) "if so, after how many attempts?"; and finally (3) "is there a reformulation after a response?" The last question was related to the reformulation after the response, which had the options "yes" and "no".

From the whole selection of video-mediated recordings we found 131 excerpts of potential examples to be used in this research. To achieve this task, we assigned an equal amount of data (measured in minutes) to each participant of the group.

Regarding the face-to-face recordings, there were 6 teachers who answered the Google Forms questionnaire providing permission to attend their classes so that we could record their lessons. In total, 12 lessons were documented, which were later classified into 3 groups: Lectures, seminars, and workshops. Most of the videos were divided into 3 parts, due to the length of the classes. Further, We used the following classification:

Video set	Each total video's time	Teacher	Course	Class format	Viewed by
-T1_V1_P1 -T1_V1_P2 -T1_V1_P3	1 hour 16 minutes 38 seconds	x1	Oral English	Lecture	r1
-T1_V2_P1 -T1_V2_P2 -T1_V2_P3	1 hour 15 minutes 33 seconds	x1	Oral English	Lecture	r1
-T2_V1_P1 -T2_V1_P2 -T2_V1_P3	1 hour 22 minutes 57 seconds	x2	Written English	Lecture	r2
-T2_V2_P1 -T2_V2_P2 -T2_V2_P3	1 hour 1 minute 8 seconds	x2	Literature	Lecture	r3

-T2_V3_P1 -T2_V3_P2 -T2_V3_P3	1 hour 25 minutes 42 seconds	x2	Literature	Lecture	r4 & r5
-T3_V1_P1 -T3_V1_P2 -T3_V1_P3	1 hour 14 minutes 16 seconds	x3	Phonetics	Lecture	r4 & r5
-T3_V2_P1 -T3_V2_P2	1 hour 1 minute, 25 seconds	x3	Phonetics	Workshop	r6
-T4_V1_P1 -T4_V1_P2	1 hour 9 minutes, 14 seconds	x4	Written English	Lecture	r6
-T5_V1_P1 -T5_V1_P2 -T5_V1_P3	1 hour 26 minutes 27 seconds	x5	Oral English	Student seminar	r7
-T5_V2_P1 -T5_V2_P2 -T5_V2_P3	1 hour 10 minutes 46 seconds	x5	Written English	Workshop	r3
-T6_V1_P1 -T6_V1_P2	1 hour 2 minutes, 23 seconds	x6	Evaluación en TEFL	Lecture	r7
-T6_V2	20 minutes, 15 seconds	x6 ²	Evaluación en TEFL	Lecture and seminar	r2 ³

The video recordings were carried out during the month of August. Throughout this process, we considered it was quite important to record the audio separately from the video. This, in order to have more than one source to gather the information relevant for this research.

“A number of factors inform the insistence on the use of recording technologies as a means of data collection over subjects' reports, observers' notes, or unaided intuitions.” (Atkinson & Heritage 1984, p.3). As these authors stated, the use of new recording technologies was the main means to gain the final results in order to obtain the conversation

² x stands for teacher

³ r stands for researcher

analysis. Moreover, the data that was collected by video and audio recording was transcribed respecting the Jeffersonian transcription system.

Transcription Conventions

When it comes to CA, the tools for keeping record of the interactions are a paramount part of the study. Bryman and Hardy (2004) sustained that the first approaches to recording conversation were made in the early 1960s, gaining technological advances over the years and even leading to video recordings to capture and preserve social interaction that is fundamental for CA. The importance of gathering data and transcribing real-life conversations remains in the evidence of such instances, as one can study with scrutiny every detail. These details not only have to do with the grammatical aspect of communication, but also with the phonetics, pauses, amongst others. Likewise, the set of conventions utilized for the interaction analysis in this research was the Jeffersonian transcription system, created by Gail Jefferson (2004).

Furthermore, it is a fact that the Jeffersonian transcription system was initially developed for audio data on English conversation analysis (Clift, 2016). However, this author recognizes that “the set of conventions has accordingly widened to accommodate the demands of video data and data across a range of languages” (Clift, *ibid*, p. 52). This means that nowadays, CA has evolved in its transcription system as well as in its language spectrum.

On another note, there are other types of conventions for transcription data, such as the multimodal transcription system by Mondada (2019). This system was built under the premise that the body is the vehicle for being and moving through the world (Mondada, 2014). Moreover, this author affirmed that this set of conventions facilitates the annotations on all possibly relevant embodied actions that vary from gestures and gazes to body postures and movements, with actions that can happen simultaneously either with talk or silence (Mondada, 2019).

Data Evaluation

In this section we will evaluate the data that we collected. It is presented in both the video-mediated data and face-to-face recordings in which we expose and explain the pros and cons of the data as we collected them. For example, the most difficult settings, or also, if there were any issues with the audio because of the recordings' quality, amongst other factors.

On the one hand, there is the video-mediated data that was recorded during the COVID-19 pandemic in the year 2021. On the other hand, there were video recordings that were filmed by the researchers, and for this specific data there are other pros and cons to point out.

Pros in data collection:

1. In the case of the video-mediated data, they were in possession of the English Department, so the access was not a concern.
2. To gather face-to-face information, we were able to film during some lessons from which we got teachers' and students' consent. The recording devices were appropriate for our means.
3. The videos were available in a shared Google folder, both video-mediated and face-to-face recordings.
4. The audio files were collected with higher quality so that we could get clear recordings.
5. The quality of the face-to-face videos were good enough to study the interaction between teachers and students.
6. The possibility of having two different formats of the data allowed us to identify more examples for our collection.

Cons in data collection:

1. The quality of some online video-mediated recordings was not favorable, although this did not make the analysis impossible to make since the main goal was to listen to the audio. Still, the audio was sometimes affected by the lower quality of the video.
2. There were videos in which the classroom was larger and expanded, which meant that sometimes when teachers were asking questions expecting responses, these were done in chorus, leading to a lack of understanding because of the amount of noise.
3. In the online video-mediated recordings, there is not enough direct and visual interaction between teachers and students. Therefore, in those cases, teachers tended to speak in between long pauses or silences.

With the purpose of carrying out this investigation in the most pragmatic way, we have meticulously selected a set of examples from our data collection, from both online and face-to-face lessons. Subsequently, these examples have been thoroughly analyzed and classified according to the patterns into 3 different categories:

Lack of uptake: Lack of response after few attempts which leads to reformulation.

Repair: Formulations that are fixed in order to obtain a response.

Appealing to students: Looking for a response by using negations, imperatives, amongst others.

These patterns contain examples with their corresponding transcriptions, analyzes, and a concluding discussion for each of them.

Data Analysis

This section will display the data analysis pertinent to the selected examples and patterns found from each category, that is to say, Lack of Uptake, Repair, and Appealing to Students. We have gathered a total of 17 excerpts from the data collection with diverse class modalities and course topics. Each one of these examples respond to a variety of patterns, which is the reason some of them have been classified into more than one category, as they could be analyzed from different scopes within the chapters presented. Finally, the outcomes learnt from this analysis will not only serve to identify some paradigms of preference in EFL classrooms but will also contribute to the dialogue of teachers to foster participation and interaction when pursuing a response.

Chapter 1: Lack of uptake

There is a very frequent phenomenon that teachers are more than familiar with, which is the lack of uptake. In these types of situations, we can observe the need to keep on making reformulations because the initial prompt did not receive an answer. It is common to expect several seconds of silence in between reformulations, as well as changes in the agency, preference, format, amongst others.

The following examples fit into the category of lack of uptake, where the insufficiency of communication and reciprocity can be noticed at the moment of formulating and reformulating questions.

Take example 1 situated in a literature class. The teacher is making a comparison between two different poems from T.S Eliot and William Blake. Here, it can be seen that the teacher makes numerous interventions reformulating the original question, as no one in the class seems to reply.

Example 1. VGT_T2_V3_Image.

01 T:→ Why (.) my-so my question to you is **why↑ (1.0) do you think (0.2)**
 02 **that T.S Eliot represents this supposedly natural encounter (1.1)**
 03 **of the tiger with its prey .hhh in this twisted kind of way?↓ .hhh**
 04 After having said that he is in a pit .hhh and it's-uh: (1.3)
 05 i-it's in the pit and it's-it's (.) not free to do any of that
 06 (0.3) and it's just (.) irritable like (0.5) obnoxious like (0.9)
 07 tiresome.
 08 (1.5)
 09 T:→ Why do you think he's changing the concept by which we understand
 10 **the tiger? (1.3) so much↓**
 11 (9.1)
 12 T:→ .hhh what I mean is (.) what kind of image of the tiger does he
 13 want us to have? (0.7) right? .hhh I'm not telling you what has
 14 changed in the world about tigers but I'm saying like (1.0)
 15 wha:-what kind of (0.3) idea of the tiger that he-that-does he want
 16 **us to have?↓ .hhh unlike the one that we have from William Blake**
 17 (0.4) right?
 18 (9.5)
 19 S: Like (0.4) the tiger (.) is small? (.) like in comparison to the
 20 other one-like (0.6) not small in size (.) but in like a-the
 21 mental representation.
 22 T: Right (0.6) right the mental >representation that's
 23 interesting<

In line 01, the teacher poses an open-ended question in the form of a wh- question. This question gets extended to line 07, and it is followed by a silence of 1.5 seconds where the class has a chance to speak. Nevertheless, no student answers, which can be attributed to the extension of the question, and as a result, it can seem more complex to answer. Subsequently, the teacher takes another turn from lines 09 and 10 to simplify the question by asking about a concept, narrowing down the number of possible answers. Again, it does not get answered, and instead it is followed by a silence of 9.1 seconds in line 11. Then, the teacher switches to a “what kind of” type of question in line 12. This is followed by an account of themselves in line 13. Then, in line 16, the teacher transforms the question into one that appeals directly to the class by using the pronoun “us”. Together with this, the teacher makes a contrast between

two different authors, as it is shown in line 16 when the word ‘unlike’ is employed. Finally, this leads to receiving a candidate answer in line 19, which gets positively assessed in line 22.

As it could be seen in example 1, the teacher made an intervention of 15 lines for students to respond to their questions and pausing from time to time to give space for a discussion. It is important to focus on the last reformulation before the response since it may be the most effective option to get the students to talk. This intervention was the only one that presented a duality, creating a dissimilarity to give more clues about the preferred response. After this turn follows a long pause, but eventually, one of the students’ answers. Evidently, the student’s answer aims to the last reformulation, which can be proven by the content of the answer, for it responds to the target line ‘The idea of the tiger that he wants us to have’. The preferred response is about the idea of the tiger being small and trivial, which can be read from lines 19 to 21.

In this second example, the teacher’s prompt question focuses on the information retrieval from previous lessons, but the lack of uptake leads them to take three turns in a row in order to pursue a response.

Example 2. VGT_T4_8_Defendant.

01 T:→ .hhh do you remember the vocabulary on: Crime and Punishment and
 02 all of that?
 03 (5.6)
 04 T:→ Do you remember? (0.4) That we talked about these (0.4) things?
 05 (.)about the law (0.8) uh: the defendant (.) the conviction↑
 06 (1.3)
 07 T:→ w-who was the defendant↓ (.) in the trial↓
 08 (8.2)
 09 S: The one being accused
 10 T: Ye:s, exactly. The person being accused. Right.

This is another case where the teacher has to change the preference to get a response. In the two first lines, the teacher asks the students if they remember the vocabulary from past lessons. As there is no response, the question gets repeated in line 04, this time with an

ellipsis construction, that is, a shortened version: “Do you remember?”. This is followed by a reminder of some of the words from the vocabulary. Afterwards, in line 07, a new reformulation is made, changing not only the format of the question, but also the preference. The teacher does not expect an answer about the vocabulary anymore, but an answer about one of the characters. This last attempt was successful and got an assessed reply.

As it can be appreciated, the teacher has to make several attempts and switch the preference to get the students to reply, which does not happen until line 09. Furthermore, the silences also play a role in turn-taking and question reformulating, as it has been shown so far. For instance, it can take only one second of silence for the teacher to fill in this void in the interaction, for it can be understood as a failed delivery of the question.

Similarly, this following example shows the teacher reformulating the original question multiple times, asking the students if there is anything they think is missing in the resumes they read during the class.

Example 3. VGT_T4_V1_P2_Resume.

01 T:→ Is there anything you miss? (0.6) I mean (.) when you read
 02 those CV's (.) or resumes (1.7) thinking of-I mean thinking
 03 f-f-from the chilean conception of the resume **is there anything**
 04 **missing?↓**
 05 (5.0)
 06 T: Uh:m missing like (0.5) what?↓ information? (0.4) yeah↑ like key:=
 07 S1: Ah [xxx]=
 08 T: =[in]formation o[r] basic informatio[n
 09 S1: =[Es de-] [es de lo: de lo que leímos?
 10 T:→ Yeah (1.1) Do you thin- eh do you think th-the-the-there is
 11 something missing like I-I don't know (0.4) essential information
 12 like (.) maybe an ID number? (.)
 13 S1: ((raises their hand))
 14 T: Oh yeah?
 15 S1: Eh:m (0.6) *de las dos personas que leí* (0.5) *eh: bueno* (0.4) *la*
 16 *experiencia de nosotros eh siento que faltó como el estado*
 17 *civil↓=*
 18 T: Oh:

19 S1: =El estado civil, donde vive porque: nosotros tenemos que poner
 20 donde vivimos (1.0) eh: o sea (.) donde nacimos también, y: eso
 21 parece que era?
 22 S2: y el rut
 23 S1: y el rut.
 24 (3.6)
 25 T: Or place of birth (1.1) ID number
 26 S: El año en que nació también
 27 S: Oh:
 28 (8.7)
 29 T: So we have some key elements here definitely, right?
 30 (3.2)
 31 T: I agree

From lines 01 to 04, the teacher proposes a yes/no question by saying “Is there anything you miss?”, reformulating twice afterwards. Then, followed by a silence of 5 seconds, the teacher retakes the turn and makes another reformulation adding the concepts “information” and “key information” in lines 06 and 08. Then, in line 07, there is a student trying to ask a question before the teacher finishes their turn, and after finishing, the student immediately asks the question in line 09. Moreover, in lines 10 through 12, the teacher answers their question and reformulates the main question once more. After this, the student finally provides an answer in Spanish, from lines 15 to 21, where the teacher occasionally remarks with “oh”. Finally, after the student is finished, the teacher assesses the answer from lines 25 to 31.

Clearly, the lack of uptake begins in line 05, where the teacher already ended their turn and waited for a reply, unsuccessfully. Then, as it was previously stated, the teacher adds more words to have more precise information, along with changing the preference from a yes/no question to a wh- question. After this, there is another shift in both the format of the question and the preference, where the teacher first proposes a yes/no question, and then an alternative one: “There is something missing like parts (...) like maybe an ID number?”. Seemingly, this reformulation holding alternatives is the most effective one, as a student takes

the turn to give a candidate answer, which, after an interaction involving brainstorming, the reply is taken as the preferred answer. This is proven by the assessments such as “right?” and “I agree”, shown in the final lines.

So far, there have been several turns that teachers allow themselves to take in order to pursue a response, which eventually seems to arrive after giving some hints about the preferred answer. This following example is not the exception, although it can be observed that the teacher in this class has not reformulated as much as in the other excerpts. Here, the students are asked questions about the information present in a video about universities. Additionally, they were asked to pay attention to the modal verb “might” while watching the video.

Example 4. VGT_T1_V2_P2_Hidden thing.

- 01 T:→ Question number two, what is the main hidden thing↓ that
 02 universities (0.4) should↑ do
 03 (3.1)
 04 T: This is when “might” came into play
 05 (3.8)
 06 S: Eh-I don’t really think that they might replace the departments to
 07 be just some more like (0.2) e:h (0.5) values things? I don’t
 08 know? (.) valuable things?
 09 T: Yes: (.) might be↑ there’s another question for that though↓ [but
 10 we can answer it]
 11 S: [xxx
 12 oh last one yeah]
 13 T: Yes last question

As it is appreciated in lines number 01 and 02, the teacher states the question asking for a hidden thing that universities should do. After a period of silence, the teacher retakes the turn in line 04 and hints the students that this is where the word “might” makes an appearance, the one that the students were asked to focus on. This is done as a way of retrieving information that was just seen. After another period of silence, a student offers a candidate answer to the question in line 06. However, in line 09, the teacher answers that that

is an answer for another question. In line 11, the student realizes that the answer fits the last question on the set, and finally in line 13, the teacher confirms the student's that they indeed gave the answer for the last question.

Although the teacher receives a response after only 2 turns, the dispreference of the answer is noticeable. This is shown in line 09, where the input of the teacher is "yes, might be", and then adds "there's another question for that though", alluding to the fact that the student indeed gave an answer for a question that was not asked yet. Moreover, there has been a resource that most of the teachers have employed in order to pursue a response, which is hinting the preferred answer until it is finally accomplished. This also occurred in the previous example, where the teacher guided the students by reminding them the answer had the word "might".

Next in order, example number 5 follows the same patterns of the teacher leading the path towards the students' answer. In this phonetics class, the teacher is pursuing a response about the pronunciation of a particular word but has to reformulate several times.

Example 5. VGT_T3_V1_Weak form.

01 T:→ When I say, she is laughing at the clown (1.1) What's the
 02 pronunciation of this word?
 03 (2.5)
 04 T:→ Would you use a strong or a weak form here?
 05 (4.0)
 06 T: Come on, say something
 07 (0.6)
 08 S: Weak form?
 09 (0.5)
 10 T: Weak form, right? That's eh the: (0.3) the most common
 11 pronunciation (.) fo-for these words↓ (.) for all these weak
 12 form words (1.4) so, we say (.) "it" with a schwa (0.6) okay?

In line 01, the teacher proposes an open-ended question, which receives no answer. Instead, it is followed by 2.5 seconds of silence. After this, in line 04, the teacher negotiates

an answer with a binary question, which gets one after a prompt in line 08. Finally, in line 10, the teacher makes an account of the right answer, just to make sure that everyone is following.

In this particular excerpt, the teacher makes 3 attempts to get students to answer the question, each one with a different approach. First, as stated before, the teacher makes an open-ended wh- question. Secondly, another wh- question is proposed, this time as a binary one. This binarism is key for the excerpt, since the teacher is narrowing the options for the response, hinting just two possible outcomes. Finally, after 4.0 seconds of silence, the teacher appeals directly to the students, making a commanding statement. This last approach leads to a candidate answer in line 08, to which the teacher finally responds with an assessment.

In the next example, the teacher had previously asked a question “what type of assessment is this” that immediately received an answer “formative assessment”, to which the teacher makes a follow-up question:

Example 6. VGT_T6_V1_P1_Types of formative assessments

01 T:→ And what type (0.6) of formative assessment↓
 02 (1.8)
 03 T:→ What type of formative assessment is this
 04 (2.4)
 05 T: You just filled it out (0.7) it's there you know the answer
 06 Ss: An entry ticket
 07 T: An entry ticket, very good

Here, it is shown that the teacher makes a wh prompt in an elliptical form. This is followed by a silence of 1.8 seconds after the first turn is finished and granted for the students to reply. Then, in line 03, the teacher reformulates, but this time with the full, straightforward prompt. After another silence almost twice as long as the one above, the teacher does another reformulation by trying to retrieve previous content. Finally, in line 06, several students give a candidate answer unisonly, which the teacher assesses in line 07.

The first reformulation of the target line, that is to say, of line 03, was done in order to gather one answer from the audience in the classroom. This occurs since the last question was

the same as in the reformulation. It is important to highlight the fact that the teacher was waiting for the students to remember the type of formative assessment, as this question was formulated after what they had already practiced in the past activities. Moreover, unlike the other examples, the teacher does not change the preference at any given time. Instead, the preferred answer is hinted by saying that they have already filled it out and that they have the answer, they just have to look it up in the activity recently done. Thanks to this appeal of the students' knowledge, several students gave the preferred answer at the same time, which was finally assessed.

In example number 7, this literature teacher makes a vast number of reformulations about a concept in poetry, without receiving any intervention or candidate answer from the students.

Example 7. VGT_T2_V3_Lyricism.

01 T:→ The degree or intensity (0.4) of lyricism (0.6) remember- (0.5) do
 02 you remember what lyricism was? (0.2) like lyrical poetry?
 03 (0.8)
 04 T:→ Lyricism?
 05 (2.2)
 06 T: You don't remember! (0.4) Nobody remembers...
 07 (3.6)
 08 T: The kind of poetry that the romantics made the exclusive- (0.4)
 09 form of poetry? (0.3) lyricism?
 10 (1.9)
 11 T: The poetry where a very specific self speaks? (0.7) a self that's
 12 separate from the world?
 13 (1.0)
 14 T: >Remember?< and that contemplates the world .hhh and observes the
 15 world and .hhh feels outside of the world in a certain sense, also
 16 part of the world but (1.0) who obviously is a separated entity
 17 from the world↑ ((students nod))

As it is observed from lines 01 to 02, the teacher formulates a yes/no question which prefers to get a “yes” answer, but instead gets a dispreferred one in a form of silence. Then, in

lines 04, 06, 08, 09, 11 and 12, the teacher proposes some referential questions and direct appeal to the students as an attempt to lead the answer but was unsuccessful. In line 14, the teacher proposes an ellipsis of the original question: “remember?”. Then, in lines 15 and 16, the answer is finally paraphrased in the form of a question, which only gets a non-verbal answer by nodding at the teacher.

Unlike the previous examples, this lack of uptake gets no reply at all in spite of the 5 attempts the teacher makes to get a preferred answer, and also the number of seconds they leave in between questions for students to reply. Also, the preference of the yes/no question made at the beginning does not change throughout the conversation, since the teacher only presents reformulations with more information and provides hints about the answer. As a result, the main resource that outstands the interventions is the multiple signs and allusions the teacher makes to the preferred answer, although they finally give up and paraphrase the answer as there is no one who replies.

This leads to the final example of lack of uptake, where the teacher is seeking confirmation from the students about how much they remember the previous content. Here is where the teacher offers numerous reformulations, formats, and changes in the preference.

Example 8. VGT_T4_10_Solitude

01 T:→ Okay (.) so uuuh I am not sure: (1.3) how much we did here
 02 (8.9)
 03 T:→ Oh we included some (1.6) so (2.8) I think we did up to number six
 04 (0.2) am I right?
 05 (2.8)
 06 T:→ ((reading)) in the last few years comma advertising agencies
 07 have started to hire young people to hand out ci-circulars
 08 on streets (1.0) comers and in parking lots (1.1) I think we did
 09 that one
 10 (4.6)
 11 T:→ But↑ I-I don't think we did number seven (1.3) I just- please (.)
 12 anyone
 13 (6.4)

- 14 T: No?
 15 (1.5)
 16 S1: Wha[t? what]-what?
 17 T: [What xxx] in class, last xxx (0.7) -laughs-
 18 S1: Yeah we did until (.) number six, because it's eh-it already has
 19 the commas xxx
 20 T: Right↑

In this written English lesson, the teacher is trying to continue with an activity that they were doing in the class before. In line 01, the teacher expresses the fact that they do not remember which exercise was the last one they completed during the last class. This is used as a prompt for students to answer if they remember, which mobilizes an answer since the question tag is appended to the main construction. The following line results in a 8.9 seconds-long silence as a form of dispreferred answer, in which it can be assumed that the students were expected to help the teacher. In line 03, the teacher schemes through the exercises and asks a yes/no question: ‘‘Am I right?’’. This is followed by a 2.8-second-long silence and subsequently, in line 06, the teacher reads exercise number 6 out loud and finishes the turn with a presumption: ‘‘I think we did that one’’, as another way of pursuing a response. As a last resource, and after 4.6 seconds of silence, the teacher makes a direct appeal to the students’ good will in line 11, saying ‘‘please, anyone’’, followed by an elliptical negation ‘‘No?’’ in line 14. Ultimately, a student asks ‘‘what?’’ several times in line 16, perhaps as a form of demonstrating support for the teacher not to speak alone. After the teacher provides more information about the question, the preferred answer finally arrives in line 18.

This is another case of no response in lack of uptake, where there are changes not only in the preference, but also in the format, as there are some straightforward requests besides interrogative questions. These types of requests, such as ‘‘Can anyone tell me’’ or ‘‘Please, anyone’’, are directly pursuing a response, but at the same time, they are seeking for any preferred or dispreferred answer in order to progress with the class. The teacher makes 4 attempts to formulate the original prompt, adding more information every time to pursue the

preferred response. This response does not happen until line 18, which clearly shows the necessity to generate that number of reformulations to get the students to reply.

Discussion

This chapter aims to seek the most effective ways for teachers to pursue a response when the lack of uptake is present within the classroom. For this, 8 extracts of the video mediated data were used in order to identify and categorize different patterns, taking examples from face-to-face lessons as well as online lessons, which makes the findings even more versatile. Moreover, the excerpts evidence that there can exist lack of uptake not only when the teacher makes few reformulations, but also when they keep on taking several turns with different approaches in the reformulations as there is no sign of an answer, or it is not the preferred one. This leads to the conclusion that there are multiple factors that can influence the lack of uptake when a teacher is pursuing a response, and these are some of them:

- The amount of turns that teachers take to pursue a response when there is lack of uptake is, in most of the cases, three or more before a student makes an intervention. Notwithstanding, every turn can contain even more reformulations, as the teachers often rephrase their original prompt to increase the number of attempts, which can increase the possibilities of an answer as well. Hence, the number of turns is not always proportional to the number of reformulations.
- Half of the excerpts have presented reformulation with change of format. These often result in a change of preference, which is employed for having the least number of possible answers to it. The most frequent changes of format are yes/no questions, wh-questions, alternative questions, and imperatives.
- Moreover, one of the approaches the teachers use to simplify the question is presenting binary questions, that is, offering alternatives of the preferred answer to get

students to respond. This narrows down the possibility of answers, which can be a helpful resource to students.

- Likewise, another frequent change in the format to pursue a response is the change of agency, which is used to directly appeal to students using imperatives such as ‘‘Please’’, ‘‘Anyone?’’, ‘‘Say something’’, amongst others. This strategy has the objective of appealing to the students’ good will to answer.
- Many prompts the teachers employ are not interrogative constructions but are implicitly meant to be answered for the sake of the progression of the class. This can be evidenced in some of the examples seen, where the teachers use prompts and then finish their turn, waiting for confirmation. These prompts are often constructed in a way that the preference contains a yes/no answer.
- There is another phenomenon that prevails throughout the examples which seems to work effectively at the moment of pursuing a response, and that is the hinting of the preferred answer. This is different from offering alternatives to the answer, as it does not necessarily present binarism. For instance, many teachers opt for providing more information about the answer instead of rephrasing or repeating the same original prompts.
- The patterns that seem to work the best in pursuing a response are indeed presenting alternatives of the preferred answer, as well as hinting the students the information that leads to the preference. These findings could be sustained due to the large number of examples that present a preferred answer just after the teacher has proposed a question with alternatives or has hinted the answer as a way of leading the path to encourage students to answer.

Chapter 2: Repair

Within the classroom, there are sundry actions and processes occurring simultaneously, some of which we have mentioned above. Nevertheless, one of the actions, and at the same time one of the most challenging processes for teachers, is the repair. The reality of a classroom is that students will not always be able to respond to a teacher's question or comment, either because of misunderstandings or mishearings. Hence, it is at this point that reformulation takes on a fundamental role, as it is the vehicle to an answer.

The following examples present some extracts from both recorded and face-to-face lessons, where repair is present and is the main process taking place at the moment. These extracts include both a repair by misunderstanding and mishearing, along with its respective analysis.

Example 9. VGT_T4_1_Features of appearance.

01 T: .hhh so (0.3) I'm going to ask about (0.4) um-um-each one of you
 02 to tell me three (.) features of appearance that you learnt (0.3)
 03 today↓ (0.8) okay? (0.7) uh: very randomly I'm going to ask
 04 someone I haven't (0.5) eh: (S1's name) (1.6) give me three
 05 features of appearance that you learnt today
 06 (2.6)
 07 S:→ eh: (2.3) what?
 08 (3.5)
 09 T: I'm sorry?
 10 S: What?
 11 T: What what? ((laughs))
 12 (2.3)
 13 S: I don't know↓ features of appearance like ↑ha[ir]?
 14 T: [yes] (1.5) .hhh uh:
 15 n-n-new vocabulary↑ that you learnt (.) today in this lesson↑
 16 S: oh yeah (0.2) curly hair (0.2) eh: (0.3) o[verwe]ight=
 17 T: [right] overw[eight]↑
 18 S: =[Eh:] (0.5)
 19 medium built↑
 20 T: uh huh↑ (0.4) alright good (0.2) that's three (.) excellent.

In this extract, the teacher aims specifically at a student that has not spoken yet for three concepts they have learnt in the lesson. The student takes a second to process and asks “what?” in line 07. This could be a request to repeat the question, either because the student did not understand or did not hear it. The teacher takes 3.5 seconds to ask “I’m sorry?”. In this case, the teacher might be asking which part of the question the student is asking for, but instead of elaborating, the student repeats “what?”, to which the teacher asks with a rather plain tone “what what?” and then laughs. It is noticeable the lack of communication from both parts as none of them elaborate more on their questions. Finally, on the third attempt, the student explains the part of the question they have trouble answering in line 13, to which the teacher also produces a more extended answer in lines 14 and 15. After this, the student gives three concepts they learnt, accepting the petition of the teacher. The interaction finishes with the teacher repeating the answers to acknowledge them and finally assesses the preferred answer with an “excellent”. At this point, it is quite important to highlight that there was not a problem of understanding, but hearing, even though the teacher had the first impression and leaned towards the understanding one.

In the following example, the main reason for repair is produced by misunderstanding, unlike the previous one that introduces this chapter.

Example 10. VGT_T1_V2_P1_Which one forms more.

01 T: They form people very good. Both of them or one more than
 02 the other?↓
 03 (2.1)
 04 S1:→ What?
 05 T: What is the role that they play in society and (S1’s name) said
 06 that they form people
 07 S1: No w-what did-w:hat was the last thing that you said?
 08 T: Which of them forms people (0.6) more than the other↓ so does
 09 school only form people or university more than school?↓
 10 S2: I’d say it depends on what kind of like >subject are we talking
 11 about< ‘cause (0.6) the: institutions form us like (.) more

12 professionally?=
 13 T: mhmm
 14 S2: =Like for us to do: something in the society (0.4) but the
 15 school kind of form-mh-forms us (.) on (1.3) on our li:ke (0.2) I
 16 don't know (1.2) like how we: (.) treat each other how we: behave
 17 T: Mhm
 18 S2: Like they teach us some: (1.2) *no me acuerdo de la palabra ni en*
 19 *español o siempre me pasa lo mismo o (.) ehh=*
 20 T: Yes (.) xxx
 21 S2: =ehhh (0.4) *lo que enseña Jesús po' esas cuestiones*
 22 T: *Las [parábolas?*
 23 S2: *[Valores nos en]señan valores*
 24 S3: Values
 25 S2: [Values] (.) than[ks]
 26 T: [Values?](.) [ye]s (.) very good (.) excellent (.) nice↑ (.)
 27 yes.

This example starts after the teacher asks the students what the role of school and university is, and the answer was that they form people.

In line 01 and 02, the teacher asks if both of the institutions form more people, trying to compare both entities. After a brief silence, one student says “what?” asking for a repetition of the question. Here, in line 04, is where the repair initiates. In lines 05 and 06 the teacher makes a summary of the first question and the answer. However, in line 07, the same student tells the teacher that they were asking about the last question they asked. In lines 08 and 09, the teacher reformulates the question, asking which one of them forms people more than the other, and complements the idea by asking if only school forms people or university forms people more. From lines 10 to 12, a student presents a candidate answer saying that both form people in different aspects and mentioning that university forms us more professionally. Then, in line 13, the teacher makes a “mhm” sound inviting the student to continue with their idea. From lines 14 to 16, the student finishes their idea about university and mentions that school focuses more on forming us on how we treat each other. Nevertheless, the student is having difficulties expressing the idea, which we can see in their silences “uhm” and how they utter

that they do not know how to keep going. In line 17, the teacher says “mhm” once again, inviting the student to keep on trying to express their idea. The student takes another turn in line 18 and ends up using L1 after a brief silence, to say that they cannot even remember the word they want to use in Spanish. Finally, the student develops their idea and is assessed by the teacher by repeating positive adjectives since it was a preferred answer.

The first examples present a duality. Example 1 shows the capacity to keep going with L2 if there is a mishearing while in example 2 when the repair is initiated by a misunderstanding, the student prefers to shift their language to a L1. In the following example, the repair initiates because they are not sure of what the teacher is asking, and they shift to their L1.

Example 11. VGT_T4_V1_P2_Resume.

01 T: Is there anything you miss? (0.9) I mean when you read
 02 those xxx or resumes (1.3) thinking of I mean thinking f-
 03 from the chilean conception of the resume is there anything
 04 missing
 05 (5.0)
 06 T: Uhm: missing like what information? yeah the key
 07 [information [or basic information=
 08 S1: [eh [eh
 09 S1:→ *=Es de lo: de lo que leímos?*
 10 T: Yeah (0.8) Do you thi- eh do you think th the- there is
 11 there is something missing like parts I don't know
 12 essential information like maybe an ID number? (.)oh, yeah?
 13 S1: *eehm (.) de las dos personas que leí (.) eh bueno, la experiencia*
 14 *de nosotros siento que faltó como el estado civil*
 15 T: ough
 16 S: *el estado civil donde vive porque nosotros tenemos que poner donde*
 17 *vivimos ehh (.) o sea donde nacimos también, y: eso parece que*
 18 *era, y el rut*
 19 (2.7)
 20 T: or place of birth (.) ID number
 21 S1: *el año en que nació también*
 22 S1: ouhh
 23 (9.4)

- 24 T: so we have some key elements, definitely, right?
 25 (1.6)
 26 T: I agree

In this example, the teacher starts asking the students if there is anything they think is missing in the resumes they read from lines 01 to 04. After a long silence the teacher retakes the turn and reformulates the question adding the concepts “information” and “key information” in lines 06 and 07. Then, in line 08, there is a student trying to ask a question before the teacher finishes the turn, and after finishing, the student immediately asks the question in line 09 by using their L1. Finally in lines 10 through 12 the teacher answers their question and reformulates the main question once more. After this the student answers in Spanish, from lines 13 to 21, and the teacher occasionally remarks with “oh”. Finally, after the student is finished, the teacher assesses by saying “right?” and “I agree”.

Discussion

The examples shown present certain patterns and similarities to each other. As mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, the repair initiation is constantly caused by misunderstanding or mishearing. As long as there is mishearing, the conversation is maintained in L2. On the other hand, when there is misunderstanding, the students’ responses shift to L1 as a coping mechanism. In addition to this pattern, there is the possibility that the repair initiation is due to a lack of engagement. This possibility is based on the context of each example, where due to the circumstances of each class, the student involved may not have had optimal engagement with the content of the class, resulting in an insert sequence. Finally, another pattern identified was the simplification of questions, since the first turns aimed to a more complex and developed answer. Furthermore, at the end, a short answer was expected given that the teacher did not get a preferred answer in the first question formulation.

Chapter 3: Appealing to students

Pursuing a response is a permanent objective for teachers, since their actions are constantly linked to their students' acquisition of the skills that are being taught to them. It does not come as a surprise that, in a profession that is centered in the acquisition of knowledge, one of the strategies that educators use to obtain a response is appealing to the students.

Appealing to students seems to be used as an answer to the lack of uptake when teachers are pursuing a response, a reformulation then occurs after the teacher retakes the turn, which may appeal to the students in different ways.

We grouped these reformulations in 4 categories, general appeal to students, negation, appealing to the students' previous knowledge, and imperatives, to analyze and categorize our findings in the different transcriptions selected to explain this phenomenon.

General appeal to students

Generally appealing to the students is one of the strategies that are present in the examples we have researched. When teachers do not receive a response after stating the end of a TCU, they resort to generally appealing to the class by doing a reformulation of the main question. This is usually done by employing the words "someone", "anybody" or "anyone" to emphasize the agency of the second part of the adjacent pair, subtly remarking that a response is expected from the students.

In example 13, the student was previously exposing about a country in the Central Republic of Africa, to which the teacher asked "is it landlocked?". At first, the student tries to answer, yet after some attempts guided by the teacher trying to hint the correct answer, their responses do not satisfy the main question started by the teacher. Once the student gives

up, the teacher makes a change of agency from the student to the whole class by generally appealing to the rest of the students, asking ‘‘does anybody know?’’.

Example 13. VGT_T1_1.2_Landlocked.

01 T:→ Is it landlocked? (1.3) you know what that means?=

02 S1: =Wha[t?]

03 T: [when] the country is .hhh do you know what it means when you

04 say-wait, where's the chat, [here's the chat]

05 S1: [Aahhm]

06 T: when you sa[y that the country is] landlocked ?

07 S1: [yeaah] I, I-I think I know what that means

08 T: What does that mean?

09 S1: .hhh tha:t.. you're not supposed to g(h)o there

10 T: NOO that's not what it's supposed to mean nooo! .hhh

11 S1: [No?]

12 T: [landlo]cked, .hhh I'm tell- I'm gonna tell you an example of a

13 landlocked country here in south a[merica]

14 S1: [okay]

15 T: .hhh Bolivia, that's a landlocked country

16 (2.0)

17 S1: mmm=

18 T: =but Chile, Perú, Argentina... they're not landlocked (0.4) another

19 country that's landlocked is Paraguay

20 (0.7) but not Uruguay (1.7) Paraguay=

21 S1: =I

22 T: =Bolivia

23 (2.0)

24 T: What do those countries not [have?]

25 S1: [Ahhhh] okay oka:y (1.6) I don't know

26 (0.5)I actually don't know (giggles)

27 T:→ You don't know, you don't know! Does anybody know? (0.2) .hhh what

28 do Paraguay and Bolivia have in common

29 (0.5) that no other countries= xxx

30 S1: =Noo, I mean, I mean (0.4) I know what that means=

31 T: =Oh [okay]

32 S1: [but I don't] know if-if-if my country is↓

33 (1.4)

34 T: Oh, okay, the central african republic- you can make it up

35 remember that you can make it up you've got the

36 continent right, ↑you can make it up (.) .hhh they don't have

37 access to the ocean, says (S2's name), exactly.

In this example, the teacher starts asking a student a question, and after a brief stop, reformulates the question to make sure if the student even knows the term the teacher is using. In line 02, the student starts an other-initiated self-repair instance of the teacher's question. Then, from lines 03 through 08, the teacher keeps repeating to the student what the word means as the student keeps trying to express their answer. Afterwards, in line 09 the student presents a candidate answer to the question, which is assessed in line 10 as a wrong answer. Then, from lines 12 through 24, the teacher tries to hint the answer. In line 25, the student expresses that they do not know, which leads the teacher to make a change of agency from the student to the whole class in lines 27 through 29 by generally appealing to them with the question "does anybody know?" to invite the rest of the students to answer the question.

We can also observe that, after the teacher starts reformulating the question once more, this time aiming to the whole class, the student intervenes again in line 30, claiming that they did actually understand what the term means, yet they are unable to answer if the specific country they were asked about is indeed landlocked. Afterwards, it can be noticed that the teacher gets a preferred answer in line 37, which is made through the chat of the online class by another student (student 2), and it gets positively assessed.

Although in the previous example the teacher uses this general appeal strategy after one student was unable to answer their question, this phenomenon can also occur after the main question was asked to the whole class, as we can see in example 14.

Example 14. VGT_T2_G1_6_Voiced sound.

01 T: Remember what a voiced sound is?
 02 (2.5)
 03 T:→ Does anyone remember?
 04 (2.3)
 05 S1: What?
 06 T: Does any-I mean do you remember what a voiced sound is?
 07 (1.2)

08 T: Voice[d]
 09 S2: [When you] feel a vibration (.) in your throat.
 10 T: Yeeeah, excellent (S2's name)

In line 01, the teacher asks a direct question to the class “remember what a voiced sound is?” After a 2.5 second-long silence, in line 03 the teacher reformulates the question to “does anyone remember?” By doing this, the teacher generally appeals to the students, inviting any student to answer the question. In line 05, after a 2.3 second-long silence a student asks the teacher to repeat the question, to which in line 06 the teacher begins to repeat their latest question “does anyone remember?” but stops mid-sentence to repeat their first question “do you remember what a voiced sound is?”, generally appealing to the whole class, finally a candidate answer is presented in line 09, which is followed by a positive assessment by the teacher.

So far, both example 13 and example 14 presented a change of agency. In example 13, it was directed from one student in particular to the whole class, yet in example 14, despite that both the main question and the followed reformulation were targeted to the whole class, the first one is expecting an affirmative answer, yet the second one is asking if anyone out of all of the students actually remembers. In some cases, generally appealing to the students can also occur without a change of agency, as in the following example:

Example 15. VGT_T6_V1_P1_Looking for examples.

01 T: Ok (.) so xxx can anyone give me maybe an example↑ of what would
 02 make a test reliable and valid at the same time? (0.3) Not
 03 necessarily because of the same characteristic, remember
 04 (29.7)
 05 T:→ For example? ((They look at their students))
 06 S1: I'm kind of thinking about it because I (coffs) (0.3) I 've got
 07 to take some tests↑ (0.7) In my xxx practicum↑
 08 T: uh huh
 09 (0.2)
 10 S1: a:nd one of them was bout past simple↑ (1.3) uuh (0.8) xxx (1.0)
 11 xxx (1.2) we (0.6) look at it and we made it in the proper time↑

12 (.) during the class (.) I don't think if that's reliable? (1.9)
 13 be(c)ause xxx a:nd in terms of validity↑ in terms it-it was
 14 like (0.4) meaningful↑ for the students in terms of-in terms of
 15 (0.9) acquiring↑ or (0.8) judging the knowledge
 16 (2.2)
 17 T: m[mh:] you're not sure↓
 18 S1: [kind of]

In example 15, In lines 01 through 03 the teacher states the main question, which is aimed at every student in the classroom. This is followed by a long silence of 29.7 seconds, after which the teacher retakes the turn and repeats a short part of the question saying, “for example?” in line 05, appealing to the class in general once more with the addition of gaze. Both in the main question and the reformulation, the teacher is talking to the whole class, expecting a response from any of the students, so this constitutes an example of generally appealing to the students without making a change of agency.

Prompts are also used by teachers to evoke responses from students during the class, as can be seen in example 16.

Example 16. VGT_T4_10_Solitude.

01 T: Okay (.) so uuuh I am not sure: (1.3) how much we did here
 02 (8.9)
 03 T: Oh we included some (1.6) so (2.8) I think we did up to number six
 04 (0.2) am I right?
 05 (2.8)
 06 T: ((reading)) in the last few years comma advertising agencies
 07 have started to hire young people to hand out ci-circulars
 08 on streets (1.0) comers and in parking lots (1.1) I think we did
 09 that one
 10 (4.6)
 11 T:→ But↑ I-I don't think we did number seven (1.3) I just- please (.)
 12 anyone
 13 (6.4)
 14 T:→ No?
 15 (1.5)
 16 S1: Wha[t? what]-what?
 17 T: [What xxx] in class, last xxx (0.7) -laughs-

18 S1: Yeah we did until (.) number six, because it's eh-it already has
 19 the commas xxx
 20 T: Right↑

In example 16, the teacher is trying to continue with an activity that they were doing the previous class. In line 01 “I am not sure how much we did here” the teacher uses a prompt to express the fact that they do not remember which exercise was the last one they completed during the last class. This is followed by a 8.9 second-long silence in which a student could have taken the turn and helped the teacher. In line 03 the teacher retakes the turn and schemes through the exercises, then asks a question expecting someone to help them, “I think we did up to number six, am I right?” generally appealing to the students. This question is followed by a 2.8-second-long silence and therefore, in line 06 the teacher retakes the turn once more and reads exercise number 6 out loud, finishing the turn with the prompt “I think we did that one” attempting to get a response from the students. As a last resource, and after 4.6 seconds of silence, in line 11 the teacher retakes the turn again and asks directly “please, anyone”, “anyone” in this case works as way to pursue a response but at the same time appeals to the students’ willingness to answer and opens up the possibility for any student to take the floor. Any answer, even an incorrect one, seems to be welcome for the sake of the progression of the class. This is followed by 6.4 seconds of silence and a final “no?” appealing to the students once more in line 14, this time though they change agency from anyone, to a general “no?” implying that no one is going to answer. Finally in line 16 a student comes up and asks “What?” to finally provide an answer in line 18, clarifying that last class they did up until exercise 6. The teacher accepts this answer in line 20, positively assessing it.

However, this is not the only way in which teachers try to stimulate a response from their students when pursuing for a response, another way in which teachers appeal to their students is using negation particles, by doing so, teachers appeal to the responsibility or

capability of the students, by using particles like “no”, “no one” or “nobody”, teachers express an assumption for the lack of responses from the students.

Negations

An instance of negation was also present in example number 16, since the last instance of reformulation, which was the “no?” in line 14, not only appeals to the students, but also constitutes an assumption, that no one of the students provides a response to their questions, it is important to note that before this negation, the teacher remained silent 4 times after finishing their TCU, pursuing for a response from the students, leading to a dispreferred situation that clashes with the solidarity-seeking nature of preference, hence the immediate answer of one student after the teacher’s negation. A similar situation occurs in example number 17, where the teacher, instead of making prompts and reformulations before reformulating into a negation, remains silent for a longer period of time.

Example 17. VGT_T4_10_The Smiths.

01 T: The Smiths’ marriage w-should succeed: they sha:re th-no (0.4)
 02 should aah↑ hhh I’m sorry .hhh the Smiths’
 03 marriage should succeed they share >the same interests< (.) you
 04 see? We need punctuation here (0.7)-laughs- I (c)ouldn’t
 05 understand that .hhh alright. (3.3) Where do we need the-the:
 06 punctuations (0.4) punctu-punctuation marks .
 07 (24.0)
 08 T:→ No one?
 09 S: Uh, after succeed?
 10 T: Okay? (0.8) What do we write, a comma or a semi colon.
 11 S: Uh a semi colon. Because the-these are two closely related (0.3)
 12 uh sentences.
 13 T: Right, and a comma is not enough.
 14 S: Mhm
 15 T: Good, very good. (1.4) And we don’t need anything else (0.2)
 16 right? (0.7) yeah.

From lines 01 through 03, the teacher reads an utterance, which is not punctuated, and then makes a prompt stating that it does need punctuation to be understandable while laughing in line 04. Later in lines 05 through 06, the teacher asks the main question “where do we need the punctuation marks?” which is aimed at the students in general, and followed by a long silence of 24 seconds, the teacher then retakes the turn in line 08, and reformulates asking the question “no one?” using negation to make sure if no one of the students is actually willing to provide a response. The negation seems to have an effect on students, since one of them participates immediately in line 09 proposing a candidate answer. Finally in the rest of the sample we can see the teacher and the student collaborating to punctuate the sentence, which again, seems to be triggered by the negation the teacher expressed in line 08, this can be linked to preference, since the teacher was expecting interaction with the students from the start, first with the prompts and then with the question, only to be followed by 24 seconds of silence, the teacher then appeals to the students with the use of negation, which seems to have triggered the solidarity-seeking nature of preference.

It is relevant to mention that the same situation occurred in example 16, since, after several attempts at pursuing a response involving prompts and reformulations, the teacher resorts to ask “no?” immediately receiving a response from a student.

A similar phenomenon seems to be present in example 18, where after the teacher states a question to the students in general, and does not receive a response, retakes the turn and reformulates the question with a negation, immediately receiving a response back.

Example 18. VGT_T2_V1_P1_Nobody no body.

01 T: So did you get time to read my poems? (1.0) By Carol Ann Duffy
 02 (1.8)
 03 T:→ o Nobody read my poems? o
 04 S: Yeah
 05 T: Oh okay thank you thank you

In line 01 the teacher starts the class by asking the students if they read the poems they have asked them to, after a brief silence of 1.8 seconds, the teacher reformulates the questions changing the agency from “you” to “nobody” in line 03 using negation to imply that nobody did read the poems, to which a student immediately answers “yeah” in line 04, finally the teacher also immediately says “okay thank you thank you” to the student who answered their question. The examples are similar so far, but they still have a subtle difference, since in example 18, the teacher only waits 1.8 seconds before reformulating the question, this could be linked to the nature of the main questions, since the main question in example 17 required for the students to analyze and think before providing an answer, whereas in the main question in example 18, students only needed to answer yes or no depending on their past actions, finally, in example 16, there are 6 seconds of silence before the instance of negation, which, despite not only constituting a yes no question, it was reformulated and commented on several times before.

Despite that negation has an immediate reaction from the students in the previous examples, it is not a panacea that will always evoke responses from the rest of the conversation participants, as in example 19, where despite using negation, the teacher does not receive a response.

Example 19. VGT_T2_V3_Lyricism.

01 T: The degree or intensity (0.4) of lyricism (0.6) remember- (0.5) do
 02 you remember what lyricism was? (0.2) like lyrical poetry?
 03 (0.8)
 04 T: Lyricism?
 05 (2.2)
 06 T:→ You don't remember! (0.4) Nobody remembers...
 07 (3.6)
 08 T: The kind of poetry that the romantics made the exclusive- (0.4)
 09 form of poetry? (0.3) lyricism?
 10 (1.9)
 11 T: The poetry where a very specific self speaks? (0.7) a self that's
 12 separate from the world?

13 (1.0)
 14 T:→ >Remember?< and that contemplates the world .hhh and observes the
 15 world and .hhh feels outside of the world in a certain sense, also
 16 part of the world but (1.0) who obviously is a separated entity
 17 from the world↑ ((students nod))

In example 19, the teacher states the main question in line 02 and reformulates in line 04, then after 2.2 seconds of silence, they retake the turn once more in line 06 and says “You don’t remember! Nobody remembers” implying that not one of the students remembers what the term “lyricism” is by appealing to the students’ knowledge, yet in this case, the instance of negation is followed by 3.6 seconds of silence and retakes the turn in line 08, hinting the answer and trying to help the students recall the term, during the rest of the example the teacher keeps hinting the answer while talking about the concept, without receiving responses, yet finally in line 17 after doing a specific definition of the concept, a student nods at her, receiving a physical response.

Appealing to the students’ previous knowledge

Just like in example 19, appealing to the knowledge of the students is also a strategy used by teachers we have encountered when pursuing for a response, by doing so, teachers try to guide the answer to the students by hinting it, in order for them to remember previous contents that are linked to the context in which they are being asked for a response. Unlike the lack of uptake present in example 19, appealing to the students’ knowledge will evoke responses sometimes, as we can see in example number 20.

Example 20. VGT_T4_8_Defendant.

01 T: .hhh do you remember the vocabulary on: Crime and Punishment and
 02 all of that?
 03 (5.6)
 04 T:→ Do you remember? (0.4) That we talked about these (0.4) things?
 05 (.) about the law (0.8) uh: the defendant (.) the conviction↑
 06 (1.3)

07 T: w-who was the defendant↓ (.) in the trial↓
 08 (8.2)
 09 S: The one being accused
 10 T: Ye:s, exactly. the person being accused. Right.

In example number 20, the teacher starts the question in line 1 using “do you remember” which appeals to the students’ previous knowledge, after a considerable silence of 5.6 seconds, the teacher repeats the “do you remember?” part of the question, and next in line 04, they start naming different concepts linked to the topic they are asking the students about, after 1.3 seconds of silence, the teacher retakes the turn once more in line 07, asking a new question for the students, referencing one of the concepts named in lines 04 and 05, finally after 8.2 seconds of silence, a student provides a candidate answer in line 09, followed by a positive assessment by the teacher in line 10.

As a consequence of appealing to the students’ knowledge, students are capable of reminding and connecting previous knowledge with the one being worked on in the moment, just like in example 20, this phenomenon is also present in example number 21 where the teacher appeals to the students’ previous knowledge of a content seen moments ago.

Example 21. VGT_T6_V1_P1_Types of formative assessments.

01 T: And what type (0.6) of formative assessment↓
 02 (1.8)
 03 T: What type of formative assessment is this
 04 (2.4)
 05 T:→ You just filled it out (0.7) it’s there you know the answer
 06 Ss: An entry ticket
 07 T: An entry ticket, very good

Example 21 starts with the teacher asking the main question in line 01, after 1.8 seconds of silence, the teacher retakes the turn and repeats the main question in line 3, after 2.4 seconds of silence, the teacher retakes the turn once more in line 05, this time they do not reformulate the question, instead, they hint the answer to the students, appealing to the students’ knowledge, the teacher does this by commenting “you just filled it out”, hinting that

the answer is linked to a previous action they have executed, making a brief pause of 0.7 seconds so they can remember, and following with “It’s there, you know the answer” emphasizing that the answer is linked to the activity in which they had to fill out something, finally a student provides a candidate answer in line 06, which is followed by a positive assessment of the student’s response by the teacher in line 07.

Imperatives

A different way in which teachers appeal to the students involves the use of imperatives, this strategy can be used to encourage the students, as we can see in example 22.

Example 22. VGT_T5_G1_1_Ad hominem attack.

01 T: Can you give me an example of an ad-hominem attack?
 02 (2.6)
 03 S: Uhm, is when you attack a (.) person↑ instead of his argument?
 04 (1.4)
 05 T: .hhh is when you attack↑ [someone].
 06 S: [for example] (0.5) I don’t know (1.1)
 07 yeah
 08 (3.3)
 09 T:→ Come on, for example↑
 10 (1.1)
 11 S: Uhm: (2.4) when for example there’s a debate on:(0.9) or (0.5)
 12 of abortion↑ and: (.) someone .hhh uuhm for example a man eh
 13 attacked a: woman↑ (0.3) saying that (1.0)is-he’s: (3.1) like
 14 “responsibility”? (.) something like that (0.6) mmh
 15 T: That has-excellent, yeah (S’s name) provided an excellent
 16 example of in an abortion↑ (.) discussion↑ something like this
 17 happens a lot. This is ad-hominem, right?

Example 22 starts with the teacher making the main question to the class. In line 03, after 2.6 seconds, a student responds with a candidate answer, although their pitch indicates that they are not sure since at the same time it was an open answer. Immediately, after a brief pause of 1.4 seconds, the teacher provides a positive assessment by stating that an ad-hominem attack “Is when you attack someone” in line 05. The same student overlaps the

teacher's turn and intended to give an explanation about their own answer in line 06, but when they realized that they overlapped the teacher's turn, decided not to continue. The teacher retakes the turn in line 09 and encourages the students to continue with the response by saying "come on, for example" which starts with an imperative, trying to encourage the students to continue with the response they were providing, as well as repeating the student's "for example", which is where the student stopped developing the idea. Finally, the student starts trying to develop the idea in lines 11 through 14 which is positively assessed by the teacher in line 15, stating that it was an excellent one.

Besides encouraging students, imperatives can also be used in another way, such as in example 23, where, instead of encouraging students to continue developing their responses, the teacher uses it to actually request students for a response.

Example 23. VGT_T3_V1_Weak form (strong).

01 T: When I say, she is laughing at the clown (1.1) What's the
 02 pronunciation of this word?
 03 (2.5)
 04 T: Would you use a strong or a weak form here?
 05 (4.0)
 06 T:→ Come on, say something
 07 (0.6)
 08 S: Weak form?
 09 (0.5)
 10 T: Weak form, right? That's eh the: (0.3) the most common
 11 pronunciation(.) fo-for these words↓ (.) for all these weak
 12 form words.

In line 01, the teacher asks the main question to the students, which receives no answer. After this, in line 04, the teacher retakes the turn to negotiate an answer with a binary question, after 4 seconds of silence, the teacher retakes the turn once more in line 06, this time the teacher uses the imperative "come on" along with "say something" requesting the students to take the next turn and offer a response, this time the silence only lasts for 0.6 seconds, which are followed by a doubtful candidate answer provided by a student in line 08. Finally,

in line 10 he makes an account of the right answer, just to make sure that everyone is following.

Discussion

This chapter was created attempting to find effective strategies and similarities used by teachers when, after not receiving a response, their reformulations aim to appeal to students to pursue a response, for which we analyzed the transcriptions of the excerpts selected from the instances we found in different classes, both face-to-face and online. We categorized our findings in 4 groups, general appealing to students, appealing to the students' previous knowledge, use of negation, and use of imperatives. The findings we made along the analysis led us to the following conclusions.

- Generally appealing to the students is used by teachers to reformulate the question to make an emphasis in that a TCU is ending and the second adjacent pair must be taken by a student rather than reformulating because of a lack of understanding. Therefore, the main question barely changes, since what the reformulation mostly does is a change of agency highlighting the request of a response to the students in general.
- Generally appealing to the students usually involves a change of agency, whether the main question involves a single student or is open to the main class, the reformulations make use of words such as “anyone” “anybody” or “somebody” to emphasize that the next turn is expected to be taken by a student.
- Negation is used to appeal to the students' willingness to participate and provide a response. It serves as an insurance that no one of the students is going to participate, which clashes with the solidarity-seeking nature of preference.
- Negation usually triggers a fast response from the students, yet it is not an infallible method to evoke responses, as in some cases, the teachers would still need to retake the turn because of the lack of uptake.

- Appealing to the students' previous knowledge is used by teachers to link the response being pursued with previous contents learned before. Therefore, the reformulation may involve the word "remember" as well as being accompanied by prompts used to describe a certain content and link it to the question, hinting the expected answer.
- The reformulation of the question when the teacher is appealing to the students' prior knowledge can usually result in questions related to previous content, but instead, it can also prompt such previous content, in an attempt to relate it to the main question.
- Imperatives are used in reformulations to request the students to participate in the conversation, they play a role in stating the importance of the students' participation by either demanding their participation when there is a lack of uptake or encouraging the students to keep participating when they are willing to do so.
- These different ways to appeal to students then seem to approach students from different perspectives, as well as dealing with different contexts. They may be used together, as we could see in example 16, where after different attempts of pursuing a response by generally appealing to the students made by the teacher, they proceed then to make use of negation.

Concluding Discussion

This study aimed at identifying the interactional and pedagogical functions around the concept of preference in the reformulation of instructions or questions in Teaching-Learning of English as a Foreign Language. The objective of our study was to identify the particular linguistic and sequential characteristics of the instances collected. This, with the aim of translating our findings into an outcome that could lead to more effective strategies and techniques to foster student participation in the classroom.

The guiding concept that moved us was preference. It has proven to be the crucial concept in the pursuit of response in the context of Teaching-Learning of English as a Foreign Language. Preference has constituted the cornerstone to understand silences and instances of lack of answers that occur in classroom settings. For instance, the lack of uptake that may occur after asking a question or providing instructions, the retaking of turns after a long silence or misunderstanding, and the reformulations that appeal to previous knowledge, emotions, etcetera. All these instances of lack of response have been the ground of our research.

Our objective has been that, from this starting point, teachers could reveal how they make decisions and seek strategies to continue the teaching-learning process in the class. In this regard, we have focused on the different strategies presented by teachers. For instance, dispreferred responses -consisting in silences, where the teacher has to retake the turn because of the lack of uptake-; other-initiated self-repair -when students ask the teacher to repeat or explain the question or instructions-; and responses that do not fulfill the objective of the instruction or question presented. This ground has led us to divide the instances into three main categories. These categories are Lack of Uptake, Repair and Appealing to Students.

The first category, Lack of Uptake in EFL classrooms, holds an interactional function when it comes to dealing with silences produced after providing instructions or questions. These findings are related mostly to the type of repair that teachers perform to pursue a response. Likewise, after the thorough analysis of 8 different excerpts, we can conclude that the most used strategy when there is lack of uptake is the change of format of the original question, and this, in most of the cases, leads to a change of preference as well. These questions or prompts are mostly turned into the following formats: yes/no questions, wh-questions, alternatives, and imperatives. The evidence pointed out that teachers attempt to simplify the questions by changing it for an alternative type of question, which is the most current one. However, another prevailing strategy teachers apply is giving hints about the preferred answer, and with that, the content of the lesson. These methods have proved to work effectively to pursue a response, as in most of the cases, when the teacher gives alternative questions or hints the answer, the students reply usually with the preferred response.

The second category, Repair, plays a pivotal role when teachers have to deal with answers that need repetition or explanation. The findings of chapter 2 allow us to identify some pedagogical strategies that can be applied in the classroom by teachers. The most frequently repeated strategy was the simplification of questions. Due to the application of these, all the questions obtained a preferred answer. In this regard, this finding is significant for the purpose of our research since it emphasizes the possibility of the lack of engagement that exists in the classroom, which in turn presents a challenge for teachers.

The third category, Appealing to Students, has been critical to understand which interactional and pedagogical functions can be used when a dispreferred response is presented. Appealing to the students has proven to play a pedagogical function in the classroom, having the role of encouraging the students to participate when teachers are pursuing a response. In this aspect, generally appealing to students can work as a starting

point since teachers ask the students to take the floor by giving them agency, involving them in the process. In addition, imperatives play the role of encouraging students to participate by demanding responses to answer the main question when they already have tried to, even when their responses were dispreferred. On this matter, appealing to the students' previous knowledge is also used to invite students to participate by stating what they have already learnt. Lastly, negations work as breaking points since the teacher assumes that there will not be any response from the students. This can work as a form of encouragement motivated by the solidarity-seeking nature of preference, yet it still will not always evoke a response.

These categories studied have been of great importance to understand how to pursue a response in a classroom setting. Silences, incorrect responses, or questions that need to be repeated or explained have always presented a challenge for teachers at the moment of leading a class. That is why our findings have aimed to examine this problem in order to help teachers to find more effective strategies to deal with students' dispreferred responses in the context of Teaching-Learning English as a Foreign Language.

Limitations and Further Research

When it comes to the limitations of our study, we have to acknowledge that the real intentions of participants' actions will never be truly known, as one can only hypothesize based on real evidence and analyses using the next turn proof procedure. In order to ascertain the reason for the participants' behavior, further interdisciplinary research could be conducted, for instance, intertwining CA with the fields of psychology or sociology.

Also, it is essential to mention the importance that multimedia equipment has for CA research to be carried out effectively. Yet, the quality of the tools used for this investigation cannot be measured to the professional ones that researchers usually work with. This can be evidenced in some of the examples provided in the chapters, since part of the dialogues had to

be marked as unintelligible. Thereby, the resulting transcriptions used for this study are restricted to the standards of our own equipment.

The aforementioned limitations provided some evidence of the conditions of our research. Thus, we consider that further research should focus on exploring new pedagogical strategies to promote students' participation.

In this regard, since we assessed online and face-to-face lessons, it could be pertinent to contrast both settings as online lessons have become more relevant these recent years. For instance, nonverbal communication is an essential feature to comprehend teachers' preference for a student's answer, as they usually had their cameras off in online settings or there was more than one person talking at a time in face-to-face lessons. Hence, the following questions arise: Are there differences between online and face-to-face lessons in this aspect? And, in terms of participation, does it diminish when the teacher is the one with the camera off? Even though we had access to that data, we did not include this comparison, but it would be fruitful to discuss this matter in further research.

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Appendix

Transcriptions Conventions

Jefferson's Transcription System (2004)

:	Stretched sound
.	Final falling intonation
-	Abrupt cut off of a sound or word
[]	Speech overlap
=	Continuation of a TCU
o o	Syllables or words that are quieter compared with speech by the same speaker
(.)	Brief pause of less than (0.2)
(1.7)	Timed pause between one utterance and another
.hhh	Audible inbreath
hhh	Audible outbreath
CAPITALS	Louder sound of words or utterances
<u>underlined</u>	Emphasis on the words underlined
whhord	Aspiration in the middle of a word

w(h)ord	Breathiness while talking, for example laughing in the middle of a turn
> <	Increased speaking rate
< >	Decreased speaking rate
!	Exclamation Points Animated speech tone
?	Rising vocal pitch
↑↓	Rising and falling shifts in intonation
\$	Simley or chuckling voice
#	Creaky voice
~	Shaky voice
(())	Comments or descriptions
()	Uncertain word
xxx	Unintelligible
<i>italics</i>	non-English speech