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Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

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In the spirit of reconciliation the Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA) acknowledges the Traditional Custodians of country throughout Australia and their connections to land, sea and community. We pay our respect to their elders past and present and extend that respect to all Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples today. We acknowledge that the arrival of the English language to this continent impacted the traditional languages and cultures of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, and celebrate the work to reclaim or maintain these languages. ACTA members teach English in addition to supporting the maintenance and development of First Languages, and encourage the acquisition and use of other languages – including First Nations Languages.

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- contribute to the development of classroom expertise through dissemination of current research and thinking around TESOL.

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Editorial: Interactional competence in the online space: Affordances, challenges, and opportunities for TESOL practitioners

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Editors

Interactional competence, Conversation Analysis, and the online space

Interactional competence (IC) is a concept gaining growing currency in language learning (Hall et al., 2011), teaching (Wong & Waring, 2020), and assessment (Dai, 2022; Plough et al., 2018; Roever & Dai, 2021). First proposed by Kramsch (1986), IC focuses on developing second language (L2) speakers' abilities to use language for functional purposes, ranging from "survival as a tourist or a student to negotiating treaties" (p. 366). The conceptualization of language competence as an ability for use differentiates IC from traditional understanding of proficiency, which consists of componential, de-contextualized ability indicators such as lexical range, grammatical soundness, and pronunciation. The ethos of IC emphasizes that language teaching needs to focus on cultivating L2 speakers' abilities to use their linguistic resources (e.g., vocabulary and grammar) to achieve meaningful social actions in real-world interactional contexts.

Although the interactional turn in language teaching can be seen as a reflection of the general communicative movement in language education since the 1970s (cf. communicative competence in Hymes, 1972), one unique feature of IC is that it uses Conversation Analysis (CA) as its methodological apparatus to understand how interaction unfolds. Originally developed for sociological research (Sacks et al., 1974), CA locates interaction in audio or video data and approaches it from the interactants'

perspectives. A conventional CA process (ten Have, 2007) to analyze speakers' IC is to first build a collection of speakers' performances. The analysts then transcribe speakers' performance data using a CA system (Hepburn & Bolden, 2017) to observe specific interactional practices such as:

- building one's turn following the previous speakers' turn (Sacks et al., 1974)
- demonstrating empathy using specific prosodic features (Couper-Kuhlen, 2012)
- managing moments of conflict that threaten social harmony and interpersonal relations (Dai, 2021; Tai & Dai, 2022)
- assuming specific social roles (e.g., a student or an employee) and talking in a role-congruent manner (Dai & Davey, 2022; Roever & Dai, 2021)

These interactional practices, made observable and analyzable by CA, are what speakers employ to achieve functional language use. CA therefore allows researchers to empirically investigate how language learners develop the ability to interact, the findings of which can feed into effective pedagogy and assessment that promote learners' communicative competence. All the contributions in this special issue use CA as their analytic method to ground interaction in actual speaker performance data, which makes their findings of IC empirically verifiable.

Apart from addressing a topic that is gaining ascendancy in language education research, this special issue is the first of its kind to position the discussion of IC in the online space. From texting, to voice-messaging and to video-conferencing, computer-mediated communication has proliferated and permeated every form of interpersonal interaction. The COVID-19 global pandemic has further accelerated this trend as social isolation policies have made much of interpersonal interaction only feasible in the online space. This has similarly impacted on language teaching and assessment, with language teachers scurrying to transplant their teaching and testing practice online (Moorhouse et al., 2021; Isbell & Kremmel, 2020). Even though the world is slowly experimenting with how to live with COVID-19, we can expect that online language learning, teaching, and testing practices, already prevalent pre-COVID-19, will continue to exist in different forms now that both students and educators have gained a

renewed appreciation of the affordances of the online space. As online language education becomes increasingly normalized, we are seeing research catching up with practice; a growing number of studies have now looked at how to develop, teach and test language learners' IC in the online space (see Dai, 2021 for an example of a standardized online IC test). This special issue therefore represents a step in furthering this important discussion.

Overview of this issue
This special issue comprises three research articles and three book reviews, each of which exemplifies the ways in which IC can be applied to face-to-face and online learning opportunities for L2 speakers.

Tracing the development of a single learner's chat-based requests over nine months, Taiane Malabarba clearly highlights the validity of applying microanalytic CA analysis to authentic textual data. She analyzes one learner's use of semiotic and interactional resources to make requests, and negotiate deontic stance. The learner's choice of resources changes over time and is reliant on past discourses and development of interpersonal dynamics. Overall, Malabarba highlights the intrinsic learning value of extra-curricular text chat groups for student-teacher interactions, which provide authentic opportunities for meaningful language use and relationship development.

Similar to Malabarba, Ann Tai Choe, Hanh thi Nguyen and Cristiane Vicentinic provide an IC microanalysis of dispreferred actions in interactions between one learner and their educator in a naturally-occurring unstructured online interaction. They examine how the two participants manage and negotiate epistemic and affective stances in online search sequences during a Skype-based interaction. Highlighting the value of unstructured non-task-based interactions for learning, the learners in Malabarba's and Choe et al.'s studies leverage a range of resources to negotiate their positions in relation to their interlocutors and to past, present and future interactions. Malabarba's chat rooms and Choe et al.'s web searches are authentic activities that trigger social actions and foster L2 users' IC in the online space.

In his microanalysis of online specific strategies to gain common ground, Nils Drixler analyzes learners' turn-taking and use of epistemic and multilingual resources in a virtual exchange between German and Israeli English-language student teachers. Similar to Malabarba and Choe et al., Drixler focuses on the use

of English as a lingua franca in an authentic context. However, Drixler is able to include use of multimodal resources in his analysis (e.g. gestures, mimicry, gaze) and move beyond analysis of less complex multimodal resources. Drixler concludes that the strategies and resources used by learners to gain common ground are unique to the virtual conferencing context. For example, learners reinforced and negotiated epistemic claims by resorting to multi-modal (e.g. gaze) and multilingual actions (e.g. code switching).

The special issue concludes with three highly insightful book reviews. In her extensive overview of Roever (2022), Ann Tai Choe concludes the book is a perfect introductory guide for the teaching and assessment of pragmatics and IC, especially in terms of the way it weaves theory with ready-to-use materials for practice. Michael Davey also highly recommends Wong & Waring (2021) for educators seeking understanding of historical and current theoretical concepts of CA and how these can be woven into classroom teaching practices. With only minor reservations, Leila Zohali recommends Salaberry & Burch (2021) for its critical overview of current approaches to the design of interactive speaking assessments and its plethora of ideas for reconceptualizing test design. These include adding a sociolinguistic-interactional perspective and integrating the building blocks of IC such as sequential devices, non-verbal semiotic resources, and social members' categorical knowledge.

Contributions to TESOL

After the flurry of shifting pedagogical practices online at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic – ofttimes with limited resources and experience on the part of both educators and students – the sector is now in a position to take a metaphorical breath and consider how to move forward with pedagogical practices in the online space. While the shift to online learning and teaching was swift, it is undoubtedly here to stay, and IC research is key to understanding which aspects of education work effectively online, including how tasks, activities and interactions could be best modified to facilitate learning and most benefit students.

The three articles presented in this special issue provide insight into how IC can inform and contribute to the field of TESOL. Malabarba's study highlights the importance of

encouraging technologically-based student-teacher interactions, while Choe et al. demonstrate that less structured, non-task-based interactions require a sophisticated use of language and negotiation skills and can contribute significantly to the ways students learn. Additionally, Drixler shows that the virtual conferencing context provides unique opportunities for online interaction, regardless of where students are geographically situated. Through the use of CA, these three studies shed light on the subtleties and intricacies of digital interaction between teachers and students, and between the students themselves, as well as types of formal and informal activities which may contribute to students' engagement and learning experiences.

As TESOL teachers and students become more comfortable with interacting online and using different forms of technology, there are opportunities for continued experimentation and exploration of second language acquisition and IC in the online space. We believe that this special issue, which presents novel ways of examining online communication and interaction through the lens of IC, makes a significant contribution to TESOL educators' understanding of teaching and learning in the online space.

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Requesting on WhatsApp: The interplay of interactional competence and deontics in English as an additional language

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Abstract: *This exploratory study focuses on changes in the accomplishment of requests by an adult English as an additional language speaker/ learner interacting on WhatsApp for nine months. The analysis follows a microanalytic approach to digital interaction informed by recent developments within longitudinal conversation analysis. It unpacks the array of semiotic and interactional resources that the focal learner employs to make class-related requests to the teacher. Longitudinal comparison of four request sequences over time suggests that the differences in how the requesting posts are designed and responded to index both increased interactional competence to accomplish requests in English on WhatsApp as well as evolving socio-interactional ties between the learner and the teacher. Despite the popularity of text chats, only a handful of studies have investigated how the practices employed by additional language learners to engage in text chat interaction change over time and this work has not focused on naturally occurring interactions. The present study thereby contributes new understandings to text chat interaction with additional language speakers and to longitudinal research on interactional competence development in online settings.*

Key words: *L2 interactional competence; text chats; English as an additional language; requests; deontics; social interaction; conversation analysis; interactional linguistics; text messaging; WhatsApp.*

Introduction

Requesting is a ubiquitous social activity. Research conducted within Conversation Analysis (CA) (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974) and Interactional Linguistics (IL) (Couper-Kuhlen & Selting, 2018) has shed much light on the sequential and linguistic

properties of how requests are implemented in talk-in-interaction. For one, requests constitute a variety of linguistic and embodied forms, which speakers select according to their rights to make a given request to someone and anticipated contingencies associated with the recipient's ability, availability or willingness to fulfil the request. For example, syntactic realisations using the imperative have been reported to embody high entitlement to make a request and to present it as non-problematic (Craven & Potter, 2010). In comparison to requests syntactically designed as declarative statements, such as requests formulated with the verb *wonder* (Curl & Drew, 2008; Drew & Couper-Kuhlen, 2014; Fox & Heinemann, 2017), modal-auxiliary interrogative formatted requests, such as *can/could you* have been shown to involve little orientation to contingencies, i.e., "displayed awareness of, or orientation to, factors that could compromise the grantability of a request" (Drew & Couper-Kuhlen, 2014, p. 15). Additionally, declarative formatted requests seem to embody only "a minimal claim" to the requester's rights to implement them (Stevanovic, 2011, p. 5). The notions of contingency and entitlement are interrelated as "displaying no awareness of possible contingencies affecting grantability construes the speaker as an entitled requester, whereas displaying awareness of such contingencies construes the requester as lacking such entitlement" (Drew & Couper-Kuhlen, 2014, p. 15). Furthermore, participants in social interaction orient to the overall dispreferred nature of requesting by, for instance, expanding their requesting actions to include reasons for the request (e.g., their lack of access to something). These pre- and post-expansions (Schegloff, 2007)[1] provide context for the actual request, help increase the chances of eliciting an offer, and work towards avoiding rejections (Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006).

The choice from this array of available formats to make requests relies on speakers' interactional competence (IC) (Berger & Pekarek Doehler, 2015; Eskildsen & Theodórsdóttir, 2017; Hall, Hellermann, & Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Pekarek Doehler, 2018; Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2019; Waring, 2018) and may be challenging for additional language (L2) speakers/learners especially at early learning stages. Not only do they have to

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[1] Further research is needed to determine whether the notions of pre- and post-expansions can be applied to text chats. Therefore, they are not used in this paper to refer to accompanying actions in the requests analysed.

produce talk that is recognisable as implementing a request, but they also have to do so in culturally and socially accepted ways, which may differ significantly from how requests are implemented in the other language(s) that they speak (see, for example, Zinken & Ogiermann, 2013 on the use of imperative forms in Polish). Accordingly, a number of studies have documented L2 learners' practices to make requests in interaction (Alcón-Soler, 2017; Al-Gahtani & Roever, 2012; Cunningham, 2016; Taleghani-Nikazm and Huth, 2010; Youn, forthcoming). However, the practices deployed by L2 English speakers to do requesting in text chat interaction, i.e., synchronous or quasi-synchronous exchanges that take place in online platforms or applications, such as WhatsApp[2], have not yet been investigated from a microanalytic perspective. This paper helps to fill this gap. Its exploratory analysis is meant as a contribution to our understanding of novice L2 English learners' requests over time in WhatsApp group interaction. It contributes to the theorisation and empirical investigation of IC by documenting changes related to: 1) the linguistic and paralinguistic resources used to design the requests as well as how the requests are sequentially organised and responded to; and 2) participants' relationship status and related deontic concerns. The findings showcase possibilities and challenges for IC development research in text-based online spaces and have implications for practice.

L2 speakers' requests
The accomplishment of requests by L2 learners has been the focus of a number of second language, developmental pragmatics and language assessment studies (Alcón-Soler, 2017; Al-Gahtani & Roever, 2012; Cunningham, 2016; Youn, forthcoming). Drawing on mixed-method approaches, which often include CA, this body of research shows that learners at low proficiency levels often lack groundwork in terms of the contextualisation of their requests. For instance, comparing the requests of high-level and low-level learners in a role-play assessment situation, Youn (forthcoming) reports that the high-level learners use a broader range of

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[2] The WhatsApp application is a communication platform that allows users to interact via text or voice chat, to send images and also to make audio and video calls. Participants can type or record an unlimited number of posts (messages) simultaneously in dyadic or group conversations, and have a range of semiotic resources at their disposal, such as emojis and GIFs.

linguistic and interactional resources to indicate their lack of entitlement to make requests to a professor (e.g., bi-clausal formats at different sequential positions, such as *I was wondering if* complemented by the reason for the requested action). In contrast, low-level learners tend to orient to requests as an imposing dispreferred action in less varied syntactically complex ways (e.g., with *I need* constructions) and rely on paralinguistic resources such as prosodic contours and hesitation markers. Regardless of these differences, Youn's (forthcoming) analyses show that both groups of learners orient to matters of preference, entitlement and contingencies in implementing requests. That is, L2 learners do not only design an action that will be recognised as a request, but also work towards avoiding rejections and maintaining social solidarity.

Similarly, in a study about the preference organization of requests in L2 German conversations with advanced learners, Taleghani-Nikazm and Huth (2010) found that all L2 learners in their study oriented to matters of preference organization in implementing requests, despite not having received instruction on the preference structure of requests. The authors claim that this may speak for a universal pragmatic skill which learners bring from their first languages. Importantly, they argue that studies need to go beyond the analysis of lexical and morpho-syntactic aspects of language when describing the sociopragmatic abilities of L2 learners, i.e., L2 learners' requests should not be analysed without close consideration of the larger sequential contexts and specific production contingencies in which they are embedded.

The current study draws on this work, which has traditionally used role-play, elicited spoken data and cross-sectional research designs to investigate a set of requests made by one L2 learner over time in the understudied context of text chats. Despite text chat popularity, only a handful of studies have looked at how L2 learners' methods to engage in *text-in-interaction* change over time (e.g., González-Lloret, 2008; 2011) and these studies have not focused on naturally occurring L2 interactions or on requesting. In investigating the changes related to one single learner in this particular setting, this paper offers a small but novel contribution to the study of L2 learners' methods to implement requests as well as to research within the framework of longitudinal CA and L2 IC development, which is discussed in the next section.

Interactional competence development

In this paper, interactional competence is understood as "the systematic procedures (of turn-taking, repairing, opening or closing a conversation, et cetera) by which members of a social group organise their conduct in a mutually understandable and accountable way" (Berger & Pekarek Doehler, 2015, p. 235). CA research carried out with spoken data suggests that such procedures are not merely adapted from speakers' first language(s) to their additional language(s), but "recalibrated [and] adapted in the course of L2 development" (Berger & Pekarek Doehler, 2015, p. 235). Moreover, IC develops as people get to know each other and in relation to changes in their status as members of communities of practice, such as classrooms (Hellermann, 2007), work settings (Nguyen, 2012) or home stays (Greer, 2019; Pekarek Doehler, 2018). For example, Greer (2019) shows how an L2 English speaker in dinner interactions with his host family moves from providing brief responses to topic proffers about the news of the day to expanding his responses in a more detailed telling fashion. Pekarek Doehler and Berger (2019) document changes in how an upper intermediate L2 French learner accomplishes word searches in conversations with her host family. The changes include not only diversification of methods to initiate word searches (in addition to the initial *how do you say* format), but also less reliance on the co-participant's provision of the searched terms, which indicates the learner's higher epistemic authority, autonomy and confidence with regard to the L2.

Space prevents a detailed review of other studies, but together, this body of work indicates that changes in L2 learners' methods to engage in social interaction are intrinsically intertwined with changes in how participants understand themselves to be at different points in time. This includes constant recalibration of what they know or are expected to know (the epistemic domain), (Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2019) and also of what actions they have the rights to implement (the deontic domain), which is an aspect yet to be explored by longitudinal L2 IC research. *Deontic authority*, i.e., one's power (in relation to another) to determine action (Stevanovic, 2011, 2018), is unavoidably present whenever speakers are engaged in talk about future actions, especially in cases when an utterance's propositional content relates to non-verbal actions to be performed by the recipient (Stevanovic, 2018). Therefore, the data analysed in the present study – requests for action addressed to a teacher – make deontic concerns

particularly relevant. The framework of deontics distinguishes between participants' *deontic status* and *deontic stance*. Deontic status refers to "the relative position of power that a participant is considered to have or not to have, irrespective of what he or she publicly claims" (Stevanovic, 2018, p. 375). Deontic stance, in turn, relates to how a given deontic status may be encoded in participants' actions (e.g., through different grammatic realizations and lexical choices). The notions of deontic status and deontic stance will be used in the analysis in order to explore how changes over time in the focal learner's methods to implement requests reflect changes in participants' relationships and deontic authority.

L2 IC in text chats

Given the conversational nature of text chats and their pervasive use in present-day social interactions (Ceci, 2022; König & Bahlo, 2022), a growing body of studies has drawn on conversation analytical methods to explore L2 text chat interaction (Negretti, 1999; Tudini, 2007, 2010, 2014; González-Lloret, 2008, 2011; Abe & Roever 2019, 2020). Specifically drawing on the notion of L2 IC, Abe and Roever (2019, 2020) analyse the openings and closings of online task-based text interactions from dyads at three different levels of L2 proficiency. Abe and Roever (2019) report that more proficient learners tend to engage in longer preliminary sequences and display a broader array of linguistic resources to accomplish first-idea proffers in comparison to beginner- and mid-level learners. Similarly, Abe and Roever (2020) document that proficient learners' closings tend to include extended sequences, orientation to relationship matters (rather explicit orientation to task completion only) as well as smooth transitions from topical talk to the actual closing. In contrast, beginner-level learners' closings are done without topic extensions and in a less subtle stepwise manner. Due to the cross-sectional design of this research, however, changes in same L2 learners' interactional behaviour over time were not addressed.

To date, only a handful of microanalytic studies have focused on changes over time in text chats. For example, González-Lloret (2008, 2011) use CA to investigate L2 Spanish learners engaged in a task-based collaborative project with L1 speakers through Yahoo! Messenger. González-Lloret (2008) documents changes in how the pronouns *tu* (you, informal) and *usted* (you, formal) are used over time as a result of repair. Similarly,

González-Lloret (2011) show how an L2 learner moves from producing minimal or no response to their co-participant's trouble-telling to displaying sympathy and affiliating with the teller. Although both studies analyse instances of text chat interaction within a short timeframe (8 weeks), they showcase that text chats can be studied from an L2 IC development perspective.

In contrast to this previous work, the present study analyses L2 text chats from a decidedly L2 IC developmental perspective (e.g., Wooton, 1997; see Skogmyr Marian & Balaman, 2018 for an extensive review of research on L2 IC). It explores the changes in one learner's methods to implement naturalistic requests to the teacher over nine months on a multi-party WhatsApp group. This study's account of changes in the participant's interactional practices over time considers the import of prior actions for actions taking place later within larger time spans as well as evolving socio-interactional rapport between the focal participants (Deppermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2021). It thus responds to recent calls for more longitudinal L2 IC studies addressing how changes in L2 learners' interactional practices are intertwined with participants' shared interactional histories and evolving social relations with one another (e.g., Deppermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2021; Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2018, 2019).
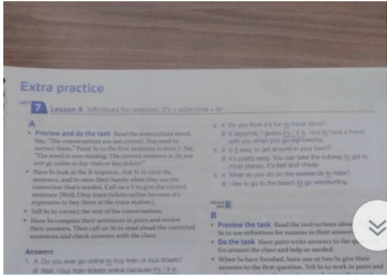
Data and procedures
The data for this study stem from a text chat data base of 8 adult learners/speakers interacting on WhatsApp for nine months. In total, the chat log comprising the entire data contains 819 posts. The extracts selected for this study consist of multi-semiotic text talk comprising linguistic and paralinguistic resources, such as punctuation and emojis.

The students and the teacher are native speakers of Portuguese and used the chat in parallel to weekly face-to-face B1-level classes at an English language programme in Brazil. The WhatsApp group was created by the teacher in order to offer students and the teacher a channel of communication in addition to face-to-face class. The group's entire chat log was shared with the researcher by the teacher with students' consent. All names were replaced by pseudonyms.

To facilitate the analysis and the reading of the posts, the original screenshots have been rendered in a transcript format (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. Transcript sample

Line number	Date	Time	Participant ID	Post (formatted as it appears in the chat, including mispellings, omissions and emojis)
01	22.08.18	15:48	MAR:	Hi teacher, you can send here the exercise of lesson A, unit 7, page 146, corrected, please 😘😘😘
04		17:53	TEA:	<<lines 1-3 quoted>> Most certainly, dear Marta! Let me just get to the campus and I will photograph it 📷
07		17:56	MAR:	👍👍👍😘
08		18:15	TEA:	<<picture of exercise>> There you go.
09		18:40	MAR:	Thanks dear teacher

Quote (usage of reply function is indicated by double angle brackets, including quoted lines, immediately followed by accompanying text)

Shared content (shared content, e.g. pictures, appears inside double angle brackets, it is followed by accompanying text)

The present study follows a microanalytic approach to digital interaction (Giles et al., 2017; Meredith et al., 2021), which draw on the CA analytical principles of sequential organisation and participant orientation (i.e., how participants themselves understand a prior action, which is observed in how they respond to it). The use of CA methods to the study of text-chat interaction mediated by smartphone applications is considered appropriate due to the fact that users' posts, i.e., "individual contribution[s] appearing as a single time-stamped unit on the interactants' screen" (Abe & Roever, 2019, p. 4, see also Tudini, 2014), are exchanged and not produced in isolation. They are sequentially organized and build on each other to form largely coherent courses of action (Meredith & Stokoe, 2014; Marmorstein & König, 2021; Rendle-Short, 2015; Sampietro, 2019).

The analysis is also informed by recent developments within longitudinal CA and L2 IC development (Deppermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2021; Hellermann, 2007; Nguyen, 2012; Pekarek Doehler et al., 2018; Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2018, 2019). At the core of this research is the tracing of how learners diversify their interactional practices in order to accomplish a given action or activity in ways that display "increased ability for context-sensitive

conduct" (Pekarek Doehler et al., 2018, p. 17). Within this framework, in order to trace changes over time, the analytical procedures involve comparing multiple instances of the same participant accomplishing the same action (e.g., a request) under a recurrent speech exchange system with the same co-participants or participants of the same category. The isolation of one specific interactional environment and one participant assured comparability and sequential post-by-post iterative analysis was carried out with each instance in order to track the changes in request practices over time.

Due to differences in how texts are organized compared to face-to-face conversation and in the semiotic resources that texters mobilise to accomplish actions in text-chat interaction, a direct transfer of research findings and methods from L2 IC research of spoken data is problematic. Acknowledging this constraint, the analysis proposed in this paper is exploratory. It is based on the micro (grammar, lexicon, and para-linguistic features) and macro (sequential position, deontic status, date and time) features of the WhatsApp exchanges. As participants themselves resort to these as contextual features in understanding and producing action, considering this constellation of elements is key to understanding L2 text-chat interaction from an emic perspective (ten Have 2007).

The analysis focuses on chronologically organised requests to the teacher. The requests relate to an answer key for extra non-mandatory practice exercises that were not reviewed in class and for which an answer key was not available to the students. Consequently, in order to obtain the answer key for these exercises, students had to request it from the teacher. Whether or not the WhatsApp group was explicitly established a priori as a means to obtain the answer key is unclear. What is known is that the students were instructed to raise questions about the exercises in class and that this was often enacted at the beginning of the lesson. As the teacher was commonly present in the classroom before the start of the lesson, students often also used this slot to ask questions about the execution of the exercises.

The specific questions that guide the analysis are:

a. How does Marta, the focal learner, design each request? How are these requests treated by the teacher?

and

b. How does the design of Marta's requests change over time? What changes in how Marta's requests are responded to over time?

Analysis

The analysis accounts for how the four instances of the same-type same-participant requests were accomplished throughout the data collection. The four cases are compared in relation to differences in the design of the requesting posts and how they are treated by the teacher.

The first two requests sent by Marta (indicated by MAR in the transcripts) took place in the first month of interaction in the WhatsApp group. Prior to them, activity in the chat consisted of brief exchanges initiated by the teacher about topics related to the lessons (e.g., the sharing of links to instructional videos on specific grammar points) and some exchanges among fellow students about organisational matters related to the course.

Excerpt 1 shows the first request made by Marta, which was sent in the afternoon a few hours prior to the face-to-face lesson.

Excerpt 1 "Most certainly" (22.08.18, 15:48-18:40)

```
01 22.08.18 15:48   MAR:   Hi teacher, you can send here the
02                         exercise of lesson A, unit 7, page 146,
03                         corrected, please 😘😘😘😘
04          17:53   TEA:   <<lines 1-3 quoted>> Most certainly, dear Marta!
05                         Let me just get to the campus and I
06                         will photograph it 📷
07          17:56   MAR:   👍👍👍😘
08          18:15   TEA:   <<picture of exercise>> There you go.
```
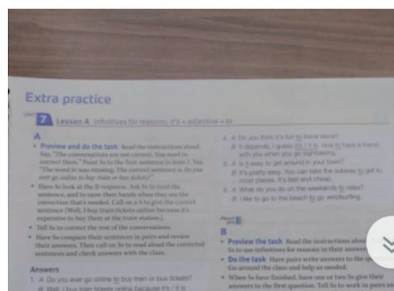


```
09          18:40   MAR:   Thanks dear teacher
```

The requesting utterance (lines 1-3) is designed with the modal *can* auxiliary in a declarative format *you can send here* (line 1), with *here* referring to the WhatsApp group. The requested object is phrased as *exercise corrected* with the specification of its location in the textbook appearing between these two lexical items, which results in *the exercise of lesson A, unit 7, page 146, corrected* (lines 2-3). Two additional components are added at the

end of Marta's requesting post: *please* and a series of 'face throwing a heart-shaped kiss' emojis (line 3).

The teacher's response, sent two hours later, displays that Marta's actions are recognised as doing requesting despite the unconventional format of Marta's requesting utterance[3]. It starts with the phrase *most certainly*, accompanied by the endearment term *dear*, the student's name and an exclamation mark (line 4). What follows is a promise to grant the request (which will happen twenty minutes later, line 8) and an account (Antaki, 1994) for the non-immediate compliance with the requested action, i.e., the need to get to campus first to be able to take a picture of the answer key and share it in the WhatsApp group (lines 5-6). In accounting for not granting the request immediately, the teacher orients to the request as one that is urgent. This potentially relates to their pre-arrangement of discussing doubts related to the exercises in class. As the lesson was scheduled to start at 19:30 on that day, the sooner the teacher responded, the more time Marta would have to go through the exercise key and compile her questions to the teacher. The teacher's emphatic response not only confirms that requesting the answer key through the WhatsApp group is in line with Marta's deontic status as a student, but also upgrades the deontic stance encoded in the requesting post. The use of the endearment term *dear* preceding Marta's name gives the interaction a more sincere intimate and personal quality (see Clayman, 2010 on address terms). Accordingly, after the answer key is shared by the teacher (line 8), Marta recycles this term in the last post, containing a sequence-closing third (Schegloff, 2007) *Thanks dear teacher* (line 9).

A similarly designed request (with a modal-*can* declarative, equivalent lexical choices and emojis), is sent by Marta a week later (Excerpt 2). The requested object is the answer key for the exercises of the subsequent textbook lesson. This second request further shows the interplay between the low deontic stance encoded in Marta's requesting action, which will now be accompanied by an apology, and the deontic upgrading work that is done by the teacher.

---

[3] Modal-can declaratives are not conventionally used to make requests in English. Rather, the modal can auxiliary is used to make requests with an interrogative format, i.e., through can you- or can *I*-constructions comprising aux + subject + main/lexical verb (for an overview of request formats, see Couper-Kuhlen, 2014).

Excerpt 2 (27.08.18, 21:18 - 28.08.18, 08:20)

```
01 27/08/18 21:18   MAR:   Hello teacher, you can send
02                         the exercise of lesson B, unit 7, page 146,
03                         corrected, please 😘😘😘😘
04                         Sorry for the inconvenience
05        21:18     MAR:   🙈🙈
06        21:22     VAN:   Only to pag 146
07 28/08/18 07:58   TEA:   Good morning, everyone!
08                         How's it going?
09                         There is NO inconvenience at ALL
10                         🙂.
11                         I am sending here the key answer for
12                         page 146/ Extra Practice: Lesson A
13                         and Lesson B 👍
14                         Besides that some workbook
15                         exercises.
16                         Have a great day, dear ones!
17        07:58     TEA:   <<picture of answer key>>
```
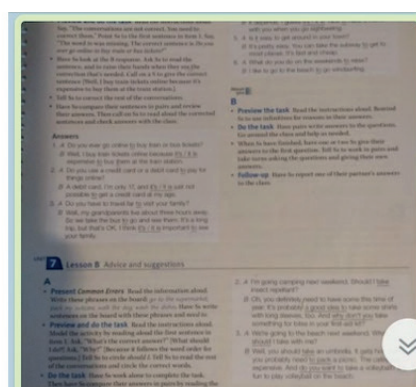


```
18        07:58     TEA:   <<picture of workbook exercises>>
19        07:59     TEA:   🔼 workbook exercises
20        08:00     TEA:   😘
21        08:20     MAR:   🌷😘
```

The requesting utterance (lines 1-3) is again phrased as a declarative with the modal *can* auxiliary and the answer key formulated with reference to its location in the textbook through the use of the terms *exercise* and *corrected*. The adverb *here* used to refer to the WhatsApp group in Excerpt 1 is not used this time. The term *please* is also employed again as a separate component (see the use of the comma after *corrected*) along with the same series of emojis as in Excerpt 1 (line 3). This time, Marta's requesting post contains an apology *Sorry for the inconvenience* (line 4). It is complemented by the use of the 'see-no-evil and hear-

no-evil monkey' emojis (line 5) in a subsequent post. Through the apology and the categorization of her requesting action as an inconvenience, Marta treats the action of requesting the answer key from the teacher as problematic. The fact that Marta's post was sent after nine o'clock in the evening could account for this additional action (absent in the Excerpt 1), as Marta might be orienting to the synchronicity of the medium and the possibility that the teacher may have seen her message when it was already night time.

The teacher's response the next day is designed as a dense single post made of several components including the statement *There is no inconvenience at all* with *no* and *all* in capital letters, and a smile emoji (lines 9-10). By downgrading Marta's claim of inconvenience with graphically-marked emphasis on *no* and *all* and a smiley emoji, the teacher upgrades the deontic stance encoded in Marta's requesting post. She confirms that Marta's request is in line with the rights and obligations of their relationship (as teacher and student) at this point. A description of the content that is about to be shared follows (lines 11-15). It specifies that besides the answer key, the teacher is going to share workbook exercises. This is done through separate posts containing pictures (lines 17-18). The fact that the teacher then shares not only the requested answer key, but also extra exercises, indexes the teacher's own deontic status. By complying with the request and granting something that is beyond what is requested, the teacher acts according to what could be normatively expected of her, e.g., providing students with the instructional resources and materials. Two additional posts are sent next, one referring back to the second picture (line 19) and one containing a closing affiliative move with the 'face throwing a heart-shaped kiss' emoji (line 20). The sequence ends with Marta's emoji-based post (line 21).

As outlined in the introduction, CA/IL research shows that request designs reflect participants' orientations to their rights to make a given request as well as the contingencies involved in granting it (Curl & Drew, 2008; Drew & Couper-Kuhlen, 2014; Taleghani-Nikazm & Huth, 2010). The analysis of Excerpts 1 and 2 (and later requests) suggest that Marta orients to potential contingencies and deontic concerns in initiating the specific action of requesting the answer key from the teacher. Arguably, she does so in unconventional ways, namely by adding the adverb *please* and a series of emojis (which will be dropped in later requests), resources that are available to her at that particular

stage of her language learning trajectory and in the medium being used. The adverb *please* is pervasively present in requests in English (Wootton, 2007). However, speakers of Portuguese tend to limit the use of the *please*-equivalent "por favor" to accomplish actions that carry implications of higher imposition on the interlocutor (Dias & Godoi, 2011). In later requests when Marta and the teacher's relationship has evolved, Marta's linguistic and interactional resources to accomplish requests follow a more conventionalized design and do not include *please*. This suggests that *please* is used in the first requests to minimize the imposition on the teacher. Furthermore, the throwing-a-kiss emoji has been reported to be used to foster affiliation in text chat closings (Sampietro, 2019). Arguably therefore, the combination of *please* + emojis projects an affiliative yet low deontic stance that shows Marta's orientation to the dispreferred nature of the action she is implementing in relation to the teacher and their relationship up until that point. The fact that they are added to the requesting post as final components separated by a comma lend them an incremental tone (on 'increments' in face-to-face interaction, see Ford et al., 2002), as if they were retrospectively acting on remedying or fine-tuning the prior action of the requesting utterance.

Excerpt 3 shows Marta's third request, which was sent two months later. One striking distinction between Excerpts 1 and 2 and Excerpt 3 is the inclusion of prefaces and accounts. In Excerpt 3, the intra-post request preface is phrased with the construction *I want* followed by the statement *I deleted all messages from my cell phone, without wanting to* (lines 1-4).

Excerpt 3 (30.10.18, 06:21-11:43)

```
01 30/10/18 06:21   MAR:   Hi friends! Dear teacher, I want to
02                         correct the exercises on pages 148
03                         and 149, I deleted all messages from
04                         my cell phone, without wanting to.
05                         Can you send the page photos again?
06          06:22   MAR:   I got up early🤪😁
07          06:36   LUC:   Good morning!!
08                         Me too!! 4:38😋
09          06:37   GIS:   Good Morning friends
10                         I got up at now😁
11          07:15   MAR:   I , 4:10 🤦‍♀️
12          07:52   TEA:   OMG😳!!! Early birds, huh?!
```

```
13                          Well, but the saying goes:

14                          "Early birds catch the worms" 💪

15        07:53   TEA:      <<picture of the answer key>> Page 148
```
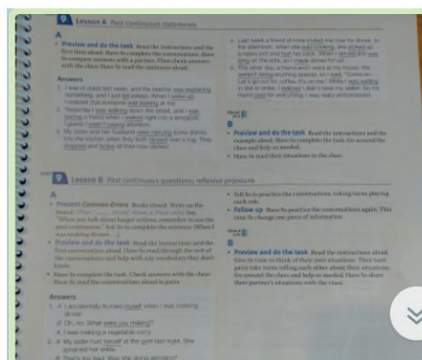


```
16        07:53   TEA:      <<picture of the answer key>> Page 149

17        07:55   MAR:      Thanks teacher😘🌸
```

The request itself appears next in the same post (line 5), and the declarative *you can* construction used in the first two requests is replaced by the more conventional interrogative *can you* construction followed by a question mark. The answer key is now formulated as *the page photos* (line 5) with reference to the *I want* preface containing the specification of the pages for which Marta needs the key (lines 2-3). The previously used *please* and 'face throwing a heart-shaped kiss' emojis are no longer used. The fact that these final components are not used when the prefaces are included provides further support for the claim that their appearance in Excerpts 1 and 2 indexes matters of contingency, preference and deontics. By prefacing the request statement with an explanation in Excerpt 3, Marta thus displays continued orientation to the requested action as dispreferred and imposing, thus requiring some prefatory work (Drew & Couper-Kuhlen 2014). Comparatively, in Excerpts 1 and 2, Marta seemingly resorts to *please* and the emojis in order to reduce the imposition of her action on the teacher and display sensitiveness to potential contingencies involving the grantability of the requests.

Differences in request design over time also index participants' interactional histories and evolving relationship status. For one, Marta needs to account for the fact that she is requesting the same item for the second time. Second, while the teacher complies with the proposed action, her responses differ from those in Excerpts 1 and 2 in that they do not display interactional work designed to upgrade the deontic stance encoded in Marta's requests. In Excerpt 3, the teacher simply provides the requested pages. All in all, the changes concerning

Marta's post design to make requests, and how the teacher treats them, indicate that it has been established that Marta holds rights to request answer keys in the WhatsApp chat. This is further showcased by Marta's fourth request, a month later.

Excerpt 4 (01.12.18, 14:58-17:34)

```
01 01/12/18 14:58    MAR:    Hi teacher
02                           I would like to confirm the answers
03                           of the exercises. Can you send me
04                           again? 🖐
05          14:59    MAR:    <<picture of filled out exercises>>
```
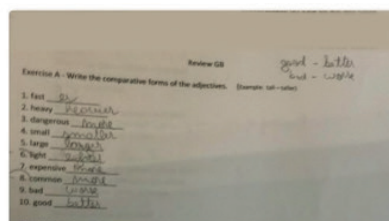


```
06 02/12/18 17:17    TEA:    <<collage containing a picture of a treadmill
07                           and a swimming pool with a balloon speech saying
08                           "KEEPING FIT">> After our "Show and Tell" things
09                           had to change 😜
```



```
10          17:18    TEA:    Lucia and Fabricia, you are hard
11                           to beat… But I have started 🏃
12                           🏊
13          17:34    TEA:    <<lines 1-4 quoted>> <<picture of answer key>>
14                           Dear Marta, here goes the key.
```
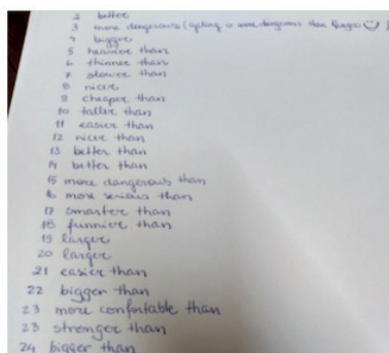
Similar to Excerpt 3, Excerpt 4 begins with an intra-post preface, this time a *would like*-declarative, which vaguely refers to the requested object through the phrase *the answers of the exercises* (lines 2-3). After a modal-*can* interrogative construction and a question mark *Can you send me again?*, Marta uses a downward pointing finger emoji (line 4) which projects that specification on what is being requested will follow. What appears next is a picture of the filled-out exercises that precisely informs the teacher about the exercises for which Marta is requesting the answers (line 5).

Although the limitations of the data prevent discussion beyond speculation, it is possible that Marta's use of the interrogative format occurs as appropriation (Pallotti, 2002) of the teacher's design in a request addressed to Marta just prior to the change observed in Marta's requesting practices. The teacher's request was designed as *Could you please send us the cake recipe here? I would like to bake it this weekend.* However, as Marta uses *can* and not the modal auxiliary *could*, it is difficult to assert that this instance triggered the change. Another possibility is that the teacher might have explicitly corrected Marta's way of requesting the answer key outside of the chat format (e.g., in one of the face-to-face encounters). However, ethnographic information about the context (i.e., extensive conversations with the teacher) suggests that this is a remote possibility.

The teacher's response (lines 13-14) complies with the proposed action, but does not include interactional work designed to upgrade or explicitly confirm that Marta's requests are within the scope of Marta's deontic status. Similar to Excerpt 3, the teacher simply provides the requested key, although this is done in a rather affiliative manner, through the use of the accompanying statement *Dear Marta, here goes the key* (line 14). Importantly, Marta's request in Excerpt 4 was sent at 14:58 on a Friday and the teacher's response was sent the next day at 17:34. However, in her response, the teacher does not include any accounts or apologies to indicate that her non-immediate fulfillment of the request (in comparison to Excerpts 1 and 2) is treated as problematic. Between Marta's request and the teacher's compliance, a new course of action is initiated by the teacher with a post containing a collage of a swimming pool and a tread mill (lines 6-9). The post refers to a previous face-to-face lesson, when participants engaged in a show and tell activity. During that activity, two students (Lucia, Fabricia) talked about their sports routine and the teacher

specifically addresses them in the posts preceding her response to Marta[4]. By prioritizing unrelated posts addressed to Lucia and Fabricia before granting Marta's request without explanations or accounts, the teacher does not treat Marta's request (Excerpt 4) as one that requires immediate action (cf. Excerpt 1). This lack of prioritization of Marta's post might be explained by the fact that Marta's request was sent on Friday, just prior to the weekend. The next session was still five days away thus, unlike Excerpt 1, there was sufficient time before the session for Marta to check the exercise key and prepare her questions. Further, the overall social understanding that weekends are work-free days potentially lessens the obligations attached to the teacher's deontic status. Most importantly, the fact that the teacher shares pictures of her whereabouts and current leisure activities indicates that participants' relationship has changed over time and has become less institutionalized, with the deontic status of teacher and student being less foregrounded in participants' exchanges. As such, the teacher's pictures support the claim that the absence of *please* and emojis in Excerpts 3 and 4 are in line with Marta's higher deontic authority in relation to the implementation of class related requests in the WhatsApp group.

As summarized below (see also Table 1 in the Appendix), the analysis of Excerpts 1-4 point to changes in the focal learner's interactional practices and linguistic resources to implement request sequences as well as a concomitant change in learner-teacher relationship:

(1) substitution of the idiosyncratic declarative format *you can* with the more usual interrogative format *can you* in the requesting statement;

(2) reduction of phrases to refer to the requested object. Initially referred to through long phrases and qualified with the adjective *corrected* (Excerpts 1 and 2), the requested object was later referred to through a short phrase, e.g., *the page photos* (Excerpt 3) or with reference to medium-specific affordances (Hutchby, 2014), such as a photo of the sought-after answer key (Excerpt 4).

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[4] The pictures that form the collage were taken by the teacher as she exercised at a fitness club. The teacher's post has a friendly tone and suggests that she felt motivated by Lucia's and Fabricia's exercise routines and (re)started exercising herself.

(3) abandonment of the intra-post final components *please* + a series of the 'face throwing a heart-shaped kiss' emoji;

(4) addition of intra-post request prefaces that contextualise and account for the requests., i.e., *I want* and *I would like* constructions positioned before the requesting statement;

(5) reduction of negotiation of deontic rights between the participants.

These modifications indicate that, although Marta orients to potential contingencies involved in granting the requests as well as to her rights to implement them throughout the data collection, in the later requests, she does so in more conventional ways, thus displaying increased awareness of "recurrent and sedimented ways of accomplishing specific social actions" (Couper-Kuhlen, 2014, p. 624). Arguably, the changes in Marta's requests are accompanied by higher deontic authority, indexed by the exclusion of the modalising components *please* and emojis and by the teacher's responses to her requesting actions, i.e., a reduced need to overtly legitimise or upgrade the deontic stance encoded in Marta's requests.

Discussion and conclusion
Beyond the use of learning applications (e.g., Duolingo), smartphones afford L2 learners/users a broader array of options to participate in social interaction, which is key for the development of L2 IC. This study has analysed data coming from WhatsApp, a popular app for social interactions. The analysis showed how resources used in the initial requests (i.e., the adverb *please* and the emojis) were later abandoned as a result of changes in the linguistic and interactional practices mobilized by the learner, the reoccurrence of the same action, and changes in participants' relationship status. The fact that participants had known each other for only a few weeks, seems to have contributed to the low deontic stance enconded in Marta's earlier requests. Over time, the teacher and the learner became more familiar with each other and requesting the answer key in the chat became a non-problematic activity for both interlocutors. This was evidenced not only by the absence of initial components, but also by changes over time in the answers provided by the teacher in response to Marta's requests.

This study contributes to the theorizing of IC by further illustrating how learners' participation in previous text-chat interactions may equip them cumulatively with the methods for going about their current and future text-based exchanges. It particularly highlights the potential of the framework of deontics to open new lines of enquiry within IC research, especially in understanding intertwined relationships between L2 learners' methods to accomplish social actions over time and changes in how participants negotiate, maintain and resist power within the larger structures of the interactions in which they engage. Finally, the study highlights the value of a CA/IL approach to study L2 IC in the online space, especially for text-chat interaction.

One limitation of the study relates to its adhering to CA's principle of participant orientation to determine the uses of some action designs. This becomes especially evident in the analysis of Marta's use of a declarative format without a question mark to make requests (Excerpts 1 and 2). As previous research has shown, by prefacing a request with a modal verb (e.g., *Can you ...?*), requesters treat the requested action as one that they have a certain degree of rights to initiate and that has low imposition on the addressee. In contrast, by choosing alternative indirect request formats, commonly through declarative formats, speakers display an orientation to known or anticipated contingencies associated with their request and to lower deontic status in relation to their co-participants (Curl & Drew 2008; Stevanovic 2011). Since Marta's initiating action imposes on the teacher by asking her to engage in the work of sharing the answer key (which the teacher could do, for instance, by scanning the book pages or typing the answers and sending them via email), the modal-*can* declarative might have been an attempt to present the initiating action both as a request and as a solution to the teacher's decision-making of how to send Marta the answer key. Arguably therefore, by using the modal verb *can* in a declarative format, Marta could be suggesting or proposing a way for the teacher to give her access to the answer key, i.e., through the use of WhatsApp instead of, for instance, sending it via email. Two pieces of evidence contribute to this interpretation. First, the absence of question marks (which are used by Marta and other students to make other types of questions in the chat despite sometimes deviating from conventional word order). Second, when sharing a cake recipe in month 2 of the WhatsApp group, Marta uses the modal *can* with a clear suggestion function (after the list of ingredients) through the phrase *can put together* followed by a series of optional

ingredients (e.g., *bananas*). This suggests that Marta, in designing her first two requests, may have purposefully avoided a straightforward modal-*can* interrogative as it would have encoded a higher deontic stance in making this type of request to the teacher. Whether this was actually the case remains unclear, as further evidence for this claim would be necessary. Importantly, this question touches upon the issue of the extent to which the grammatical and sequential structures, practices and functions identified within CA/IL research – largely based on L1 speakers' interactions – can inform the analysis of IC in additional languages in a way that avoids the pitfall of researcher's explaining what goes on in data based on a perceived lack of competence of L2 speakers (Wong & Olsher, 2000 in an interview with Emmanuel Schegloff). In other words, how can longitudinal IC research draw on the descriptive categories and findings of CA/IL research to investigate language change in additional language interaction without overlooking the potentially different, yet equally complex uses of an additional language as a shared resource mobilized by multilingual speakers in their interactions? How can we apply the same level of scrutiny to grasp the complexity of interactional phenomena in additional language interaction without reducing such phenomena to a '(not-yet)-good-enough' version of what has been described by L1 CA/IL research? How to tackle this issue is a matter for further research.

This study has practical implications for L2 learning and teaching. For one, having an unlimited register of their own posts as well as of the posts produced by their peers and instructors may afford learners the opportunity to reassess their own and other's language use and draw on these practices in future exchanges. Likewise, teachers may have access not only to learners' needs and L2 IC current developmental stages, but also to their personal worlds, which can serve as rich pedagogical resources for lesson design and implementation. The analysis of the selected data also supports claims that digital spaces (e.g., text chats) may extend L2 learners' opportunities for meaningful language use (Jenks, 2009). Unlike classroom conversational tasks, which are limited because they do not have real-life consequences, interaction in parallel chats without any pre-set instructional agendas can offer an authentic locus for participation in the language being learned. Therefore, the use of text chats for L2 instruction seems to be in line with the understanding that L2 instruction should "expand

opportunities for learners to adopt new resources" that allow them "to bring their social worlds into existence, maintain them, and and transform them for their own purposes" (Hall, 2018, p. 55).

Finally, the study provides further evidence for claims that participation and learning are intrinsically connected, i.e., "interaction itself affords learning" (Nguyen, 2019, p. 62). The data clearly indicate that, despite the absence of correction in the chat, linguistic and interactional changes took place. This impacts on how we understand the role of L2 instruction. It suggests that L2 instruction may be less about identifying and helping learners overcome their language inaccuracies and more about building environments where learners are positioned as competent conversationalists with increasing rights to pursue desired courses of action, such as making genuine requests to the teacher. The findings of this paper can serve as an example for practitioners of how L2 learning encounters in the online space can be a locus for L2 IC development without necessarily resorting to pre-assigned pedagogical tasks. Thus, data from text chats can complement CA-based teacher programs (Salaberry & Kunitz, 2019) and be a valuable resource to enrich L2 instructors' repertoires of practices for promoting language use beyond the confinements of the classroom.

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Appendix
Table 1: Changes in the request sequences over time

Excerpt	Occurrence	Format of the requesting statement	Formulation of the requested object	Accompanying components/ actions	Treatment of the requests by the teacher
1	Beginning of month 1	Modal-can declarative construction *you-can* (no question mark)	- exercise of (information) corrected reference to requested object placed within the requesting statement	- *please* - 😘😘😘 - apology - 🙇🙇	- Upgrading of the deontic stance of the prior action Compliance prior to the granting of the request Unpacking of contingencies accounting for non-immediate compliance
2	End of month 1	Modal-can declarative construction *you-can* (no question mark)	- exercise of (information) corrected - reference to requested object placed within requesting statement	*I want* preface	- Upgrading of the deontic stance of the prior action - Granting of the request
3	End of month 3	Modal-can interrogative construction *can you* + question mark	- page photos - reference to requested object placed within preface in the same post	*I would like* preface	- Granting of the request
4	Beginning of month 5	Modal-can interrogative construction *can you* + question mark	- answers to exercises + picture - reference to requested object placed as a picture in a separate post		- Granting of the request

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Interactional Practices to Manage Epistemic Stances in Online Searches During a Computer-Mediated Conversation-for-Learning

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Abstract: *Despite rising interests in the manifestations of second language (L2) interactional competence (IC) in online language learning activities (e.g., Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b), participants' interactional practices for managing epistemic stances in online searches remains largely unexplored. This paper examines how an intermediate-level learner of English jointly managed epistemics with a tutor in a text-and-voice teleconference session designed as a conversation-for-learning. The analysis focuses on web search sequences occasioned by emergent epistemic asymmetries in the ongoing talk, and how the participants leveraged resources to negotiate knowledge positions and display affiliation during online searches. Findings reveal that epistemic stance management is a prominent aspect of the IC involved in online search sequences. For example, during an online search, the tutee demonstrates his IC by citing and attributing responsibility to the source in response to epistemic primacy challenges. In the process, he also utilised affiliative resources such as laughter and a term of endearment to delicately manage disaffiliation. By focusing on the management of*

epistemic stances during online searches, this study informs the use of online searches in L2 learning activities to foster opportunities to perform stancetaking practices as part of the learner's IC.

Introduction

Online searches—the activity of finding information on the Internet—have become ubiquitous in everyday conversations and language learning in many settings. Online searches often emerge when participants look up words, images, or songs online in order to achieve intersubjectivity (e.g., Çolak & Balaman, 2022; Greer, 2016; Musk, 2022; Nguyen, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2022). Since the search activity is essentially a socially shared quest for knowledge in an accountable and mutually understandable way, online searches are a prime site for the observation of epistemic stance management. Further, online searches could be integrated into technology-mediated, task-oriented activities that promote opportunities for language learning (e.g., Balaman & Pekarek Doehler, 2021; Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b; Pekarek Doehler & Balaman, 2021). From a second language learning perspective, a relevant question is, what interactional practices do learners mobilise in online searches? Our paper addresses this question by examining occasioned online search sequences in a text-and-voice teleconference tutoring session designed as a conversation-for-learning. Drawing on conversation analysis (CA), we endeavour to examine how *stancetaking*—ways in which an interactant positions themselves vis-à-vis their interlocutors in evaluating some state of affairs—contributes to the learner's participation and coordination with an interlocutor in web searches as a social activity. Our overarching goal is to understand the learner's manifestation of interactional competence as he navigates through the technological and conversational affordances and constraints of online search sequences in text-and-voice teleconference interaction. Ultimately, this is to inform pedagogical decisions about the use of Internet searches in fostering opportunities for stance management as part of second language (L2) users' interactional competence in the online space.

Background

L2 interactional competence

Interactional competence (IC) refers broadly to "the ability to achieve actions locally, contingently and collaboratively with others in contextualised social interaction" (Nguyen, 2019a, p. 60; following Hall, 2018; Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Nguyen, 2012a; Pekarek Doehler & Petitjean, 2017). Being situation-specific and co-constructed with others in interaction, IC involves the capabilities to employ verbal, embodied, and other semiotic resources to perform a number of interactional practices—notably, turn-taking practices, turn design and action formation practices, sequence organisation practices, repair practices, and boundary management (opening, closing, and transitioning) practices (Kasper, 2006, p. 86; see also Hall, 2018; Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011).

Of relevance to this paper is Kasper's (2006) point that semiotic resources in turn design and action formation are employed to construct epistemic and affective stances. In studies on young L2 learners' IC, Cekaite (2012, 2016, 2017) effectively tracked young Swedish-as-a-second language learners' changes over time in stancetaking practices such as non-compliant responses via lexico-grammatical and embodied features. For adult L2 learners, while much IC research has focused on turn-taking practices (e.g., Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2015; Watanabe, 2017), turn-design practices (e.g., Kim, 2019; Nguyen 2019a, 2019b), boundary management practices (e.g., Nguyen, 2012b), repair practices (e.g., Hellermann, 2011; Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2019), sequence organisation (e.g., Pekarek Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2015), and topic management (Kim, 2017; Nguyen, 2011), the management of stancetaking as an aspect of IC among adult L2 users has only recently been analysed. For instance, Burch and Kley (2020) demonstrated that during speaking assessment activities, L2 learners achieved intersubjectivity with peer co-participants by publicly displaying their epistemic and affective stances toward prior talk and the assessment activity itself. Their study demonstrates that a part of being a competent participant entails the ability to understand ongoing turns at talk in order to build the next turns with appropriate stances.

Expanding research on L2 learners' IC, in this paper we focus on an adult L2 learner's stancetaking practices as part of his

IC in online searches, where epistemic stance management is a foregrounded concern for the participants. We will next review concepts related to epistemic stance management and online search practices.

Stance management
Stance refers to a positioning achieved through conduct, which is publicly available, interactionally organised, and socially consequential (Sorjonen & Peräkylä, 2012). In social interaction, participants constantly engage in stancetaking to communicate, understand, and relate to each other, mutually attending to what is being made relevant at a given moment and organising their courses of actions to achieve a shared goal (Goodwin, 2007). By taking a stance, participants invoke an evaluation toward the stance object, which in turn implicates their knowledge at the sociocultural, personal, and local levels—together, these layers of knowledge both form stancetakers' momentary relationship and are consequential for their actions (Stevanovic & Peräkylä, 2014). In simple terms, stance is not a mental or stable property but rather something that is hearably and recognisably displayed in public, leading to certain uptakes or interactional effects. Stance management, then, concerns the interactive process whereby participants reciprocally orient to indexing and negotiating stances in interaction. In this paper, we mainly focus on epistemic stances.

Epistemic stance refers to participants' knowledge claims toward some stance object with respect to the co-participants from one moment to the next. Participants employ verbal, vocal, and nonvocal conduct in their turn design situated in particular sequential contexts to assert, contest, defend, and account for their claims of *access* (knowing/not knowing, direct/indirect knowledge, degrees of knowing/not knowing), *primacy* (relative rights to make judgements based on quality of knowledge), and *responsibilities* (accountability for knowing/not knowing) vis-à-vis the recipient (Heritage, 2013; Stivers et al., 2011). In conversations, participants generally orient to reaching an agreement over who has more rights to tell or judge some object relative to each other's displayed knowledge status (*epistemic congruence*). Epistemic congruence is realised when two parties adopt reciprocal positions throughout turns and sequences; for instance, a speaker expresses a more knowledgeable stance, to which another speaker reciprocates by taking a less knowledgeable stance (Heritage, 2012). By contrast, a lack of agreement over who has superior

access or rights to a knowledge domain (*epistemic incongruence*) can threaten the progression of talk (Mondada, 2011). In this case, negotiations of knowledge positioning take place, sometimes involving the need to cite or search for alternative sources of knowledge (Mondada, 2011; Pomerantz, 1984).

That epistemic stance management is part of action accomplishment and consequential for L2 learning has been shown by a number of studies. In online intercultural exchange conversations, L2 learner's epistemic stance displays in the form of short surprise tokens can prompt further telling of a photograph shown on camera (Pouromid, 2020). In L1-L2 conversations for learning, occasioned and prospective knowledge checks by the L1 speaker and repair initiated by the L2 speaker—both orienting to possible asymmetries in knowledge status—can generate definition sequences to achieve intersubjectivity, which can lead to learning opportunities (Kim, 2019). Furthermore, language learners' changes in epistemic management in task-oriented activities are indicative of their IC development (Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b). Balaman and Sert (2017a) showed how L2 users initially mobilised limited resources to enact congruent epistemic positioning, some of which led to disruptions of task progressivity (e.g., irrelevant requests, failures to display listenership and understanding, epistemic primacy challenges); yet over time, the participants' use of resources to index congruent epistemic positioning diversified, and the disruptions to task progressivity also disappeared. Altogether, these studies foregrounded conversational and pedagogical activities as a stimulating environment for epistemic management, whereby opportunities for language learning and IC development are occasioned by participants' displays and negotiations of knowledge stances.

Learners' interactional practices in online searches
In this study, we focus on participants' interactional practices during collaborative online searches in text-and-voice computer-mediated communication (CMC) (e.g., Nguyen, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2022). Collaborative online searches—web searches that involve two or more parties (versus independent searches by only one party)—can be occasioned by questions that invoke a 'searchable object' (e.g., songs, videos, webpages) or by a 'state of confusion' in which participants express divergent understandings and self-doubt (Brown et al., 2015; Çolak & Balaman, 2022). Generally, collaborative searches are initiated by one party's request for suspending the ongoing conversation (e.g., "just wait a moment,"

Greer, 2016, p. 203), sometimes followed by verbalising (the aim of) their current action (e.g., "I will find the correct word," Greer, 2016, p. 203; "I'm trying to find X," Nielsen, 2019, p. 208; "I will search it," Çolak & Balaman, 2022, p. 6) or spelling aloud the words in the search query to account for device use and to involve co-participants in the search (Porcheron et al., 2016). In online searches, participants may engage in searching information while enacting epistemic positioning (Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b), referencing what they see on the screen ("there is a tweet," Balaman & Sert, 2017b, p. 122) to engage the co-participants, and using the verbal expression "let me X" to coordinate searches not mutually accessible to them (Balaman & Pekarek Dohler, 2021). In collaborative searches, one party may be the 'driver' who performs the search actions on the device and other parties the 'passengers' who do not manipulate the device but co-participate in the search by providing suggestions, directives, questioning, confirming, or commenting on search results (Brown et al., 2015; Porcheron et al., 2016). In these cases, the 'driver' manages the participation of the 'passengers' by asking questions and narrating what they see on the screen, especially when participants lack mutual visual access to the referent (Yu & Tadic, 2020).

Extending prior research on collaborative online activities, this study focuses on how the management of epistemic stances contributes to action accomplishment in online search sequences during a computer-mediated conversation-for-learning. By examining participants' stance management as they invoke references from the Internet, we aim to understand the role of knowledge displays and negotiations in coordinating online searches while shaping the momentary relationship, and what these in turn tell us about the learner's IC.

Methods

Data for this single-case study were obtained from one naturally-occurring video-recorded Skype session between two participants from Brazil: Clara (pseudonym), a tutor located in the United States, and João (pseudonym), a tutee located in Brazil (see also Nguyen et al., 2022).[1] We were interested in understanding

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[1] The tutor was assessed at C2 level (Common European Framework of Reference). The tutee's four language skills were assessed by the tutor to be at the intermediate level.

computer-mediated language learning and teaching taking place naturally; therefore, we did not attempt to make any alterations as to the manner the lessons were structured or how technology was utilised.

The recorded session was part of João and Clara's ongoing series of long-distance conversations-for-learning (Kasper, 2004), which regularly took place over Skype. In this session, João and Clara were focusing on developing João's speaking fluency. They talked about a variety of topics, mainly his recent work and life activities and whenever appropriate, Clara interjected to provide João with new lexical items or idiomatic expressions. Skype was utilised for practical reasons since it was at no cost to both participants; however, due to low bandwidth issues at João's location, during the lessons they used only voice and text chat without video or screen sharing. Throughout every session, Clara frequently used the text chat function for corrections or to provide examples, and João was used to this interaction format. While Clara was typing a message (marked by the symbol ⌨⌨⌨ in the transcripts), João only saw three dots (...) appearing in his chat window. The entire message became visible to him as soon as she hit the return key (marked by the symbol ↵ in the transcripts). A camera on Clara's side captured the participants' voices as well as Clara's screen and typing motion. Due to logistical constraints, no video data was collected on João's side.

After repeated viewings of the recorded session, we identified three extended online search sequences and transcribed them following Jefferson's (2004) CA transcription conventions. Since Clara's non-vocal actions were not available to João, they are transcribed in grey shading. CA was then carried out to understand the participants' actions, with attention to micro-details of talk from the participants' perspectives (Have, 2007; Schegloff, 2007). CA has been shown to be a fruitful approach to analyse text-and-voice interaction (e.g., Balaman & Pekarek Dohler, 2021; Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b; Nguyen, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2022; Pekarek Dohler & Balaman, 2021) as it enables the examination of sequential organisation of talk in integrated modes. Our 'unmotivated looking' (Sacks, 1984) of the online search sequences revealed that knowledge stances seemed to be a relevant matter for the participants throughout the development of the searches. Our analysis thus focused on the participants' interactional practices for epistemic management as they jointly oriented to initiating, sustaining, and terminating the online searches. The

excerpts presented below illustrate these three online search stages.

Findings

In this section, we show the participants' interactional practices for managing stances throughout different stages of online searches (initiation, maintenance, and closing) and how the learner's practices may inform us about his IC in text-and-voice CMC. Specifically, we present two episodes, one in which a web search was occasioned by talk about the origin of Skype (Excerpts 1 & 2) and another in which a web search was occasioned by talk about a wine opener João had purchased (Excerpts 3 & 4).

Interactional practices to achieve epistemic congruence in search initiation

We first focus on the participants' practices for achieving epistemic congruence, which led to the initiation of an online search sequence. The learner's IC can be seen in how he responds to challenges to his claim of epistemic primacy. In Excerpt 1, the search sequence starts in line 44 but to understand its emergence, we need to look back at João's claim of epistemic access and primacy when he declares that Skype is "from the United States" (line 1).

Excerpt 1: "Skype I" [23:12–24:20]

1	João:	↑ah <u>yes</u>. it's from united <u>sta</u>tes.
2		(0.2)
3	Clara:	↑hih hih hih hih
4		(0.2)
5	Clara:	<u>OH!</u> i <u>did</u>n't know.
6		(0.8)
7	Clara:	<u>rea</u>lly? i thought sky[pe wa::s,
8	João:	[>huh<u>huh</u>- huh<u>huh</u>-<
9	Clara:	i thought skype wa::s: (0.3)
10		whatever it's a weird name?=
11		>so i thought it was like< <u>or</u>kut. °you know,°
12		(0.3)
13	Clara:	i thought it was u:h uh from another country.
14		(0.3)
15	Clara:	↑<u>do</u> you know if it's american? °i don't th-° (.)
16		>°i don't know,°<
17 →	João:	((reading)) skype and associated trademarks with the

```
18   →              logo with the ess (('s')) logo are trademarks of
19   →              skype limited.
20                  (0.3)
21     Clara:       a::nd?
22                  (0.4)
23     Clara:       <what does that mean.>
24                  (1.0)
25   → João:        just tha:t (.) they say:
26     Clara:       [↑ha
27      João:       [because when i >op-< pressed help?
28     Clara:       a:h okay. right. >right.=right.=right.<
29   → João:        [there is help?
30     Clara:       [yeah but they don't know.
31   → João:        in the end there is about [skype.
32     Clara:                                 [>aBOUT skype.<
33                  °a:h.=okay. I see.°
34                  (0.2)
35   → João:        [°and they didn't say that.°
36     Clara:       [((reading)) copyri::ght.
37   → João:        .hh ↑huh m- (i may-) that's not am- a
38                  >american company<=
39                  [because amer-- it's got to sa::y,
40     Clara:       [yeah. its'- it's- i-
41      João:       it's amer- american <co:mpany.>
42     Clara:       ↑really? [I've never- (.)
43      João:                [°yeah.°
44     Clara:       wait. now i'm ↓curious.=wait. °°wait.°°
45                  (0.2)
46     Clara:       °<let's see where skype is from.>°
47                  (.)
48     Clara:       .h 'cause this name is too weird to be:: (0.2)
49                  <an English name.>
50     Clara:       s- [skyp[e.        .h
51                     [⌨ ⌨ ⌨ "(skype)"
52   → João:          [like.=skype. °type?°
53     Clara:       [origin.
54                  [search results appear
```

In response to João's knowledge claim, Clara displays her evolving state from not-knowing to knowing with a change-of-state token ("OH!," line 5) (Heritage, 1984), followed by claiming no prior knowledge of Skype's origin (Mondada, 2011; Sert & Walsh,

2013). Before João produces a relevant next action, Clara begins questioning João's claim, starting with giving accounts (lines 7–13) and checking his epistemic status ("↑<u>do</u> you know if it's american?," line 15) (Sert, 2013). Given that these series of actions occur after João's assertion, Clara is challenging his authority in this matter. Despite her challenge, however, Clara positions herself as more or less unknowing by prefacing her accounts with "I thought" (lines 7–13) to index an epistemic downgrade (Kärkkäinen, 2003) and by claiming no knowledge of the referent (">°I don't know,°<," line 16). João's reassertion of his epistemic primacy can be seen in lines 17–19. Specifically, rather than responding to Clara's epistemic check, João verbalises a statement about Skype, using it as a source to strengthen his assertion (Pomerantz, 1984). At this juncture, the emergence of epistemic incongruence is evidenced by Clara's nonacceptance and challenge of João's claim and João's subsequent reassertion of epistemic primacy.

Whenever a speaker cites sources to bolster assertions, the co-participants can evaluate the sources' credibility before accepting or rejecting the assertions (Pomerantz, 1984). When Clara treats the source João provided as insufficient by questioning its upshot (lines 21–23), João passes responsibility to the source (line 25), and instead of providing the upshot, he directs Clara's attention to where the source is located (lines 29–33), thereby inviting her to verify the source herself. Following both participants' unsuccessful attempts to identify the answer from the "About Skype" tab, João revises his earlier assertion (that Skype is "from the United States"), now treating this source as invalid (lines 37–39 & 41). The resolution remains inconclusive: neither participant has greater epistemic authority to the reference. At this point, Clara resorts to alternative sources of knowledge by initiating an online search (line 44): After requesting to suspend the ongoing talk, she produces a turn-holding and collaborative activity-preface expression ("let's see," line 46) to announce an incipient search activity on her private screen while engaging João in it (Balaman & Pekarek Doehler, 2021).

It is important to note how the participants manage the search activity as a dispreferred action. Clara gives accounts both before and after the search initiation (lines 48–49). Since the search activity not only threatens the progressivity of the ongoing talk but also suggests her reluctance to accept João's claim and his displayed epistemic stance as a knowing party, Clara's orientation to it as a dispreferred action exhibits her efforts to establish

alignment and affiliation with João. On his end, João also seems to treat Clara's response package as dispreferred: His alignment with her search activity to progress it forward is quite delayed (line 52).

In short, an online search was initiated due to participants' joint orientation to achieve epistemic congruence. Notably, the learner's IC is seen in referencing a source to support one's claims (lines 17–19), attributing responsibility to the source in response to epistemic primacy challenge (line 25), and directing the recipient to verify the source (lines 29–33). The search initiation was managed delicately, with delays, accounts, and a shared orientation to realignment; its preference organisation is coloured by the participants' orientation to manage interpersonal relationship in achieving congruent understanding.

Interactional practices to negotiate epistemic stances during the search
Excerpts 2 and 3 show how the participants sustain the online search for negotiating epistemic stances, during which João employs additional practices such as verbalising his ongoing action (Nielsen, 2019) and naming a recognisable source to involve Clara in the search while defending his epistemic stances. Further, João mobilises acknowledgement tokens and a term of endearment as interactional resources to build affiliation with Clara while performing the sensitive action of doing correction.

During the online search about Skype, Clara verbalised a result that shows Skype to be an eBay company with headquarters in Luxembourg (not shown). Treating this information as support of her understanding that Skype is a non-American company, in Excerpt 2, Clara transitions to close the search by teasing João about his personal preference for eBay (lines 1–2). However, João opposes this conclusion (line 3)—thereby renewing epistemic incongruence—and reopens the search.

Excerpt 2: "Skype II" [26:56–27:37]

1	Clara:	.hh hhhhhhh. see? = °but-° you're- you're
2		happy it's an ebay company:.
3	→ João:	n↑o BUT. I- I'M- I'M reading <u>here</u>.
4		h- you were wrong darling.
5		because he was <u>found</u> in swe<u>den</u>.
6		(0.3)
7	Clara:	↑<<u>luxembourg.</u>> °that's what it <u>sa</u>[id.°
8		[⌨ ⌨ ⌨ *"luxemb[ourg"*

```
9    →  João:                                           [ye::s.
10   →  João:    but ↑a:fter tha:t
11   →  João:    [the skype <was bought °from°> for ebay=
12      Clara:   [↵ "luxembourg"
13      João:    =yes?
14      Clara:   I ↑don't know. I just read one site.
15   →  João:    [a::h °because°
16      Clara:   [°i just read what ↑i told ya.°
17      João:    (°a::h°)
18      Clara:   °well?°
19               (1.2)
20   →  João:    ye:s because here I':m reading wikipedia- (0.3)
21               dot org.
22               (0.3)
23      Clara:   [right.
24   →  João:    [and they say that.
25      Clara:   o:h=okay. >i see.<
```

Without responding to Clara's tease, João reopens the search activity about Skype's origin by first disagreeing with Clara's assumption, followed by a prosodically emphatic "but" to resume the prior topic (Schiffrin, 1987). Next, João verbalises his local action ("I- I'M- I'M reading here," line 3) (Nielsen, 2019) to involve Clara in the search while projecting an upcoming correction. Mitigating the correction with an intimate address term ("you were wrong darling," line 4), João identifies Sweden as Skype's origin (line 5). Of note, by attaching the term of endearment in his correction, João orients to correcting Clara as a dispreferred action which requires interactional work to maintain social solidarity with her. In any case, there is now a mismatch in the participants' understanding about Skype's origin, and their epistemic stances in the matter once again become open for negotiations.

After a delay (line 6), Clara reasserts her understanding and rejects João's assertion. She references the source from her prior search to defend her contestation ("°that's what it said.°," line 7), thus passing responsibility to the source (Pomerantz, 1984). In lines 8 and 12, she types the word "Luxembourg" in the chat to add visibility in emphasising her point (Nguyen, 2017). While João acknowledges Clara's contribution ("ye::s.," line 9), he uses a stressed contrastive "but" followed by a temporal transition ("after that") to emphasise that Skype was originally from Sweden but

was subsequently bought by eBay (lines 10–11), thereby asserting his greater epistemic access to a more full-fledged version of Skype's origin based on his search.

In response to João's solicitation for agreement ("y̲es?," line 13), Clara denies epistemic responsibility by first claiming no knowledge (Keevallik, 2011) then accounting for it by downgrading her claim of access to only "one site" (line 14). João begins initiating an account ("°because°," line 15), which he momentarily abandons to respond to Clara's further attribution of responsibility to the source ("°i just read what ↑i told ya.°," line 16). After a gap of silence, in lines 20–21, João acknowledges Clara's account then reinitiates his own account: He involves Clara in the search by narrating his ongoing action ("here I':m reading") (Nielsen, 2019) and specifies the source's URL: "w̲ikipedia- (0.3) dot org." Naming a recognisable source proves to be effective in persuading Clara: She acknowledges the source and displays a shift in epistemic alignment (Goodwin, 2007) by agreeing with João's account (lines 23–25). At this moment, the participants finally establish epistemic congruence in which they mutually agree that João has superior knowledge on the matter.

Excerpt 3 (see also Nguyen et al., 2022) illustrates how the participants manage epistemic stances while sustaining the search for a wine opener João had recently purchased. According to João's description, the wine opener is manual but can remove the cork automatically (not shown). Clara challenged the logical congruence of João's description (that something can be "manual" and "automatic" at the same time); meanwhile, she launched a web search to look for references. In Excerpt 3, the participants work toward establishing intersubjectivity about João's wine opener. As shown in Nguyen et al. (2022), the participants' orientation to negotiate epistemic stances contributes to the maintenance of the online search. In addition to a demonstrated ability to manage stancetaking while maintaining the search, João's IC is also evident in his use of laughter to neutralise the disaffiliative impact of Clara's display of non-understanding and doubting (lines 172–174) and the intimate address term in countering Clara's epistemic primacy challenge (line 187).

Excerpt 3: "Corkscrew I" [37:49–38:42]

162	Clara:	=cuz. (0.5) the corkscrews ↑I̲ kn̲ow, you have to (.)
163	Clara:	use your hands to remove the cork (.) afterwards.
164	João:	n̲o. I have to >use< ↑my hands as w̲[ell.

165	Clara:	[↑so but- but
166		[⌨ ♂ *"(cork)"*
167	Clara:	you are saying: you're saying:
168	Clara:	⌨ ♂ *"(screw)"*
169	João:	but [it's [au↑to<u>ma</u>tic.
170	Clara:	[↵ ♂ *"corkscrew"*
171		[*new results page appears*
172	Clara:	but- (.) ↑<u>ho</u>:w.
173		(0.5)
174 →	João:	hih [hih .hhh hih hih hih hih
175	Clara:	[O::H okay.=wait. I'm looking at stuff.
176	Clara:	>°let's see°<
177	João:	let- let- let me see:, <<u>if</u> °I find here.°>
178	Clara:	cuz it's <u>like</u> [<u>HE</u>re.
179		[*clicks on link*
180	Clara:	here's sh:: showing > two different ↓things.<
181		<corkscrews <u>a::nd</u> wine openers.>
182	Clara:	so they're <u>two</u> (.) different things
183	Clara:	.hh and <u>NO:W</u> I see <something <u>pretty</u>
184		cool> here >that< <u>may</u>be >that's what
185	Clara:	you're talking about.< .HH <u>but</u> it's <<<u>electric.</u>>>=
186	Clara:	=↑see? >that's what i'm [↑saying.<
187 →	João:	[no.(.) au↑<u>to</u>matic. (.)°darling°
188		mi:ne's manual.
189	Clara:	<u>mm</u>:.
190		(0.3)
191	João:	°let's see [(here I:.°
192	Clara:	[((reading)) <u>per</u>fect shape.
193		<<u>screw</u> <u>pull</u> <u>cork</u>screws.>

João reasserts his claim by disconfirming Clara's reasoning, his assertion expressed through the recycling of her expression "use (one's) hands" (line 164). Clara continues to challenge João's description with a displayed attempt to formulate his positioning ("↑so but- but you are saying:," line 165–167) (Drew, 2003) and simultaneously reopens the web search by typing the keyword "corkscrew" (lines 166–168), but before Clara could complete her turn, João re-introduces the key feature of the wine opener ("but it's au↑to<u>ma</u>tic.," line 169). This prompts Clara to produce an emphatic "↑<u>ho</u>:w" (line 172) to index strong opposition to João's statement (Kangasharju, 2009). Instead of reformulating his description, which may not contribute to resolving their failure to

achieve intersubjectivity and affiliation in the matter (as evidenced by Clara's repeated use of but-prefaced turn constructional units to signal disaffiliation, lines 165–172), João produces a series of laughter tokens (line 174) to mark his recognition of Clara's contestation without escalating the mutual displays of divergent understanding.

It is also during this time that Clara makes public her engagement with the web search (lines 175–176), showing her orientation to new sources that could resolve their lack of mutual understanding. On his side, João also announces that he is launching a web search to defend his claim (line 177). However, only Clara verbalises what she orients to among the search results, as typical of co-present search and consistent with what Clara has been doing in this conversation (lines 180–183). This may be due to the fact that the search results support her argument that the wine opener described by João is electric (line 185), thus contradicting his claim. Facing Clara's citation of the search results as a source, João counters with a simple repetition that the wine opener is "automatic" (line 187), which renews the need to achieve epistemic congruence (Nguyen et al., 2022). It is important to note that he softens the disaffiliative effect of countering Clara's displayed understanding with the term of endearment "darling," to which Clara acknowledges by continuing her search rather than concluding it based on her just-searched results (lines 189 & 192–193). The fact that João announces his continued web search (line 191) may indicate that he has not found relevant search results to back his claim (hence the lack of result verbalisation). Both participants show continued orientation to achieving intersubjectivity by sustaining the online search about João's wine opener.

Interactional practices to forgo epistemic incongruence in search termination

Having examined participants' interactional practices in search initiation and maintenance, with the final excerpt, we will show how Clara and João work toward terminating the search in pursuit of a new topic (Excerpt 4). We will suggest that the learner's IC is evident in closing the search by convincing the other without supporting evidence, producing an emphatic assessment to invoke "ownership" (Raymond & Heritage, 2006), and aligning with other-initiated stepwise topic shift.

Prior to Excerpt 4, Clara read aloud different types of corkscrews from her search, none of which was accepted by João (see also Nguyen et al., 2022). This prompted Clara to express her doubt about the wine opener several times, including lines 214–215 in Excerpt 4.

Excerpt 4: "Corkscrew II" [38:48–39:03]

214		Clara:	I̲:: don't know. >I don't know what you're talking
215			about.< [but it's okay.
216			[*scrolls down*
217			(.)
218		Clara:	((sniffs))
219			(0.3)
220	→	João:	[beli̲eve me.
221		Clara:	[*scrolls up*
222		Clara:	hih hih [hih ↓hih
223	→	João:	[it's [rea:::lly °good.°
224		Clara:	[*stops scrolling*
225	→	Clara:	and how̲'d you hear about it.
226	→	João:	[↑well when just looking I wa:s
227		Clara:	[I mean you we̲re in england and you saw it
228			and then [you,
229			[*closes webpage,*
230			*returns to videoconference chat*

Without arriving at a shared understanding, Clara signals a sequence closure with an optimistic projection (Jefferson, 1988) ("but it's okay," line 215), in effect cancelling the doubt and terminating the search. Rather than insisting on sustaining the web search about his wine opener, João attempts to convince Clara with a plea ("beli̲eve me.," line 220), albeit with no conclusive evidence yielded by the prior search sequence. Overlapping with Clara's laughter (line 222), which is perhaps deployed to diffuse the displayed disaffiliation leading up to this point, João produces an emphatic assessment ("it's rea:::lly °good.°," line 223). With this, João invokes his ownership of the wine opener and his relative rights to evaluate it (Raymond & Heritage, 2006) while demonstrating his understanding of and alignment with Clara's projection to terminate the search activity (lines 214–215). As seen in lines 224–225, Clara subsequently stops scrolling and produces a stepwise topic shift by asking how João heard about the wine opener, thereby launching a new interactional project.

Continuing his alignment, João responds to Clara's question without any delays, which contributes to the smooth transition out of the search activity. Although matters concerning the participants' epistemic incongruity remain unresolved, their joint orientation to abandon the search in pursuit of the new developing topic seems to forgo the preceding disaffiliative actions about the wine opener. The participants reciprocally orient to one another's pursuit of the new interactional project by jointly reorganising their courses of action toward resuming the activity of talking.

Discussion and conclusion
The analysis above has shown several interactional practices for managing epistemic stances during online searches in a text-and-voice teleconference session designed as a conversation-for-learning. In particular, it reveals João's displays of epistemic stances in the sequential organisation of talk. In Excerpt 1, João first made a claim about Skype's origin, but when faced with a challenge to his epistemic primacy, he cited a source to support the claim. When the relevance of this source was questioned, he passed the responsibility to the source. When this is further challenged, he shared his method of accessing the knowledge, thus inviting Clara to verify the source herself, then eventually revised his claim to indicate uncertainty. His stance displays were recalibrated moment-to-moment in response to Clara's ongoing actions. When João challenged Clara's assertion that Skype is from Luxembourg (Excerpt 2), at first he rejected her assertion and accounted for his opposition by verbalising his local action and referring to the source via a deictic pronoun ("n↑o BUT. I-I'M- I'M reading <u>here</u>."). But when confronted with further challenge by Clara, João upgraded the account by specifying the source's URL ("<u>Wikipedia</u>- (0.3) dot org."). Similarly, when João opposed Clara's doubt (Excerpt 3), he first started with a rejection ("<u>no</u>.") plus an assertion based on his first-hand experience ("I have to >use< ↑my hand as <u>we</u>ll."). In the face of Clara's nonacceptance, he produced another assertion ("it's au↑to<u>ma</u>tic.") then sought the support of an authoritative source by reopening an online search. Finally, when Clara gave up on verifying João's claim with an online search (Excerpt 4), João initially solicited acceptance by convincing without evidence ("be<u>lie</u>ve me."). Then, upon receiving affiliation (via laughter tokens) but not epistemic alignment from Clara, he subsequently upgraded his epistemic status by invoking his ownership of the wine opener via an

emphatic evaluation ("it's rea:::lly °good.°"), thereby indexing greater epistemic access and primacy relative to Clara. It is important to note that in asserting epistemic primacy, João designed his turns to be sensitive to his recipient's evolving epistemic and affiliative stances. When he used direct rejections such as "no but" and "you were wrong," he immediately coupled them with a reference to an authoritative source, a telling of his first-hand experience, a term of endearment, or laughter, as seen in Excerpts 2 and 3. Participating in online searches thus afforded the learner with opportunities to engage in a wide range of social actions in context, which are both the target and the vehicle for language development.

Importantly, the participants' situated roles of 'driver' and 'passenger' in collaborative searches (Brown et al., 2015; Porcheron et al., 2016) were constantly shifting, as both participants have direct access to operate the device and perform search actions on their own. Without mutual visual access, however, collaborative searches in text-and-voice CMC require the participants to engage in interactional work to alert and involve each other in the search process. João's IC in this particular online environment is observable in his demonstrated ability to (a) align with or initiate an emergent interactional project (i.e., initiating and sustaining online searches) to resolve or negotiate a knowledge gap (Excerpts 1 & 2), (b) perform dispreferred actions (e.g., corrections) while affiliating with the recipient (Excerpts 2 & 3), and (c) forgo a topic even if intersubjectivity is not fully achieved (Excerpt 4). Together with previous research (e.g., Burch & Kley, 2020; Kim, 2017; Sert, 2013; Sert & Walsh, 2013), our analysis reveals a learner's IC at work in online interaction with respect to epistemics management through turn design and action formulation.

Pedagogical activities can be designed with these findings in mind to stimulate and diversify learners' L2 use. First, the type of actions João participated in is quite different from other CMC situations in which participants are able to show each other pictures on their screens. In those situations, the availability of shared visual information has been found to lead to descriptions by one party and short surprise tokens by the other to elicit further telling (Balaman & Sert, 2017a; Pouromid, 2020). In our study, it seems that problems in achieving congruence in epistemic positioning afforded the learner occasions to produce actions such as assertion, reassertion, rejection, claim revision, giving accounts, citing a source, and convincing. The data thus suggest

the values of technological constraints as the trigger for differing social actions (see also Nguyen et al., 2022). In designing online language learning activities, teachers may want to intentionally plant constraints such as restricting learners' access to quick answers to web searches or shared visual information, while monitoring how learners are negotiating epistemic stances in order to provide timely pedagogical intervention to develop learners' IC. Second, the data suggest the value of free-flowing conversations about the learner's own experiences (versus task-based activities) as a fertile soil for the practice of epistemic stance management. For example, class time can be put aside for learners to share recent goings-on in their lives such as new events, purchases, discoveries, and worries. This has the added benefits of putting the learners at the centre of classroom activities, thus integrating the L2 into their life-worlds.

Transcription notations

Transcription notations follow Jefferson (2004) and in addition:

Italics	non-vocal actions accompanying vocal actions in the line above
⌨ ⌨ ⌨	typing of text inside quotation marks in Skype text chat
↵	the pressing of the 'enter' key to send text chat message inside quotation marks in Skype
⌨ 🔍	typing of text inside quotation marks in web browser
↵ 🔍	the pressing of the 'enter' key to send search query inside quotation marks in web browser

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Features of Online Second Language Interactional Competence in a German-Israeli Virtual Exchange

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Abstract: *By investigating the first thirty minutes of ten initial student group meetings (cf. Rampazzo & Aranha, 2019), this study explores the interactional resources that participants display during online talk-in-interaction. Multimodal Conversation Analysis is applied to the data consisting of* Gesprächsanalytisches Transkriptionssystem 2 *(GAT2) transcriptions of recorded Zoom video conferences. Virtual Exchange (VE), also referred to as Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL), is a method of intercultural online learning in which groups of learners collaborate with partners from another culture or geographical area in an authentic and immersive setting.*

Despite the collaborative and immersive nature of virtual exchanges, microanalytic studies regarding interaction in this field are still underrepresented (Dooly, 2017). This is also and particularly true for the concept of interactional competence (IC) (Kramsch, 1986) which has hardly been considered in VE research so far. IC is a competence model that comprises interlocutors' interactional resources such as turn-taking, repair, sequence-organization, multimodal resources and other.

This paper depicts the interactional strategies that EFL students adopt in online video team meetings. Further, it argues that some L2 IC features, such as turn-taking and multilingual resources, come with particular dynamics and characteristics in a VE context and provides examples for these practices.

Introduction

"A good advice would be to really prepare for what is coming. And I mean that on a very basic level. Are you able to talk to other people? How do you ask questions even if they are more candid? What would you do when there are

> misunderstandings or disagreements? These are the things one should think about before getting into it [a Virtual Exchange]."
> (German student, 2019/20 cohort)

This paper introduces Second Language Interactional Competence (L2 IC) in the context of telecollaboration by demonstrating how German and Israeli students display specific online L2 IC interactional resources in a Virtual Exchange (VE) project. The data consists of multimodal transcriptions of recorded Zoom video conferences implementing Conversation Analysis for Interactional Competence.

Over the last seven years, the virtual exchange project *Extended Telecollaboration Practice* (ETP) between future English as an additional language (EAL) teachers at the Kibbutzim College of Education in Tel Aviv and the Ludwigsburg University of Education has become a firmly established fixture at both educational institutions (Schwab & Drixler, 2020; Waldman & Harel, 2015; Waldman, Harel & Schwab, 2016, 2019). The ETP project between Israel and Germany is a VE with English as a *lingua franca*. Primarily guided by the didactic concept of project-based language learning in telecollaboration (Dooly & Sadler, 2016), the initiative features on-going project-based online group collaboration between pre-service foreign language trainee teachers. It links research on teacher training at the tertiary level with the implementation of collaborative online media.

After observing that students utilise specific interactional practices and strategies in remote online Zoom-based group interactions, the micro-analytic approach of Conversation Analysis (CA) was applied to the VE recordings. Since talk-in-interaction is the main object of inquiry in CA, its function is to find out how L2 speakers achieve regularity and mutual understanding or intersubjectivity, how they perform social actions through conversation, and particularly what interactional instruments they utilise and how they use them in an online video setting.

Virtual Exchange (VE)

VE concepts are known by a variety of names, making it difficult for the practice to be more commonly understood and implemented (Rubin, 2016). For this paper, the term VE is applied since it is most commonly accepted and, despite some criticism of its 'virtual' semantics (Colpaert, 2020), has become firmly established over recent years (O'Dowd, 2021).

VE or telecollaboration entails participation in online intercultural interaction and collaboration projects with learners from other cultural contexts or students who are geographically distant. These exchanges are usually integrated into the participants' educational programs (O'Dowd, 2018). This method can be classified under the didactic concept of experiential learning (Kolb, 2014) and can be divided into two categories: tandem and *lingua franca* constellations.

In the tandem model, two native speakers of different language backgrounds contact each other online to learn each other's language. Therefore, the communication should be in 50 percent of one partner's native language and the other 50 percent in their target language and vice versa (Kohn & Hoffstaedter, 2015). In the *lingua franca* approach, the foreign language serves as the working language because both partners have a different L1 but share the same L2. The target language is spoken in a non-artificial authentic setting, thus participants on both sides usually have no other way to communicate with each other. Given that the participants have a similar language level, the anxiety of speaking the common foreign language in the telecollaborative setting is reduced (Melchor-Couto, 2017; McCafferty, Jacobs & Iddings, 2006). The ETP project considered in this paper is a *lingua franca* VE with English as the common language.

VE combines numerous advantages, such as the acquisition of digital literacies and the development of intercultural communicative competence (Chun, 2011). It further establishes an environment in which the foreign language is used in an authentic setting. A growing number of telecollaborative school projects go beyond the foreign language classroom and are implemented in other settings, such as bilingual or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) subject classes (O'Dowd, 2018). Recently, cross-curricular projects entirely allocated outside of foreign language teaching and learning have been increasingly implemented and considered in VE research (O'Dowd, 2016). With programs such as Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange and UNICollaboration, the implementation of telecollaborative projects both in K-12 schools and universities is facilitated and institutionalised (Helm & Acconcia, 2019; Waldman, Harel & Schwab, 2016).

The practice of VE has gone through numerous evolutionary steps. During its developmental phase in the early 1990s, it mainly featured e-mail exchanges (Harris, 1999; Warschauer, 1996), and with the growing inclusion of video conferencing software in the

late 2000s, there was a conceptual shift to Telecollaboration 2.0 (Guth & Helm, 2010). This concept integrated new tools and possibilities and also highlighted the new competencies, multi literacies and responsibilities that were necessary for its application in online exchanges. The concept of Telecollaboration 2.0 has proven to be long-lasting and sustainable as it continues to allow for the integration of new technologies, devices and apps.

Current VE projects feature practices such as gamification (Jauregi & Melchor-Couto, 2017), 3D-webquests in a flipped classroom (Kohn & Hoffstaedter, 2015), smartphone integration and Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) (Andujar, Salaberri-Ramiro & Martinez, 2020; Sevilla Pavón & Haba Osca, 2017), critical approaches to culture (Helm, 2018; Chanethom, 2020; Porto, 2014; Tcherepashenets, 2016) as well as augmented and virtual reality integration (Anton, Kurillo & Bajcsy, 2018; Rhee et al, 2020). Recent publications have also focused on the impact of COVID-19 on VE (Bali et al., 2021; Liu & Shirley, 2021; Sebastian & Souza, 2022), noting an increasing number of VEs since the beginning of the pandemic and highlighting the professional implementation of VEs as best practice for other university courses that suddenly had to be organised entirely online.

Interactional Competence (IC)

Interactional Competence (IC) was first introduced by Claire Kramsch in 1986, building on the foundation of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). Kramsch (1986) argues that IC presupposes "a shared internal context or 'sphere of inter-subjectivity" (p. 367). Building a shared internal context helps to reduce "the uncertainty that each speaker has about the other's intentions, perceptions and expectations" (Kramsch, 1986, p. 367). In this process of negotiation of meaning (Long, 1996), interlocutors adjust their utterances according to the effect they have on those of their conversational partners. Therefore, interaction involves anticipating the reaction of others as well as potential misunderstandings by "clarifying one's own and the other's intentions and arriving at the closest possible match between intended, perceived, and anticipated meanings" (Kramsch, 1986, p. 367).

Through these descriptions, Kramsch (1986) delineated social interaction as a multi-faceted, highly complex process, distinguishing it from the "oversimplified view on human interactions" (p. 367) associated with the 1980's language

proficiency movement (Byrnes & Canale, 1987; Higgs, 1984).
IC is characterised as:

- being based on social, context-specific communicative events,

- including various activity types and trajectories of actions, that enable interlocutors to align themselves to certain communicative situations,

- including the ability of the interlocutors to understand and recognize context-specific patterns and actions,

- interlocutors having a deep knowledge of prosodic, linguistic, sequential, and nonverbal resources usually used by L1 speakers in a definitive communicative act,

- including the ability to interpret interlocutors' verbal and non-verbal actions allowing the construction of one's own actions to be easily recognized by other participants of the speech act,

- allowing the interlocutors to solve linguistic problems and maintain understanding throughout the entire act of communication (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011).

Further developments in IC elaborate on Kramsch's (1986) conception of multi-faceted and highly complex individual human interaction. Young (2008) views IC as a "relationship between the participants' employment of linguistic and interactional resources and the contexts in which they are employed" (p. 101), whereas Markee (2008) suggests three constituents of IC: 1) speech as a formal framework, including vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, 2) semiotic frameworks, including repair, turn-taking, sequence and preference organization, and 3) paralinguistic features or multimodal resources, including gestures, mimicry and gaze orientation (Markee, 2008; Sert & Seedhouse, 2011).

Second Language Interactional Competence (L2 IC) in Virtual Exchange
Recent studies have shown that learning an additional language without learning IC can be counterproductive to authentic communication and discourse (Stivers et al., 2009; Moorhouse, Li & Walsh 2021; Young, 2014). It has also long been understood that the capacity to speak a language grows through communication with other people (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Vygotsky, 1987).

Interaction is best conceptualized in this sense as a collaborative process that enables communicative activities to be carried out and lays the foundation for language growth (Wells & Bridges, 1981).

Despite this collaborative nature of interaction, L2 IC within telecollaboration has barely been subjected to scientific scrutiny (Dooly, 2017). Moreover, microanalytic studies, in general, and CA studies, in particular, are still small in number in the research of VE (Balaman & Sert, 2017; Cunningham, 2017; Hauck & Youngs, 2008; Tecedor Cabrero, 2013). As argued in Dooly (2017, p. 177):

> There is a growing call for more microanalytical approaches that take into consideration the participants' perspectives (e.g., through the application of Conversation Analysis) [...]. These are just a few of the numerous questions that will inevitably emerge as telecollaboration – that is, an embedded, dialogic process that supports geographically-distanced collaborative work, intercultural exchange, and social interaction of individuals or groups through synchronous and asynchronous communication technology (Internet, mobile services, etc.) so that they co-produce mutual objective(s) and shared knowledge-building – continues making prodigious strides in practice and research.

Common occurrences in telecollaborative videoconferencing, such as topical or general small talk or troubles talk are necessary components of these exchanges for the purpose of facilitating group identity and intercultural learning. In order to understand these phenomena, interaction must be regarded from an emic perspective (cf. Sert, 2015), applying conversation or interactional analysis (Dooly & Smith, 2020). Taking an emic perspective implies that speech and interaction insights are made from the standpoint of the participants or social actors in the very moment of the interaction (Jenks, 2014). The inductive, bottom-up approach of CA has proven to be an optimal choice to take this perspective and to analyze the typical components of L2 IC in online learning environments, namely online presence, identification practices, turn-taking, summons-answering exchanges and ongoing talk (Jenks, 2014).

Multimodal Conversation Analysis
Multimodal aspects such as gaze, pointing, nods, body orientations, raising hands or facial expressions are well-covered in pragmatic

research (Kupetz 2011; Mondada 2007; Stein 2007) but at the same time highly under-represented when it comes to online video conversations (Sindoni, 2014). According to Kupetz (2011), who examined multimodal resources in CLIL classrooms, gaze, hand movements and body orientations play a significant role in L2 interaction, particularly when explaining specific facts and circumstances. It is, therefore, crucial that the linguistic as well as interactional and multimodal resources of participants are thoroughly examined when evaluating IC in VE. As this study shows, the scrutiny of L2 IC requires research methods that are precisely tailored to examining a range of multimodal resources as objects of investigation - one such research method is CA.

Based on audio/video recordings and transcriptions, the goal of CA is to explain, analyze, and comprehend talk as a fundamental and constitutive aspect of human social life. For decades, CA was primarily applied to transcribed cassette recordings of talk-in interaction, such as recorded telephone calls (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1978). CA traditionally focuses on several of IC's observation points, for example, sequence organization, repair, turn-taking and preference organization (Markee, 2008). While multimodal resources such as gaze and paralinguistic features were historically neglected until the 1990s, research based on video data and focusing on aspects of embodied interaction in combination with talk and beyond talk, has been on the rise since the early 2000s in CA-related fields (Stivers & Sidnell, 2005; Deppermann, 2013). These facets of bodily conduct are taken into consideration in my analysis of three interactional resources that played a major role in our VE, namely (1) epistemic resources, (2) turn-taking, and (3) multilingual resources.

Epistemic resources
CA research on epistemic resources focuses on "the knowledge claims that interactants assert, contest, and defend in and through turns at talk and sequences of interaction" (Heritage, 2013, p. 370). It describes on the one hand, how knowledge emerges and, on the other hand, examines how claims to knowledge and prior knowledge are brought into conversation by participants. This practice can be observed and studied by focusing on knowledge claims or their opposite, i.e., claims of insufficient knowledge (e.g., 'I don't know') that interlocutors assert, contest or defend in talk-in-interaction (Sert & Walsh, 2013).

Epistemic resources are also central to the conception of IC.

Young (1999) characterises IC as "a theory of the knowledge that participants bring to and realize in interaction and [that] includes an account of how this knowledge is acquired" (p.118). These epistemic details and practices are crucial in the research of IC since the language that interlocutors learn to utilise in interaction already comes with specific personal as well as cultural judgements towards that knowledge (Hall, 1995). Similarly, CA research has shown that interlocutors' management of knowledge asymmetries (Heritage, 2012) and the coordination of knowledge are the main drivers of spoken interaction (Mushin, 2013; Sert & Jacknick, 2015).

Numerous CA studies address social epistemics in face-to-face interaction. Mondada (2013), by way of example, has scrutinized how knowledge is recognized and distributed in groups of interlocutors during guided visits. Her study focuses on the ways in which participants' epistemic status, that is their access to knowledge, is upheld as well as how it is contested, transformed and negotiated. Siegel's (2013) longitudinal study observes epistemic practices, particularly word search sequences, between two speakers of English as a *lingua franca* who share the same dormitory.

A large number of epistemic studies have been implemented within traditional classroom settings where the construction is carefully guided, including focal points on extended information request sequences between EFL teachers (Leyland, 2014) and epistemic-search sequences between L2 students during learning tasks (Jakonen & Morton, 2015). Even though these very practices are similarly observable in the data of this study, the classroom-centered approach differs substantially from *lingua franca* VEs which entail the formation of knowledge through negotiation of shared cultural knowledge and meaning (Kääntä, 2014). Thus, in order to analyse epistemic resources, this study focuses on knowledge asymmetries by participating students and how they manage to create spaces of shared knowledge to overcome these discrepancies (Kramsch, 1986).

Turn-taking
Turn-taking in talk-in-interaction is at the heart of many CA-based studies (Heritage, 2017; Sert, 2015) and, moreover, was one of the main foci in the design and development from the very beginnings of CA (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1978). Turn-taking includes opening and closing moves, topic management (development and extension), repair and evaluation, backchannelling, self- and

other-assessment, pauses, minimal response tokens, holding and maintaining the floor, handing over the floor (turn-transition moves), clarification tokens, mutuality, checks and requests (Hall, 1995; Balaman & Sert, 2017; Tecedor Cabrero, 2013; Moorhouse, Li & Walsh 2021).

> "As an empirical matter, turn-taking is remarkably orderly, with the transition from one speaker to the next recurrently managed with a minimum of silence between turns and with little overlapping speech." (Clayman, 2013, p. 151)

In co-present environments turn transition usually occurs after the completion of turn constructional units or near turn completion (Seedhouse, 2005). In online environments, however, turn transitions can happen before completion of turns (Stivers et al., 2009) and thus disrupt video group meetings. During video conferencing, participants therefore need to pay attention to falls in pitch which indicate end of turn (Sert, 2011). Thus, online L2 IC is dependent on the production and coordination of vocal cues, including micro changes in stress and intonation, as they may indicate turn-taking much more than in co-present environments.

Overlapping utterances as a variation of turn-taking occur when turn transitions seem to be close or when speakers attempt to speak at approximately the same time. In such cases, pauses open up the conversational floor for other speakers and might lead to overlapping (Markee & Kunitz, 2013). The difficulty of eliminating overlapping utterances in online VE environments can be explained by the lack of physical proximity which causes students to start speaking at the same time. Interlocutors must affectively identify when it is appropriate to take a next turn which can be a guessing game. It should be highlighted that most interactions pause when overlapping occurs, causing interactants to wait for clarification of the pause and to try to gain mutual orientation again. At the same time, interactants use pauses to reset the conversational floor back to a one-speaker-at-a-time format (Long, 2015).

Multilingual resources
In current studies, the term 'multilingual resources' is often used synonymously with 'code-switching', 'own language use' or 'use of L1' (Sert, 2015). Code-switching, for example between L1 and L2, can be used as evidence of both advanced (Lee, 2016) or rudimentary (Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain, 2009) access to

resources in the target language. It is thus context-dependent whether code switching is considered a resource or competence, or in contrast, indicates a lack of L2 linguistic competence.

Compared to other interactional phenomena such as turn-taking, the study of CA focusing on the strategic use of other languages than the target language, namely multilingual resources, is still a (relatively) young field of scrutiny (Sert, 2015). A CA methodology to investigate language alternations was developed and implemented in the early 2000s (Mondada, 2004; Torras, 2005; Li, 2002) and the CA-specific approach in the scrutiny of multilingual resources "dispenses with motivational speculation in favour of an interpretative approach based on detailed, turn by turn analysis of language choices" (Li, 2002, p.167). Therefore, the phenomenon needs to be regarded neutrally and descriptively and is included as a feature of IC only in specific instances.

The majority of the CA studies of multilingual resources focus on language alternations in classroom-based settings (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005; Bonacina & Garafanga, 2011), i.a. pointing out the central role of teachers' code-switching, and therefore have little bearing on online L2 communication.

With regard to multilingual resources in online communication, Lee (2016) points out that "much of the existing research on CS [code-switching] in online communication points to a common theme: that the negotiation of language choice and alternation between linguistic codes serve as an important resource for self-presentation and identity performance" (p. 124). However, the CA research on online multilingual resources to which Lee (2016) refers has focused mainly on written or asynchronous discourse, such as blogs (Leppänen, 2007) or YouTube videos and comments (Androutsopoulos, 2013). Therefore, it still needs to be determined whether the use of different languages in synchronous VE online team meetings is used for the performance of identity, and self-expressive purposes.

Methodology

This explorative study analyses features of L2 IC during initial online team meetings using CA as a methodological tool.

Data

The data for this study was acquired via the ETP project (see Introduction), during November 2019 and January 2020. These online meetings between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) undergraduate students in secondary school teacher training

programs are part of the VE project *Extended Telecollaboration Practice* (Waldman, Harel & Schwab, 2019) between Israel and Germany which was initiated in 2015 and is still on-going.

The intercultural groups predominantly consist of two to three students of each country, adding up to four to six students per group, who meet on a weekly basis to discuss their projects. The aim of the student projects is to design secondary school teaching units that foster Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC). The full corpus consists of 229 recorded synchronous student group meetings of approximately 157 hours between 2017 and 2022 (six cohorts).

This paper reports on analysis of the recordings of the fourth cohort (2019/2020) online group meetings of German and Israeli students, consisting of 49h 14min 39sec of student video conferencing data in total. In these meetings, German-Israeli mixed groups of four to six students met each other online for the first time, after having worked asynchronously for two weeks beforehand. Only the first thirty minutes of online conferencing was analysed (cf. Rampazzo & Aranha, 2019) in order to compare acquaintance and common ground interactional strategies of ten randomly distributed Israeli and German students (cf. Rampazzo & Aranha, 2019).

Participants
Participants of this paper are 22 Israeli and 30 German undergraduate teacher students, most of whom are in their third to sixth semester. These students were allocated into ten groups and met seven times (two groups met six times) on a weekly basis between 19/11/2019 and 14/01/2020. The groups consist mainly of 4-7 students, generally with one or two more students on the German side since the class size ratio of the respective courses in this cohort was unequal. Two groups on the Israeli side feature one German guest student respectively.

The seminar referenced in this study (cohort 19/20) ended almost concurrently with the first cases of Covid-19 in Europe in January and February 2020. Since then, the VE between Israel and Germany took place two more times with students mostly participating from home. Participants of these later VE exchanges were better accommodated and experienced with video conferencing.

Data transcription and analysis
The data was transcribed according to the specifications of the

GAT2 transcription system (Selting et al., 2011) utilising the transcription software, Transana. "In CA, naturally occurring talk should be recorded first, and then transcribed; transcriptions allow the analyst to see the complex nature of talk captured in an easily usable, static format" (Sert, 2015, p. 24). The choices researchers make during transcription, however, enact the hypotheses they hold and limit the interpretations they can make of their results. Contrary to the assumption that transcripts are the data of CA, they are often "rather a convenient way to capture and present the phenomena of interest in written form." (Ten Have, 2007, p. 95). In order to counteract these biases and reliability problems, standardized transcription systems have been established in the field of CA research.

Even though most CA scrutiny utilises the commonly known transcription system adapted from Gail Jefferson (Hutchby & Woooffitt, 2008), this study will rely on GAT 2 transcription. GAT 2 (Gesprächsanalytisches Transkriptionssystem 2) is the renewed version of GAT, a transcription system designed and implemented in 1998 by a group of German interactional linguists and conversation analysts (Selting et al., 2011). GAT 2 adopts the majority of Jefferson transcription conventions and principles, yet distinguishes from it by providing certain functions that are more suitable to analysing spoken language and multi-modality in video-captured talk-in-interaction. The transcription was carried out by Transana®, a program highly suitable for creating transcripts for video and other media files (Schwab, 2006).

The analysis for this paper focuses on phenomena that particularly stood out or occurred as patterns in many groups during the initial meetings. Further L2 IC features such as sequence organisation, repair or preference organisation in online communication are not included in this paper, but will be considered in more detail in future publications.

Results

The following transcribed video sections show the students during their first synchronous online group meetings via Zoom. Their assignment is to find a name for their group as well as a group philosophy that includes their own rules of conduct. The video data reveals whether close students stick to their assignments or spend time with off-task discussions, which the lecturers neither encourage nor forbid.

The excerpts can be analysed for not just one but several features of L2 IC, e.g., a code-switching sequence is often followed

by a repair sequence. However, the analysis of each excerpt will focus on one particular interactional practice. The analysis of excerpts will also take into account the concomitant multimodal resources which are italicised in the transcripts.

Video data of the first online meetings show that most groups employ similar strategies or stereotypical moves to create common ground, such as talking about the weather and cultural contact points ('I just ate shakshuka yesterday.'). Other moves were more specific to the online space, such as giving their counterpart a small 'tour' of the campus or sharing the view out the window. Even though these moves were not assigned to the participants, they were evident in every group during their initial meeting. Additionally, in reviewing the video data, specific features of L2 IC stood out as distinct features of synchronous L2 online group interaction: (1) negotiation processes of epistemic resources, (2) turn-taking and (3) multilingual resources.

Excerpt 1 (00:17:25 – 00:18:21)

Fig. 1   Fig. 2

01	G3	[v]	ok[ay'then (.) we]Also have com´up wi:th-
02	I2	[v]	[yeah perfect-]
03	G3	[v]	what was the OTHER thing ⁻e:::hm (1.55)
			`e::hm. (1.70)
04	G3	[nv]	*gazes to G2* *hits desk with her pen 3 times*
05	G2	[nv]	*shrugs*
06	G3	[v]	e:hm[m].
07	G3	[nv]	*gazes to ceiling*

08   G2   [v]   [maybe] what (.) what-

09   G3   [v]   =CODE of beHAviour or what was'it (.) was'it e::r;
10   G2   [nv]   *grins*

11   G3 [v]   i'should've (–) [made'a (--) (   ) (---)]-

Fig. 3

12   G2   [v]   e::hm DO you have any Tasks given by your
                                          pro´Fessor
13   abou:T the `meeting [o:r any]thing?
14   I1   [v]   [OH] (---)   ´toDAY:?

Fig. 4

```
15  I2   [v]     <<slowly> we ´need to talk about'our expectations
16                from the course and what we expect from each
                                              other: and'e:::h
17                how we are going to work thi:ngs and ta::sk an' (--)
                                              rules,>
18  I1   [v]     work's enough-
```

The word search sequence in lines 03-14 of Excerpt 1 is similar to typical search sequences in L2 classroom settings (Greer, 2013) in that the gaze is aimed toward the ceiling and the interactant struggles to find the correct term. It is noteworthy though that, as soon as the sequence is initiated (l. 03), G3 moves her gaze away from the camera and towards her German group members, particularly G2, seeking assistance (Fig. 1). Her group members are verbally non-responsive and, by shrugging, display multi-modal epistemics (Melander, 2012) in an embodied claim of insufficient knowledge (Sert, 2015). G3 then hesitates to address the Israeli group members and initiates a repair sequence (l. 11) which is overlapped by G2 addressing the Israelis by gazing into the camera and taking a turn (Fig. 3).

Excerpt 1 also shows the challenge of involving the local group in ESSs and, concurrently, the advantages of directly involving the virtual counterpart when problems or questions arise. The complete search sequence on the German side (ll. 01 – 11) takes 37 seconds until the question is then – verbally and by gaze – addressed to the Israeli participants (l. 12) who promptly provide an answer (l. 15).

Similar task-related ESSs were visible in six of the ten initial video student meetings. Some of which were coupled with code-switching, which resulted in temporary exclusion of the virtual counterparts. The reasons for this might be multifaceted, such as face-keeping, since the group formation process is still taking place and the group members are just getting to know each other.

Considering other epistemic practices, a large number of conversational strands revolved around cultural differences and similarities, trying to establish shared internal contexts and a sphere of inter-subjectivity (Kramsch, 1986). In the context of video conferencing, epistemic claims were often reinforced with multi-modal embodied actions (Hoffmann & Schwab, 2015; Heath & Luff, 2012). For example, the participating EFL students often applied distinctive and exaggerated body language to better convey their words via webcam. Some common ground practices were online-specific, such as showing the surroundings with the

camera or exhibiting personal artifacts, e.g., shoes etc., that were not initially captured by webcam. Some other prototypical moves, like talking about the weather, were evident in every student group.

2. Turn-taking

Excerpt 2 shows four German students (G1to G4) working together with two Israeli students (I1 and I2). They have just met online for the first time after having worked on specific tasks asynchronously two weeks before. The group has previously been talking for 00:01:15 and had noticed that, due to the mandatory military conscription in Israel, the Israeli students are about three years older than the Germans. In Excerpt 2, group members continue this conversation by talking about what they did after graduating from high school.

Figures 5 and 6 shows the challenging group setting with four participants on the German side and six students in total. As a result, it is difficult for the local group members to keep track of each other and to register multi-modal cues for turn-taking. What becomes clear even at this early stage of talk-in-interaction, is that G1 is conceded a leading role on the German side. This matter is enforced by the fact that the German students sit in a row at a straight table with G2 and G3 slightly in the background (Fig. 5 & 6).

Excerpt 2 shows how G1 struggles with the intricacies of online turn-taking and illustrates the resources she utilises to handle the situation.

Excerpt 2: 00:02:56 – 00:03:24

Fig. 5

```
01  G1        [v]      <<acc>¯it'_s interesting so actually in>
                                        ´GERmany is li:ke; (–)
```

| 02 | G1 | [nv] | | *gaze in orientation* |
| | | | | *to G2, G3, G4 (Fig. 5)* |

03	G1	[v]	<<pp, acc>"m speaking all the time> do
			<<laughing> YOU
			want to
04	G1	[nv]	*points her pencil to*
			G2, G3, G4
05	G3&4	[nv]	*look to G1, smile*
			and straighten up

06	G1	[v]	SPEAK> [as well?]="m sOrry °hh
07	G3	[v]	[no'lright]
08	G1	[nv]	*runs hand through hair, smiles*
09	G3	[nv]	*back to former sitting posture*

Fig. 6

| 10 | G1 | [v] | so_in GERmany i"_s li:ke (.) you ´finISH schoo:l- |
| 11 | G1 | [nv] | *gazes into camera to address Israelis* |

| 12 | G1 | [v] | a:nd then (--)probably what !I:! did is I |
| 13 | G1 | [nv] | *mutual gaze to G3, G4* |

| 14 | G1 | [v] | went to Australia (--) of`course i did heHEhe; |
| 15 | G1 | [nv] | *gazes to ceiling, gazes to camera, laughs* *(Fig. 6)* |

At the beginning of the transcribed excerpt, G1 takes turn by contrasting the Israelis' sequence on the military service with her experiences after finishing school (l. 01). G1 becomes aware that she is taking the lead in the interaction with the Israeli group members (l. 03). At an early stage of conversation, she interrupts her utterance in the middle of a sentence (l. 03) and gazes to G2,

3 and 4 while initiating repair (l. 06). G1 then offers the stage to her group members by pointing her pencil towards them (Fig. 5) which is declined in the next turn procedure (l. 05) (cf. Hutchby & Wooffit, 2008). As a consequence, G1 looks back into the camera and addresses the Israelis again with an anecdote about stereotypical endeavors of German high school graduates.

From the end of Excerpt 2, G1 keeps looking back and forth between the camera and her fellow students on site. Constantly keeping an eye both on the screen and on the local group's needs can hamper the flow of conversation as shown in this example. In the larger data set, turn allocation is handled differently from group to group. One group (Group 6), consisting of four German and three Israeli students, clearly stands out since one participant takes over the conversation and conducts a quasi-interview, interrupting the counterquestions of the others at times. In another group, turn taking is hesitant so that interaction increasingly fizzles out, as evidenced by a high number of extended pauses.

3. Multilingual resources

In the seven years of the ETP project, one phenomenon of online social interaction was continuously prevalent, which is the multilingual resource of code-switching. When analyzing code-switching as a multilingual resource, it is important to differentiate between the necessary or involuntary code-switching (e.g. Excerpt 3) and voluntary or unforced code-switching (cf. Lipski, 2016; Wei & Martin, 2009).

When problems occur, for example of a technological or task-related nature, participants tend to switch codes. Situations in which participants switch from the *lingua franca* to their L1s include handling connectivity issues, dealing with procedural problems, expressing social identity or assisting participants by translating into the L1. As can be seen in l. 01 and ll. 05-07 of Excerpt 3, participants in vEs are sometimes required to communicate in their L1, namely when it comes to communication with individuals in their country of residence and in on-site surroundings.

Excerpt 2: 00:02:56 – 00:03:24

Fig. 7

Fig. 8

Fig. 9

Fig. 10

01	I1	[v]:	וליאכ, ינא תבשוח ללגבש ןיאש ונל הברה ןמז, זא אל םשנה
	<<in Hebrew>		*like i think that we do''t have a lot of time so never mind>* (.)
	I1	[nv]:	*gazes to technical assistant (1.8; Fig.7) then back to camera*
02	I1	[v]:	<<acc> nEver mind (.) ok [so>
	I1	[nv]:	*raises both hands and lowers them in reassuring gesture (Fig.8)*
03	G3	[v]:	[<<laughing along with group(2.7)> sounds> brilliant (Fig.9)
04	I1	[v]:	sorry for THAT; (.)
05	I1	[v]:	הדות הדות רבה sorry
	<<in Hebrew>		*sorry thank you thank you very much>*
	I1	[nv]:	*leans to the left (technical assistant)*
06	I1	[v]:	את הז, הז ינא אל הצריכה
	<<in Hebrew>		*this (.) this I don't need>*
	I1	[nv]:	*stands up and adjusts camera (6.9)*
07	I1	[v]:	הדות רבה
	<<in Hebrew>		*thanks a lot.>*

08	I2	[v]:	הדות means dAnke (1.7) e:rr thank you];
	I2	[nv]:	*raises eyebrows and chuckles* *(Fig.10)*
09	I1	[v]:	ok (---) (chair screeches) mazingg. (--)
	I1	[nv]:	*sits down again* *in a dry tone (ironic?)*
10	I1	[v]:	so our expecTAtions (.) e:h (.) a:re;
	I1	[nv]:	*right hand on chest* *points hand towards camera*
11	G3	[v]:	[...] ye´ah?

Excerpt 3 exemplifies how code-switching sequences (l. 01; ll. 05-07) are often followed by repair sequences (l. 04). Prior to this excerpt, there had been no code-switching to Hebrew. First, I1 communicates verbally (l. 01; ll. 05-07) and multimodally (Fig. 7) with the IT support employee in Hebrew. At the same time, she makes adjustments to the technical setting or camera positioning. Her code-switching sequence (l. 01) is followed by two repair sequences, addressed in English (l. 04) to the German group members and Hebrew (l. 05) to the technical assistant. I1's swift code-switching from Hebrew to English is spontaneously responded to by G1, G2 and G3's laughter (Fig. 9) and G3's ironic remark 'sounds brilliant' (l. 03) in the next-turn procedure.

Excerpt 3 also shows use of multilingual resources by I2, a German guest student in Tel Aviv who can switch and translate between German, English and basic Hebrew. During language-based confusion (ll. 07 -08), she translates a Hebrew utterance produced by I1 into German instead of English and repairs this mistake (l. 08). This observation can be categorized as code-mixing (Tay, 1989) and exemplifies participants' abilities to draw on their multilingual resources in L2 IC.

Limitations

One limitation of the present study became apparent to the author after the data were collected: even though multimodal resources were considered in the transcription of the current study, it should be noted that the Zoom recordings on hand only display the side of the current speaker. Thus, a complete multimodal analysis could not be performed. The project-affiliated researchers noticed this shortcoming after cohort 19/20 and therefore decided to maintain an audio/video recording mode which consistently records all participants.

Discussion and conclusion

The aim of this explorative study was to point out interactional resources of online L2 IC in a VE and their impact on interaction

and common ground facilitation in online video meetings. Using a CA based multimodal analysis, the L2 IC features identified include multilingual and epistemic resources as well as the organisation of turn-taking. The data demonstrates that gestures, mimicry and gaze are primary drivers of conversation not only in face-to-face (Goodwin, 1981; Schegloff 1984) but also in online video talk-in interaction.

Similar to existing research, a common observation in the analysis of telecollaborative group conversations in the data of this study were epistemic search sequences (Jakonen & Morton, 2015) and word search sequences (Leyland, 2014). In face-to-face interaction,when one interactant displays a lack of knowledge, a sequence is commonly initiated that proceeds until the missing knowledge is given by another interactant, thereby swiftly achieving a state of "epistemic equilibrium" (Leyland, 2014, p. 136) on a specific matter. The data of this study suggests, however, that interlocutors in L2 initial online team meetings hesitate to request information and thereby share their lack of knowledge with their virtual team members. Instead, they prefer to address their local peers first. This happens non-verbally by gaze orientation towards their fellow students in the same room and is, in some cases, accompanied with code-switching to L1. This delay causes the virtual communication to briefly break down and prevents a seamless process of knowledge exchange, that is the 'epistemic engine' (Heritage, 2012).

In terms of turn-taking, the participants of the project had to consider not only their local conversation group but also additional team members on their screens. Further online-specific factors, such as a limited field of view and connectivity problems, hampered the finely-tuned coordination that is necessary for taking turns and thus constituted a considerable challenge for the participants. At the same time, there were a number of turn-taking behaviours in the data that seem to occur in both virtual and face-to-face settings. Even though the participants of the project were communicating online rather than being in each other's physical presence, they frequently yielded multimodal resources such as pointing for turn allocation (Auer, 2021; Mondada, 2007), by utilising gaze to address their group members online (Markaki & Mondada, 2012) or by displaying embodied completions (Mondada, 2015).

The analysis of student online talk-in-interaction in the ETP project found that code-switching took place frequently in the initial meetings. Similar to Lee (2016) and Lipski (2016; 2014) the

data indicated that such utilisations of multilingual resources are highly context-dependent and require a distinction between voluntary and involuntary code-switching. A cause for involuntary code-switching that is particular to VE was that both sides of participants remained in the surroundings of their respective institutions and switched to their L1 in order to interact with individuals who were onsite and did not speak in the target language (e.g., technical assistants). In cases of troubles talk (Steensig, 2019) or other interferences, the analysis shows that some students used voluntary code-switches to discuss issues with their fellow students first before addressing their remote teammates. This practice was intensified by changes in gaze direction towards their local peers.

As discussed above, the concept of 'multilingual resources' is often used interchangeably with 'code-switching' in current literature (Sert, 2015). Yet, in the data at hand, students' occasionally switch to their L1 without necessity or, seemingly, out of lack of L2 linguistic competence. The analyses of these practices show that a stronger distinction between the two terms in CA research might help to clarify and prevent misunderstandings. Involuntary code-switching sequences (cf. Lipski, 2016) often entail a certain detachment of the group on-site from the remote virtual group members. As is outlined in the existing literature, participants in this study frequently yielded multilingual resources to perform multicultural identities and to display openness (Lee, 2014). Additionally, students from both participating countries picked up words or phrases from each others' L1 and utilised these resources in further conversation.

Future studies, both in the overall field of telecollaboration and in the ETP project, should address further use and development of interactional resources in this virtual setting, e.g., by implementing comparative research designs that include face-to-face communication, as future VE curriculum development can benefit from these insights. Some of the practices yielded by the participants, such as showing their surroundings via webcam or picking up words and phrases of the others' L1, had positive interactional effects and created opportunities for further topics of conversation. Thus, these practices could be explicitly suggested as interactional strategies when preparing students for their first video team meetings. On the other hand, processes such as code-switching to their own L1, e.g., when problems occurred, have proved to be detrimental to the further course of participants' conversations. Teachers should point out this problematic nature

of own L1 use and demand both the use of the target language and collaborative problem solving by all group members.

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Book reviews

TEACHING AND TESTING SECOND LANGUAGE PRAGMATICS AND INTERACTION: A PRACTICAL GUIDE.
Roever, C.
Routledge, 2022.

Ann Tai Choe
University of Hawai'i at Mānoa

Pragmatics — how social context affects the way we do things with language — plays a critical role in managing social interaction and interpersonal relationships. Despite decades of research on second language (L2) pragmatics, practical resources for teaching and assessing L2 pragmatics have continued to remain relatively scarce. *Teaching and testing second language pragmatics and interaction: A practical guide* by Roever (2022) is the first comprehensive hands-on guide written for language practitioners who wish to interweave aspects of pragmatics into their classroom teaching, curriculum design, and assessment instruments. The purpose of this book is to familiarise target readers with ways in which pragmatics can be systematically taught, as well as tested, in either teacher-designed or large-scale exams. The content is accessible to audiences with only minimal experience in L2 teaching; readers need not have extensive knowledge of L2 learning and teaching theories to find the book intriguing or useful.

The book is organised into seven chapters. Chapter one provides a general introduction of the book content and an outline, along with a brief list of terminology to be covered throughout the book. Chapter two offers an in-depth discussion of the four pillars that form the bedrock of pragmatics: (a) speech acts (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1976) and politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987); (b) implicature (Grice, 1975); (c) routine formulae (Coulmas, 1981); and (d) interactional competence (IC) (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2011). After situating each pillar within its theoretical origin, Roever (2022) describes learners' developmental characteristics within each area based on extant literature on L2 pragmatics. The chapter ends with a comparison of pragmatics

and IC. As Roever (2022) explains, most researchers tend to categorise speech acts, implicature, and routine formulae under the umbrella of pragmatics (stemming from anthropological work on politeness) while treating IC (rooted in sociology) as its own category. In reality, speech acts are used in extended discourse — speakers attend to not only how an action (e.g., request) can be pragmalinguistically formulated, but also how it is sequentially organised in interaction within a given social context. Roever (2022) thus views pragmatics and IC as complementary to each other in teaching and testing. For example, a teacher can introduce phases of an extended request sequence (from greeting to closing) to familiarise learners with its structure using diagrams (see chapter 5). In testing, role plays or elicited conversations are effective for evaluating test takers' abilities for use (see chapter 6).

Chapter three introduces the sheer range of research-informed instruments for teaching and assessing L2 pragmatics at different language proficiency levels. These instruments are broadly categorised into receptive tools (metapragmatic judgment tasks and multiple-choice tasks) and productive tools (discourse completion tasks, role plays, and elicited conversations), each of which is elaborated in detail with practical examples taken directly from L2 pragmatics research.

Chapters four through to seven constitute the core sections of the book, which present Roever's (2022) novel perspective on teaching and assessing pragmatics. Chapter four covers specific aspects of pragmatics to be taught at different proficiency levels and how a pragmatic curriculum can be structured according to learner's developmental readiness. To achieve this, Roever (2022) uses the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001, 2020) as a general guide and proposes teaching goals and activities that align with learner's language development at each CEFR level, ranging from A1 (basic user) to C2 (proficient user). Chapter five shifts the focus away from curriculum design to teaching L2 pragmatics. Discussions centre on common approaches to pragmatics instruction (explicit vs. implicit, deductive vs. inductive, and provision of feedback), useful resources for teaching pragmatics (e.g. textbooks, corpora, movies, and TV shows), and the stages of a pragmatic lesson (orientation/reactivation, inductive presentation, metapragmatic explanation, awareness raising/deductive presentation, receptive practice, and productive practice) along with recommended activities for each stage. The

chapter ends by providing a demonstration of a pragmatic lesson that targets a specific feature, namely requests. Details are provided concerning how to facilitate learners of different proficiency levels to notice, produce, respond to, and become aware of requests across a variety of scenarios.

Chapter six focuses solely on testing pragmatics both in the classroom and in large-scale assessments. Roever (2022) first walks readers through the generations of L2 pragmatics assessment over the past few decades, followed by discussions of existing pragmatics assessments, critical issues associated with pragmatics tests such as what defines pragmatic norms, differences between classroom-based and standardised testing, and validation of large-scale exams. Roever (2022) demonstrates how to validate large-scale pragmatics assessment step-by-step within Kane's (2006) argument-based validity framework (see also Chapelle, 2021). He then focuses on using multi-faceted Rasch measurement (MFRM) as a robust tool for examining test taker's ability, item difficulty, and rater severity to understand how well a test has worked. The chapter ends with Roever (2022) directing the reader's attention to issues of fairness and bias in assessing pragmatics, which has important implications for test validity. Chapter seven offers an outlook on the future of teaching and assessing L2 pragmatics, including adopting a spiral curriculum for teaching pragmatics in general, using task-based language teaching (TBLT) for specific-purposes pragmatics, and utilising technology to enhance reliability and practicality in large-scale pragmatics assessments.

By adopting an innovative perspective on teaching and assessing L2 pragmatics, Roever (2022) is a perfect introductory guide for language teachers, curriculum developers, and testers who value pragmatics as an essential component of language abilities. Throughout the book, Roever (2022) keeps his audience groups in mind by succinctly presenting relevant theories and concepts, supported by easily understandable examples to elucidate each point. The most significant contribution of this book to the field of L2 pragmatics is its establishment of a clear bridge between theories and practice. The book contains a plethora of research-informed, ready-to-use materials that can be easily adapted to fit learners' needs across different teaching and testing contexts. A caveat, which the author also recognizes, is that most of the examples in the book are in English, an area on which L2 pragmatics research has historically focused. However, the gap should motivate readers to experiment with curriculum structures,

activities, and assessment instruments involving other less commonly taught or researched languages. Similarly, Roever's (2022) focus on requests as a prominent feature throughout the book should equally inspire readers to create activities or testing instruments that target other common pragmatic features relevant to learners, such as apologies, compliments, or complaints. Finally, most of the activities presented in the book involve face-to-face communication. As technology has become increasingly integrated into most aspects of our lives, it would have been informative for Roever (2022) to comment on ideas for designing pragmatics lessons and test instruments with scenarios that learners and test takers are likely to encounter in the virtual world, such as writing a customer review, replying to a social media post, or collaborating with colleagues remotely.

To summarise, the rich and accessible content delivered by Roever (2022) has substantial practical implications for language practitioners in the classroom and in large-scale assessments, thereby bridging the gap between L2 pragmatics theories, research, and practice. Language teachers will find Roever's (2022) research-informed activities and step-by-step activity procedures useful. Curriculum developers can benefit from Roever's (2022) careful selection of suitable pragmatic features to be introduced at different proficiency levels. Language testers will find Roever's (2022) discussion of assessing L2 pragmatics within the argument-based approach to validity insightful, in addition to gaining a general understanding of how to tackle critical issues such as fairness and bias in the testing of pragmatics. The book is therefore highly recommended for language practitioners who wish to integrate aspects of pragmatics into the design of their lessons, curricula, or standardised exams.

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Book reviews

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS AND SECOND LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY: A GUIDE FOR ESL/EFL TEACHERS
Wong, J., & Waring, H.Z
Routledge, 2021

Michael Davey
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Coming 11 years after its initial publication date of 2010, this newly updated second edition of *Conversation analysis and second language pedagogy: A guide for ESL/EFL teachers* is an immensely practical and easy-to-use resource for language teachers looking to incorporate the findings of conversation analysis (CA) into their pedagogical practice. The authors begin with an introduction to CA, explaining how it starts with the careful analysis of recordings of real-world interactions and aims to produce descriptions of how conversation works from the perspective of everyday members of society. They argue that in order to be able to teach ESL students how to have conversations in English, it is vital that we first study real-world conversation to reveal the "systematic verbal and nonverbal methods participants use to engage in social interaction." (Wong & Waring, 2021, p.8). These methods, or as the authors refer to them, *interactional practices*, are the building blocks of *interactional competence* (IC), and include abilities like being able to take a turn at an appropriate time in a conversation, being able to disagree with someone while still sounding polite and respectful, or being able to tell a story that fits comfortably into the surrounding conversation.

The book is intended to be used as a textbook in TESOL and applied linguistics courses, or simply as a resource for ESL teachers or curriculum designers looking to develop their skills. It sets out to firstly describe and explain a large number of the interactional practices that students need to be familiar with in order to be able to have successful conversations in English, and secondly, to provide usable, classroom-ready resources for teaching these same practices. In the first chapter, the authors build an argument for the value of

using CA research to inform L2 (second language) teaching practice. They contend that, in order to make IC teachable, we need, in the first place, a detailed specification of the various interactional practices from which it is built. To this end, they propose a heuristic theoretical model of the hierarchical relationships between these practices. At the base of the model lie *turn-taking practices*. These are the kinds of practices that help us, for example, anticipate exactly when we might appropriately come in to take the floor in a conversation, or manipulate the timing of a turn to show that we agree with the previous speaker's opinion. The next level up consists of *sequencing practices*. These are what allow us to combine individual turns into conversational chunks that perform specific social actions like complaining, giving advice, or asking for help. At the third level are *overall structuring practices*, and this refers to the methods used to organise the framework of a whole conversation. As an example, the authors describe the surprisingly complex and highly regular practices that we use to open up a conversation on the phone or bring a face-to-face interaction to a close. At the fourth and final level lie *repair practices*. These are interwoven throughout the three other levels of the model and refer to the ways we get a conversation back on track when some problem with mutual understanding emerges.

The authors use these four major levels within their proposed model to organise the structure of the book. They start with two chapters covering turn-taking practices, followed by four chapters on sequencing practices, then a further three chapters on overall structuring practices, and finally, two chapters that deal with the organisation of repair. Each of these 11 chapters is composed of two complementary sections. In the first section of each chapter, the authors synthesize decades of CA findings on a certain aspect of interactional organisation (for example, how storytelling works, or how openings work in telephone calls), to present a well-structured and clear description of the underlying structure of that particular element of conversation. In the second part of each chapter, the authors provide a selection of practical classroom activities that can be used to teach the interactional practices described in the preceding section.

As mentioned above, the book is a second edition of a work originally published in 2010. Potential readers may well then ask what is new in this updated version. Some minor changes have been made to the structure of the book, which mainly come in the form of

previously longer chapters being split up into more easily "digestible" (Wong & Waring, 2021, p.xii) chunks. Major updates have been made to the earlier parts of the chapters where the authors describe the various interactional practices that form the basis of IC. In some instances, these descriptions have been improved and expanded upon by reference to new studies carried out in the intervening 11 years since the original publication date. In other instances, completely new descriptions have been added based on recent research. For example, a new section deals with face-to-face conversational openings, which is informed almost entirely by recent research on this topic.

By far the standout strength of the book is its immediately apparent practical usefulness for teachers who are interested in incorporating CA findings into their teaching. The authors synthesize CA findings from hundreds of studies in a way that is logical, clear and easily accessible to ESL professionals who are interested in bringing an interactional perspective into their teaching, but are not formally trained in CA. A real highlight is the discussion of those areas of everyday talk where ESL textbooks give advice that is incomplete, lacking in nuance or, in some cases, flat out misleading. Another strength of the book is the inclusion of the various tasks sprinkled through each of the chapters. Intended as an ongoing understanding check of the content just presented, the tasks are well-designed. Unfortunately, however, no answer keys are provided for these tasks. This is a regrettable oversight and the inclusion of answers would be particularly helpful for teachers looking to use the book as a course textbook.

Arguably another weakness of the book, and one that is likely to be of particular interest to readers of this special issue, is the fact that it does not discuss any interactional practices that are specific to online interactions. Therefore, teachers looking for guidance on how to help their ESL students with communication in settings like Zoom meetings or workplace WhatsApp groups will have to do their best to extrapolate existing findings on face-to-face and telephone communication to these digital contexts. Given that so much of our communication happens online in modern life, a discussion of the specifics of how interaction works in these settings would be a worthy addition to any future third edition.

In short, this book sets out to be a practical guide for ESL/EFL teachers who are interested in using CA to inform their teaching

practices and it succeeds emphatically in achieving this goal. The authors make an important and compelling contribution to encouraging a shift towards an empirically based interactionist perspective in L2 pedagogy.

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Book reviews

ASSESSING SPEAKING IN CONTEXT: EXPANDING THE CONSTRUCT AND ITS APPLICATIONS
Salaberry, M. R., & Burch, A. R. (Eds.)
Multilingual Matters, 2021

Leila Zohali
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By reviewing the key features of the theoretical underpinnings of existing assessment frameworks, this edited volume applies a critical perspective to research on speaking assessment by examining how existing approaches could be reconceived for evaluating additional languages. The book aims to identify potential discrepancies between the type of test instrument and the characteristics of current models of language assessment.

The book's thirteen chapters focus on the challenges of integrating interactional competence (IC) with speaking tasks and how recent research on the dynamic nature of speaking can be integrated into assessment models and procedures. The book is based on the Rice University Centre for Languages and Intercultural Communication's May 2018 conference of the same name. It combines 22 contributors' research that is thematically organized into four parts: *conceptual and theoretical issues; collecting and rating speaking data; designing speaking assessment tests; and using new technology to assess speaking.*

Part one comprises three chapters, commencing with the editors' aim of reconceptualizing speaking in the redesign of testing instruments. In the next chapter, Roever and Dai discuss the difficulties in assessing IC, the importance of including it in major language tests, and how the IC construct can be expanded to include the social role as an underestimated sub-trait of IC. In the following chapter, Plough draws attention to the significant role of non-verbal behaviour in interactions and the necessity of embedding behaviours such as gestures or facial expressions in language tests.

The three chapters of part two present empirical research on speaking assessment by drawing on data from both test takers and

raters. This section opens with a chapter by Burch and Kasper that responds to the challenge of designing test tasks that encompass relevant dimensions of 'target language use tasks' (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). They discuss transitions between interview and role-play activities in oral proficiency interviews as a speaking assessment task. In the next chapter, Youn and Chen investigate trained raters' processes and strategies when awarding a score for role-play-based paired speaking performances. It is followed by Sandlund and Sundqvist's use of using membership categorization analysis to examine rater training as a factor in reducing rater variability in L2 English oral assessments.

The third part examines the design of speaking assessment tools for evaluating aspects of IC, such as repair strategies and turn-taking. Comprising of four chapters, it discusses and evaluates issues associated with IC assessment in different settings, including classrooms and situations in which there are limited resources. It begins with a chapter by Kley, Kunitz, and Yeh discussing the potential discrepancy between preconceived IC markers and actual usage by test takers in a classroom-based assessment of repair practice. Van Compernolle argues in the next chapter for using dynamic strategic interaction scenarios as an innovative method to assess IC. The next chapter by Dunkle provides a comparison of social deduction games. Next, Barth-Weingarten and Freitag-Hild focus on role-plays, which are used to exemplify an approach to assessing IC under the conditions of scarce assessment resources.

The last part of the book contains three chapters that focus on applying new technologies to assess speaking. In Chapter 11, Song and Hsu propose a classroom-based virtual reality oral assessment that has the potential to be used for placement or formative tests. Next, Iwashita, May and Moore examine how well computer-mediated speaking tests can account for IC. In the concluding chapter, the editors analyse the practicalities of employing both established and new testing instruments to accurately evaluate the new sociocultural construct of speaking ability in a post-COVID era.

This edited volume makes a significant contribution to the field of applied linguistics by exploring speaking constructs and integrating innovative technologies into the development of speaking ability assessment. As discussed in the volume, recent changes to the speaking construct, including a shift from a narrow definition of speaking to an expanded one, have substantial implications for how

the speaking construct is conceived and assessed and will play a role in its development in the years to come. One such implication will be more valid and reliable major language tests that incorporate new definitions of the speaking construct and IC assessment.

Furthermore, the edited volume is clearly a valuable resource for graduate students and early-career researchers. It provides thorough empirical research on numerous facets of spoken language proficiency, such as role-plays, turn-taking, and repair strategies. This detailed inclusion of empirical research will assist graduate students and early-career researchers to find critical approaches for their own research. Additionally, chapters on various approaches to designing speaking tests and the resources provided by modern technology open up new possibilities for individuals interested in developing innovative testing initiatives.

Notwithstanding the above-mentioned distinguishing features of the book, a few drawbacks are evident. The book's premise is that existing large-scale approaches to L2 oral assessment are inadequate, but little effort is made to give large-scale tests adequate consideration. Instead, chapters in part two and three describe relatively small-scale testing initiatives but, at the same time, aim to address the perceived deficiencies of large-scale oral testing operations. It would have been more engaging and informative if a broader range of real-world challenges in large-scale testing had been explored throughout the book.

In conclusion, this edited collection makes an essential contribution to the field as it broadens our understanding of construct definitions for speaking abilities by highlighting new challenges in speaking assessment and compiling an abundance of empirical research to address these challenges.

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To ensure access to English language instruction for speakers of other languages ACTA is committed to ensuring that all students with ESL needs have access to programs that acknowledge and meet their diverse specific needs. These students may be Aborigines or Torres Strait Islanders, permanent residents with LOTE backgrounds, refugees, fee-paying overseas students, or students in Australian-sponsored programs overseas.

To encourage the implementation and delivery of quality professional development programs ACTA is committed to the development and maintenance of the highest quality programs for students at pre-primary, primary, secondary, and tertiary levels that are appropriately funded, resourced and staffed, and articulated in clear pathways.

To promote the study, research, and development of TESOL at state, national, and international levels ACTA is committed to ensuring that TESOL and TESOL related issues are debated and accorded due recognition in state and national policy initiatives as well as in the international community.

Australian Council of TESOL Associations ✦ www.tesol.org.au