



**A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF STORY-BASED LESSONS WITH
YOUNG LEARNERS IN AN EFL CONTEXT FROM THE
PERSPECTIVE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTIONAL
COMPETENCE**

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İngilizce Adı: A Discourse Analysis of Story-Based Lessons with Young Learners in an EFL Context from the Perspective of Classroom Interactional Competence

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Dedicated to the memory of my grandmothers

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(MA Thesis)

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ABSTRACT

Drawing on the methodological framework of conversation analysis, the study investigates the story-based classroom discourse with young learners of English in an EFL context. To present the interactional organization of the classroom interaction, 16 hours of story-based lessons at two kindergarten classrooms were audio-recorded and transcribed in detail. The institution where the data was collected from was a private IB school following the Primary Years Programme (PYP) curriculum. The participants were 24 young learners at the age of 6 and two teachers. During the data collection process, students and teachers read three different stories in the classrooms, which were selected previously by the teachers based on the pedagogical goals in the curriculum. The data was analyzed from a discourse-analytic perspective to explore the sequence organization, turn-taking and repair practices of three main parts of the lessons, which were pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading. The results of the study demonstrated that more varied interactional patterns and student initiations were found in the pre-reading parts of the lessons including guessing and sharing experiences activities. The interactional resources and participation framework in the other

parts showed differences depending on the contextual factors such as the teacher talk, the contents of the stories and the classroom activities. Also, the theme-based approach of the curriculum had a significant impact on the classroom discourse and interaction. The findings were discussed in terms of the possible effects of story-based lessons on students' classroom interactional competences. The study has implications for the micro-analytic understanding of EFL classrooms, story-based lessons with young learners and classroom interactional competence.



Key Words: Classroom Discourse, Story-based Lessons, Young Learners, Conversation Analysis, Classroom Interactional Competence

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ÇOCUKLAR İLE YÜRÜTÜLEN HİKAYE TEMELLİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİMİ DERSLERİNDE SINIF İÇİ SÖYLEMİN ETKİLEŞİM BECERİLERİ AÇISINDAN ÇÖZÜMLEMESİ

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ÖZ

Konuşma çözümlemesi metodundan faydalanan bu çalışma, çocuklar ile yürütülen hikaye temelli derslerdeki sınıf içi söylemini inceleyen nitel bir çalışmadır. Sınıf içi söylemin etkileşimsel yapısını göstermek amacıyla, hikaye temelli ders işlenen iki tane anasınıfının 16 ders saati sesli olarak kayıt altına alındı ve konuşma çözümlemesi kurallarına uygun olarak yazıya aktarıldı. Verinin toplandığı kurum, eğitimin ilk yılları için hazırlanmış olan PYP müfredatını uygulayan özel bir IB okuludur. Çalışmanın katılımcılarını 6 yaş grubundan 24 öğrenci ve iki öğretmen oluşturmaktadır. Veri toplama sürecinde; sözü edilen katılımcılar, müfredata uygun bir şekilde önceden seçilen 3 farklı hikaye işlemişlerdir. Toplanan veri söylem analizi perspektifiyle analiz edilmiştir. Bu analizde, hikaye temelli derslerin üç farklı aşamasının ardışıklık düzeni, söz alma eylemlerini ve öğretmenler tarafından öğrencilerin hatalarının nasıl düzeltildiği incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, derslerin tahmin etme ve deneyim paylaşma gibi aktiviteler içeren ön-okuma bölümlerinde; daha fazla etkileşimsel örüntünün ve öğrencilerin başlattığı dizilerin olduğunu göstermiştir. Derslerin diğer bölümlerinde ise öğretmen konuşması, hikayelerin içerikleri ve sınıf içi etkinlikler gibi bağlamsal faktörlerin; etkileşimsel kaynaklar ve katılım yapısı üzerinde çeşitlilikler yarattığı gözlenmiştir. Ayrıca, okulun uyguladığı müfredatın temel yaklaşımı

olan tematik öğrenmenin sınıf içi söylem ve etkileşim üzerinde önemli bir etkisi olmuştur. Çalışmanın sonuçları; hikaye temelli derslerin öğrencilerin sınıf içi etkileşim becerileri üzerine muhtemel etkileri açısından tartışılmıştır. Çalışmanın, İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflardaki mikro çözümleme yaklaşımı, çocuklarla hikaye temelli dersler ve sınıf içi etkileşim becerileri için önerileri olmuştur.



Anahtar kelimeler: Sınıf İçi Söylemi, Hikaye Temelli Dersler, Küçük Yaştaki Öğrenciler, Konuşma Çözümlemesi, Sınıf İçi Etkileşim Becerileri

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Conversational Analysis
CA-for-SLA	Conversational Analysis for Second Language Acquisition
CDA	Classroom Discourse Analysis
CIC	Classroom Interactional Competence
DA	Discourse Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
IB	International Baccalaureate
IC	Interactional Competence
IRF	Initiation-Response-Feedback
IRE	Initiation-Response-Evaluation
L2	Foreign/Second/Additional Language
PYP	Primary Years Programme
SCL	Second Language Acquisition
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
TCU	Turn Constructional Units
TRP	Transition Relevance Place

TT	Teacher Talk
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
WTP	Willingness to Participate



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in ethnography and ethnographic research on second language teaching and learning due to the need for a deeper understanding of how individuals perceive and take part in the social activities. Sociocultural Theory (SCT) developed by the Russian psychologist, Vygotsky, has paved the way for this interest in conceptualizing learning and cognitive development as a communicative activity. This is because SCT “views development as an unconscious, “spontaneous” process, whereby children are mediated into their culture by parents and other members of their social group” (Lantolf, 2005, p.305). On the other hand, Ethnography refers to a variable of research approaches “originating in an anthropological and sociological research and characterized by first-hand, naturalistic, sustained observation and participation in particular social setting” (Harklau, 2005, p.179). In educational settings, this research approach adopting emic perspective provides an insider view for researchers who have the purpose of investigating what really goes on in the classrooms by reference to the context. As Nunan (2005) stated, classroom-centered research aims to explain what modes or dynamics in classroom are related to language acquisition and how this relationship is constructed by focusing on three aspects: input, interaction and output. In this domain, sociolinguistic and interactionist methods such as ethnomethodology and discourse analytic methods have been widely used to reconceptualize cognition, which has been traditionally placed only in an individual’s mind, as a social phenomenon (Harklau, 2005; Mori& Markee, 2009).

Treating language teaching and learning process as “a social context in its own right (Johnson, 1995; Walsh, 2002), with its own goals and rules of communication (Seedhouse,

2004)'' (Garton, 2012, p.4) in a holistic point of view; rather than a knowledge transfer from teacher to students' brains allows educators to explicate and describe how this process is co-constructed and accomplished by participants in and through talk-in-interaction (Markee& Kunitz, 2015). That is to say, sociolinguistic and interactionist approaches to language education within an emic perspective provide a deeper understanding for language classrooms to facilitate acquisition, because classroom settings are regarded as a context which has its own unique practices with different social identities (Preston, 2009). That's why, these settings can be utilized for exploring what happens inside the classrooms in a moment-by-moment basis to be able to discover new phenomena and provide implications for teaching and learning process (Seedhouse, 2004). In this domain, the fact that everything that happens in the classroom is a result of language use requires an analytic view on socially co-constructed interactional practices (Walsh, 2011).

Especially for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, social interaction plays an important role in providing learners effective exposition to the language. In each classroom, variable social actions accomplished and negotiated in and through verbal and nonverbal communication are employed based on the classroom atmosphere and its context, which is called Classroom Discourse (Sert, 2015). Classroom discourse is one of the types of applied conversation analysis, also a kind of institutional talk with some certain characteristics and unique dynamics such as goal orientation, institution-specific procedures and speech exchange systems (Garton, 2012; Kasper& Wagner, 2014). Basic Conversation Analysis (CA), "is the result of applying ethnomethodological principles to naturally occurring talk" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.12). In other words, it is an attempt to understand basic issues of talk in interaction by examining naturally occurring data in a sociological manner (Kasper& Wagner, 2014). CA of institutional talk, on the other hand, investigates institution-specific procedures and how participants orient to these procedures in interaction by taking context-sensitive properties of interaction into consideration. When the institution is a language classroom, CA can be utilized for second language acquisition and applied linguistics studies, which is shortly called as CA-for-SLA, "an emerging approach in applied linguistics and SLA studies that use the transcription procedures and microanalytical techniques of classical CA and applied these resources to the analysis of second language learning or teaching activity" (Markee, 2005, p.357).

While CA concentrates on understanding the organization of talk, Classroom Discourse Analysis (CDA) focuses on the interrelationship between organization of interaction and pedagogical aims and classroom methodologies in a more context-sensitive and goal-oriented way (Garton, 2012; Murcia& Ohlstain, 2005). Discourse-based approaches put an emphasis on the fact that learners also need to develop discourse competence, which is the ability to make use of sociocultural and linguistic abilities to understand and produce coherent and cohesive components of language while maintaining communication (Murcia& Ohlstain, 2005). Classroom discourse studies have attempted to describe a wide range of components and features of classroom discourse in different contexts which are expected to be representative of classroom interaction by also providing implications for language learning and interactional competence (IC) of learners which is regarded as the ability of participants to relate how they use linguistic and semiotic resources to the context (Young, 2008).

While creating an environment for second, foreign or additional language (L2) learners, there are significant factors that have an impact on language teaching and learning process such as classroom climate, teacher instruction (input) and talk, materials and objectives of the lesson. All these factors have certain roles in constructing discursive practices and shaping the general features of classroom discourse and interaction. The use of stories in L2 context is one of the techniques used in both ESL and EFL classrooms to provide learners with authentic language, improve their language skills and create an environment which is rich in imagination and motivation (Li& Seedhouse, 2010). Using stories from children's literature in language classrooms have also positive effects on young learners' language development (Wright, 1995). Children's literature is defined as "fiction written for children to read for pleasure, rather than for didactic purposes" (Ghosn, 2002, p.172). Story-based lessons including all the components of a lesson in their own rights have specific features and dynamics in language teaching. In this sense, classroom discourse and interaction may have different practices that have not been studied from a classroom discourse-analytic perspective in story-based lessons with young learners. This study aims to demonstrate how story-based classroom discourse and learning opportunities are co-constructed by teachers and students. The study also deals with how story-based lessons contribute to young learners' classroom interactional competence by examining discursive practices of story-based lessons with young learners in Turkish context including turn-taking system, sequence organization, teacher talk and student participation.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

As Firth and Wagner stated (1997), “language is not only a cognitive phenomenon, the product of the individual’s brain; it is also fundamentally a social phenomenon, acquired and used interactively, in a variety of contexts for myriad practical purposes” (p.768). Therefore, in language learning and teaching context, language is also socially and linguistically co-constructed by participants for pedagogical purposes in classrooms, and there are situational and contextual factors that have certain effects on this process. To illustrate, situational factors in classrooms such as tasks, materials, teacher instructions and teaching practices can be constitutive especially for learners’ motivation, language development and classroom interaction (Dörnyei, 1998; Jukunen, 2001; Pinter, 2006, as cited in Haung, 2011). These classroom factors are imperative particularly for young learners since they do not have instrumental reasons practically or pedagogically when compared to adult learners. For this reason, what actually goes on in the lessons with young learners when different teaching practices are employed by teachers needs to be investigated to determine the outcomes of these practices through naturally occurring data in order to adopt an emic understanding (Kasper& Wagner, 2014; Mori& Markee, 2009). Furthermore, describing how participants achieve learning while developing their classroom interactional competence as a member of a specific discourse by means of a data-driven enterprise can provide useful implications for curriculum designers.

Classroom interactional competence (CIC) and speaking skills of language learners in Turkish context are not enough for being competent foreign language users despite their educational background including mostly linguistic knowledge in the target language. However, as Firth and Wagner (1997) emphasized, language acquisition process needs to be discussed along with learners’ use and performance in the target language (Mori, 2007). Therefore, providing learners with an appropriate language environment in which they have an opportunity to take the floor by using their target language to communicate with other participants has a crucial role in enhancing classroom interactional competence. Through effectively co-constructed classroom interactional competence, learners and teachers can mediate and assist learning by using interaction as a tool within the goal-oriented classroom discourse (Walsh, 2011).

With the aim of improving interactional competence of learners, educational practitioners have been developing a number of approaches, methods and techniques for language teaching including data collected in naturalistic settings, one of which is story-based approach. Stories are frequently used in order to provide learners with an authentic material and natural use of the target language; and they affect interactional architecture, discursive practices and participation framework in language classrooms. That's why, story-based lessons have specific features and dynamics, so classroom discourse and interactional practices that learners are involved in these lessons differ from language-based lessons based on the results that Li and Seedhouse (2010) obtained. In other words, context-shaped and context-renewing principles of classroom discourse require participants to take specific communicative actions to manage their institutional identities and achieve a pedagogical goal by orienting to socially co-constructed organization of talk-in-interaction. As a conclusion, stories shouldn't be regarded only as a reading material which improves learners' reading skills in their second language, but they also need to be discussed as a 'genuine' reason, which communicative methodology aims to create (Harmer, 1983). They are an opportunity to motivate students to speak by stimulating emotional involvement and discussion and creating learning opportunities for developing interactional competence.

1.3. Significance of the Study

There is a large volume of published studies describing a wide range of components of classroom discourse and interaction in different contexts such as teacher talk, student participation, learner initiatives, motivation, sequence organization of interaction, turn-taking systems, feedback, students' smiles, teachers' questioning practices, teacher repetition by also providing implications for language learning and interactional competence of learners (Bozbiyık, 2017; Evnitskaya& Berger, 2017; Garton, 2012; Huang, 2011; İnceçay, 2010; Kasper, 2004; Roh& Lee, 2018; Sert& Jacknick, 2015; Sert, 2017; Stubbe, 1998; Waring, 2011; Yang, Badger& Yu, 2006; Young& Miller, 2004). The literature on discourse and classroom interaction have contributed substantially to the analytic examinations on the details of procedures in language classrooms, which helps stakeholders develop a better understanding of the relationship between language use and pedagogical purposes.

As Firth (2009) concludes, “notions of ‘learning’, ‘learnership’, ‘competence’, ‘proficiency’, and ‘performance’, are intricately tied to contextual exigencies, and are always emergent within the micro-details of social interaction” (p. 150). Therefore, how language learners perform in different situations need to be explored from the emic perspective on educational research in a close relation with interactional competence. Language learning and language use are strongly interrelated, so they cannot be discussed separately. Brouwer and Wagner (2004) also suggested that language learning process need to be considered as “the development of interactional skills, and interactional resources” (p.32). In this sense, teachers’ attempt to create learning opportunities for learners in which they can actively take part in discursive co-construction of classroom interaction by participants, is an important factor in developing speaking and interactional skills of learners in the target language as a social member of a community within language socialization process.

The use of stories in language classrooms is one of the situations structured for learners to enhance language learning. Since active involvement in terms of language use and classroom interaction is necessary for acquisition, story-based lessons provide participants with an environment in which they are able to both entertain and be exposed to natural use of language, which promotes learner motivation and engagement in classroom activities.

The positive effects of making use of children’s literature in language teaching for both young learners and adult learners have been studied and different approaches such as cultural, language or personal growth have been discussed (Ghosn, 2002; Leal, 2015; Saraçoğlu, 2006; Shuqair& Dashti, 2019). Donato and Brooks (2004) made use of interactional data on literary discussions in their study with adult learners. Focusing on classroom talk, on the other hand, Mantero (2006) revised the literature based on text-centered talk by providing coding and schemes to define the concept in detail.

As for one of the literary genres, story, which is the main focus in the current study, Li and Seedhouse (2010) conducted a study on the comparison of story-based lessons and standard language lessons by focusing on different story-telling styles; nevertheless, literature lacks detailed discourse analysis of story-based lessons with young learners dealing with classroom activities and discursive resources applied in classroom within a CA-informed approach.

Samuda (2015) claimed that “we still have relatively limited documentation, whether via transcripts or recordings, of what actually happens as tasks unfold in real time, and how

teachers handle them” (p. 296). However, we need to be aware of the importance of explicating various dynamics in classroom interaction to analyze learning and teaching practices in a specific context and understand the needs of teachers and learners to inform curriculum designers and create a more engaging classroom environment (Sert, 2015). Hence, the present study is significant for examining story-based lessons with young learners from the discourse-analytic perspective drawing on conversation analysis methodology to document what really happens in these lessons in terms of classroom interaction. The study also takes a closer look at general features of classroom activities and how participants characterize the interactional structure with the discursive resources such as teacher talk for constructing boundaries and constructing meaning; sequence organization and participation framework with the aim of providing implications for classroom interactional competence. This study will also provide an opportunity to develop an understanding what actually happens in private schools in the national scope in terms of language learning and teaching. The context of the present research is also significant for its curriculum design. The school, where the data was collected from, is an IB (International Baccalaureate) school. In the kindergarten, PYP (Primary Years Programme) curriculum is applied, and the programme has a significant impact on the whole teaching process including story-based lessons. Since there are still very few studies conducted in such contexts within an interactional focus, the current study is expected to contribute to the field.

1.4. Aim of the Study

According to Kasper (2004) Conversation Analysis requires speakers to relate their utterances to the context and topic discussed, which provides more opportunity for effective discourse competence and classroom interaction. In story-based lessons, on the other hand, interaction and classroom discourse have certain characteristics resulting from the context itself in terms of both classroom activities and discursive resources such as teacher talk in constructing boundaries and meaning, participation framework and sequence organization used in the classroom. Seedhouse (2019) suggested that each L2 classroom context occur “...with its own basic pedagogical focus and corresponding organization of turn-taking, sequence and repair (p.10). So, in this domain, the study aims to analyze and describe unique discursive practices of story-based lessons with young learners in the interactional organization units including sequence organization, turn taking and repair focusing on the

student participation and teacher talk from the perspective of classroom interactional competence of teachers and students. The study also attempts to provide implications for language teaching to young learners in Turkey, because curriculum development needs to be based on the data collected from educational settings (Markee& Kunitz, 2015). The research questions of the study are as follows:

RQ1: What are the general features of story-based lessons within the PYP curriculum framework?

RQ2: How do discursive practices performed by teachers and students construct story-based classroom discourse and interaction?

RQ3: What are the interactional accomplishments of the practices?

RQ4: Does classroom interaction differ in the stages of story-based lessons?

RQ5: How do contents of stories affect classroom interaction?

1.5.Hypotheses of the Study

Conversation Analysis procedures basically begin with an understanding of unmotivated looking (ten Have, 2007), which means that researchers are open to discover new phenomena and reveal interactional patterns without any preconceptions (Seedhouse, 2004). Since the research follows a discourse-analytic methodology benefiting from conversation analysis, it is a descriptive and data-driven study. The study dwells on the understanding of “language learning as co-constructed development in situated discursive practices” (Young& Miller, 2004, p.519). Therefore, in story-based lessons, there is a need for different situated discursive practices in classroom.

Story-based lessons have certain characteristics in terms of classroom discourse and interaction. To illustrate, stories’ variable features may increase or decrease the level of the motivation of learners Therefore, participation framework will differ based on the story read in the classroom. The stages of story-based lessons such as pre-story, in-story and post-story include different activities and so different interaction practices (Li& Seedhouse, 2010). In this sense, the study hypothesizes that learner self-initiatives will be more in post-story stage which is favored by Hall (2004), because students will have got background knowledge about the story.

Also, teacher talk has an important role for creating an effective learning environment especially for young learners, so it is hypothesized that teacher talk including questioning practices and constructing meaning will impact student participation (Stanulis& Manning, 2002).

1.6. Assumptions

This research is a classroom discourse analytic study drawing on conversation analysis from a micro-analytic perspective. To be able to examine story-based lessons, audio-recording will be used as the main data collection technique. In spite of the fact that in CA, analysts do not expect something to find before data collection, because language can be examined in a specific moment, in this study it is assumed that participants of the study will be comfortable with audio-recording session, and they will not change the way they behave as usual in the classroom. In a similar way, in the study, it is assumed that there will not be any unusual circumstances in the classroom during the day, which may affect the participants' emotional state and thereupon the classroom climate.

1.7. Limitations

CA enables researchers to make inferences through an interaction in a specific context, and the number of the participants is not the main concern (Sert& Walsh, 2013). Therefore, researchers use a limited data base in order to describe the interactional practices in relation to the research questions and it is not possible to guarantee that a researcher can capture all instances of a specific practice in a database. This is often regarded as a limitation of CA in terms of generalizability of findings.

Because of the 'situatedness' concept in CA, which means that researchers examine a specific time occurring in a classroom, and do not deal with other variables concerning participants such as age, gender, individual background (ten Have, 2004); in this study, audio-recordings of lessons will be used as the main data collection technique. No other sources such as questionnaires and tests will be included in the study in order to learn about participants' background. Because of the problems with official permission, the study is limited to audio-recordings, which lacks multimodality that video-recordings would provide in order to analyze embodiment processes performed by the participants.

1.8. Definition of the Terms

Discourse Analysis: “Discourse analysis is a way of studying language in action, looking at texts in relation to the social contexts in which they are used” (Hyland, 2009, p.20).

Conversation Analysis: Conversation Analysis is defined as “the pathway that scrutinizes the talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life by describing, analyzing and understanding” (Sidnell, 2010, p.10)

Classroom Discourse: Classroom Discourse is “the collection and representation of socio-interactive practices that portray the emergence of teaching and learning of a new language through teachers’ and students’ co-construction of understanding and knowledge in and through the use of language-in-interaction” (Sert, 2015, p. 9).

Classroom Interactional Competence: CIC is the “ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning” (Walsh 2011, p. 158).

Story-Based Lesson: Story-Based Lessons adopt an approach which puts a specific story at the center of a lesson and consists of pre-story, in-story and post-story stages in a language learning context.

Children’s Literature: Children’s Literature can be defined as “a category of books the existence of which absolutely depends on supposed relationships with a particular reading audience: children” (Oberstein, 1998, p.17).

Young Learners: The term covers the children from the age of 3 to 15. (Nunan, 2013)

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the conceptual framework of the study will be constructed by illuminating the main concepts in consideration of the previous studies. The chapter will include 5 main sections. In the first section, Classroom Discourse (CD) and Interaction will be elaborated in terms of its theoretical development and main features from the different approaches of classroom-based studies such as Sociocultural Theory, Ethnomethodology, Discourse Analysis (DA) and Conversation Analysis (CA). The organizational principles of classroom interaction like Turn-Taking, Sequence Organization, Repair and Preference Organization will also be defined and how they can be co-constructed differently depending on the context and pedagogy will be explained. The second section will introduce Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) by mainly dwelling on teacher talk and student participation. In the third section, young learners who are the participants of the current study, and their characteristics within classroom interaction will be explained by reference to the studies that have worked with young learners in different contexts. In the last section, the context of the study, which is story-based lessons will be dwelt on in relation to children's literature in foreign language education.

2.1. Classroom Discourse and Interaction

During the past 50 years, much more information has become available on sociocultural view in SLA, which considers teaching and learning as socially mediated processes. According to SCT, learner development is influenced by surrounding social environment

through interaction and mediation. Different research traditions have been developed for empirical investigation within classroom research such as psychometric, interaction analysis, ethnomethodology (EM) and discourse analysis (Nunan, 2005). Interaction analysts worked solely on coding of classroom interactions, so it did not provide a broad perspective to classroom interaction. EM, which is a participant-centered, context-sensitive, qualitative research method observing participants' social interactions and behaviors in their environment, has contributed a lot to socio-cultural perspective of classroom-based studies (Atkinson, 1988). With the development of EM by Garfinkel (1967), social architecture of classrooms has been investigated and discourse-analytic methods deriving from conversation analysis have shed light on different insights in L2 teaching and learning (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Harklou, 2005). To understand the methodologies for the analysis of classroom interaction, the term discourse itself needs to be defined.

Discourse is simply identified as the combination of "text and context" (Alba-Juez, 2009, p.8), and analyzing discourse includes an examination on language in use in different kinds of settings. However, there is a conceptual difference between 'discourse' and 'Discourse', which should be stated. While 'discourse' refers to syntax; written, spoken and other aspects of language production, 'Discourse' includes both syntactic, semantic aspects and contextualized usage, which comprises everything about language and how it is performed by specific participants in specific contexts (Paulson & Theado, 2015). Anderson (2017) also provides an operational definition for discourse by investigating the relationship between language use and social practice through analysis of interaction. In this definition, discourse is considered "as a form of social practice that mutually constitutes the social world through both doing and representing (Fairclough, 1992; Rogers, 2011)" (Anderson, 2017, p.38). The operational approach to discourse of Anderson (2017) shows how we can examine naturally occurring instances of classroom events and texts in a teaching and learning context; and how they are represented with different ways of classroom discourse patterns.

Classroom discourse (CD) is one of the types of discourse which involves all kinds of social interaction occurring in classrooms (Jocuns, 2013). According to Sert (2015), CD can be more specifically identified as "the collection and representation of socio-interactional practices that portray the emergence of teaching and learning of a new language through teachers' and students' co-construction of understanding and knowledge in and through the use of language-in-interaction" (p. 9). There have been a number of classroom-based

research studies examining foreign language classroom discourse from the perspective of sociocultural theory (Donato, 2000; Huang, 2011; Kanagy, 1999; Kozulin, 2004; Lantolf, 2011; Morell, 2007). As Thoms (2012) stated in his review of literature; the discursive practices, which are performed by learners and their teachers to interact with one another, are closely tied to language learning process and learner's interactional development based on sociocultural theory. Therefore, discursive construction in classroom settings is an important factor that helps learners use the target language as a vehicle for both communication and their language acquisition process. In other words, learners need to develop discourse competence in their second language in order to perform in new contexts within new social relations which may have different linguistic, social and cultural aspects (Murcia& Olshtain, 2005), because as Ellis suggested (as cited in Waring, 2011), language learning can be more effectively achieved when learners are allowed to control the discourse. Learners understand these specific contexts in their own ways; and to be able to document how participants orient to a context, conversation analysis is one of the tools used to explicate the organization of social interaction.

Young and Miller (2004) analyzed discursive practices by which and through which students interact with one another and their teacher in an English as a Second Language (SLA) writing course by examining six discursive resources that characterize the social interaction as a configuration of these resources specific to a discursive practice. The discursive resources are named as following (p.520):

- constructing boundaries
- sequential organization
- turn-taking system
- participation framework
- the register of the practice
- constructing meaning.

There is a growing number of studies which analyze classroom discourse and interaction by adopting different approaches such as cognitive and sociocultural to address specific aspects of learning in and outside the classroom (Balaman, 2016; Garton, 2012; Huang, 2011; Kasper, 2004; Li& Seedhouse, 2010; Roh& Lee, 2018; Waring, 2011; Young& Miller, 2004). In recent years, the literature on CD has shed light on what really goes on in language classrooms from the perspective of sociocultural theory (SCT) on learning to provide

implications for language acquisition of learners by addressing linguistic and communicative problems in authentic interaction. Morell (2007) also emphasized the importance of classroom interaction: “if language learners are not only exposed to the target language, but also encouraged to produce output and to interact, they will more likely progress in their linguistic and communicative competence” (p.234). In this respect, the nature of classroom discourse and interaction co-constructed by participants has certain characteristics which need to be investigated to document learners’ progress.

One of the main issues in classroom discourse research is how learners are encouraged or discouraged by different aspects of interaction (Waring, 2011). The most prominent feature of CD that constructs general organization of classroom interaction is an exchange structure: initiation-response-feedback (IRF) first identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). On the other hand, Mehan (1979a) described the structure as initiation-response-evaluation (IRE). Even though the two terms seem to share the same features, Hall and Walsh (2002) distinguished IRE and IRF interaction patterns typically found in foreign language classrooms by claiming that while IRE exchange structure is a process of knowledge transmission from the teacher ,who has the dominant role, to learners only with explicit assessment; IRF includes exploration for knowledge and problem-solving process, which is a more inquiry-based approach to language learning considered as co-construction of knowledge. To achieve this co-construction process, Van Lier (1998) suggested that teacher can create more emancipatory discursive patterns of interaction by asking open-ended and interpretive questions to students in the follow-up turn of the IRF sequence (as cited in Thoms, 2012). Therefore, through meaningful and stimulating questions that promote classroom discussion, teachers can create a discursive space for learners and encourage student participation allowing them to control the discourse as co-participants. Nassaji and Wells (2000) investigated teacher-student in the use of triadic dialogue and reached similar conclusions about the importance of co-construction of knowledge and questions for negotiation in whole-class discussions. They also emphasized different varieties of forms and functions in IRF structure depending on the context and the purpose of the classroom activities. To be able to examine and interpret classroom discourse, pedagogic goals should be taken into consideration within this analysis.

Analyzing discourse in classroom context has a great deal of potential to discover specific issues related to language, interaction, identity and power and how they are identified by

participants. Researchers have approached this potential by conducting different types of discourse analysis such as microethnographic (Moses, 2012), reflexive (Anderson, 2017) and critical discourse analysis (CDA) (Ashton, 2016; Jenks, 2020; Orsati, 2015; Weninger, 2020). Microethnographic discourse analysis focuses on cultural aspects, participants' perspectives on their own positions in a community and how they make meaning through interaction with others. Bloome et al. (2005) emphasized literacy events and language use within a microethnographic perspective. They defined a literacy event as "any event in which written language plays a nontrivial role" (Bloome et al., 2005, p.5). This microethnographic approach to classroom interaction and literacy events includes some theoretical tools. According to Bloome et al. (2005), these tools are as following:

- contextualization cues,
- boundary making,
- turn-taking,
- negotiating thematic coherence,
- intertextuality (p.7).

Contextualization cues refer to any verbal or non-verbal signals that contribute to contextual presupposition and constructing shared culture in classrooms. Boundary-making is a socially constructed tool that explains boundaries of a classroom event. This tool can also be associated with preference organization in social interaction. Turn-taking structure, on the other hand, determines participation framework within a context-shaped view based on specific classroom events. Negotiating thematic coherence is very crucial for hidden curriculum determined by teacher, institutions or other stakeholders within education system. There may be a variable of themes during a lesson, and they serve to meaning-making process, especially literature-based lessons provide literary or social themes for teacher and students to examine the world. Lastly, intertextuality includes written, conversational or non-verbal texts' references to any other textual features. This juxtaposition of texts is co-constructed in a social context. Moses (2012) added four more theoretical tools to the ethnographic approach in her study for a deeper understanding: "ritualistic behaviours (Jawarski and Coupland, 2008), frames (Tannen and Wallat, 2008), linguistic registers (Tannen and Wallat, 2008) and the corrective process of face-work (Goffman, 2008)" (p.151) and supported the social learning theory in developing language, identity and power relationships of young learners of English while engaging in discursive

practices. Anderson (2017) carried out research on reflective discourse analysis and questioned 'what counts' in the reflexive analysis of a classroom event and explicated recursive instances of language use and social practices by means of their interrelationship.

Much of the current literature on discourse pays particular attention to Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). CDA examines how discursive practices are co-constructed in the social world within a strong relationship with power, identity and dominance (Ashton, 2016). It involves description and interpretation of discursive context dominated by social and cultural practices. One study by Orsati (2015) used critical discourse analysis to explore how teachers react to behaviors of their kindergarten students with disabilities through analysis of utterances in the classroom by focusing on control and conditional membership. The study concludes that educators' language and discursive practices have a strong interrelationship. Therefore, teachers' responses to student behaviors are shaped by the institutional discourse. Similarly, students need to apply these discursive routines and norms, and behave accordingly to be a member of the classroom community. Discursive interactions of teachers working with students with disabilities were also analyzed by Ashton (2016) in a co-teaching context. The study using critical discourse analysis shows how classroom interaction is shaped by social and political practices. It also reminds us of curriculum pressure and its effects on teachers' discursive practices in the process of constructing boundaries within classroom discourse. The micro-analytic and ethnographic approaches to classroom interactional practices have paid particular attention to co-constructed social contexts through participants' mutual orientation, negotiation and meaning-making processes. A recent study by Wenniger (2020) has investigated ideology through framing in a critical literacy lesson from this perspective of discourse in conjunction with context by questioning how ideologies about teaching and learning English can be detected during interactional activities.

Together these studies provide important insights into the study of classroom discourse which considers teaching and learning as a set of observable and definable discursive practices having an internal structure in a coordination with larger institutional context (Wong & Waring, 2010, as cited in Jenks, 2020). In view of this approach; classroom discourse is co-shaped by teachers and students sharing common pedagogical goals, and their discursive activities accordingly, which orients to general organization of classroom interaction.

According to Walsh (2011), “everything that occurs in the classroom requires the use of language” (p.2). Classrooms have certain dynamics to achieve their main goals which are exploring new knowledge and developing new skills based on a context. To achieve these and eventually practice teaching and learning; teacher-student interactions are integral. Through language and communication, participants in a classroom community can actually be part of the learning process by understanding, questioning, discovering and improving their skills besides establishing social relationships. The interest in examining interaction in classrooms has led researchers to take a more analytic perspective for classroom language and discourse. In this sense, the exchange structures such as IRF and IRE, which were found to be most occurring discourse structures in classrooms, provided a better understanding of nature and structure of classroom interaction. The analytic perspective towards social interaction revealed the need for a methodology providing a more detailed resource to describe interactional organization of natural talk and social acts. CA answered the purpose as “the study of conversation as an activity in its own right” (Schegloff& Sacks, 1973, p. 290). Schegloff and Sacks started CA to explicate and observe the details of social actions in the natural environments. In the 70s, however, CA mainly focused on every day talk in interaction and aimed to uncover the emic understanding and intersubjectivity in a sequence by showing the systematic order of interaction (Seedhouse, 2004). Since the dominant view about conversation analysis was the difficulty in studying it because of its complicated and disorganized nature, first studies in CA had the purpose of proving how talk-in-interaction is organized in a systematic and consistent way (Sacks, Schegloff& Jefferson, 1977; Sacks, Schegloff& Jefferson, 1978; Schegloff& Sacks, 1973).

The systematic view of social interaction extended the scope of CA to institutional talk in 90s (Drew& Heritage, 1992). The realization of the fact that different institutions could have different interactional organizations based on their specific aims has led to a variable of studies conducted in different settings to identify context-shaped architecture of social interaction. In terms of educational settings and specifically language learning classrooms, Firth and Wagner’s (1997) article emphasized the relationship between language learning and its use in a social context and reconceptualized SLA research as a social phenomenon rather than only cognitive and individual one. Since their path-breaking contribution to the field, there have been a number of studies on the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction by taking sociocultural theory as their theoretical framework within SLA (Jacknick, 2011; Kanagy, 1999; Kasper& Kim, 2015; Lantolf, 2000; Seedhouse, 2005). The

interactional approach to SLA drawing on CA methodology has paved the way to the emergence of a new research field: CA-for-SLA. According to Markee (2008), “CA-for-SLA shows how participants analyze each other’s real time conversational practices to achieve particular social actions (such as language learning behaviors) that occur naturally during talk-in-interaction” (p.405). While SLA traditionally dealt with learners’ cognitive processes in their minds, CA-for-SLA shifted researchers’ focus toward social and contextual dimensions of learning a language by treating cognition as ‘socially-distributed’ and observable phenomenon. This shift led to more classroom-based research which examines language in action and competence in action (Firth& Wagner, 2007; Pekarek Doehler, 2006, as cited in Pekarek Doehler, 2013). In other words, the crucial role of interaction in learning was emphasized, and considered as a key to understand SLA (Hellerman, 2011; Houen, Danby, Farrell& Thorpe, 2019; Huth, 2011; Koschmann, 2013)

Since the mid-1990s, CA-based SLA studies have intensified and helped us to understand the interactional architecture of classrooms. Within this direction, many researchers have adopted different stances for the relationship between CA methodology and language learning. These approaches are CA-inspired and CA-informed approaches (Mori& Markee, 2009). While the former is a purist, analytical and data-driven approach which does not rely on any exogenous theories (Markee& Seo, 2009), the latter treats CA as a technical tool in the service of sociocultural theories in relation to Situated Learning Theory suggesting that learning is a social and situated practice (Brouwer& Wagner, 2004).

Social interaction needs to be recipient-designed, that is, speech should be modified for a specific audience; therefore, different social environments are expected to have distinct interactional features (Sacks, Schegloff& Jefferson,1974). Like other institution-specific interactions, classroom interaction has also recognizable and context-shaped characteristics such as institution-specific turn design, preference organization, distinctive sequence organization and known-answer questions contrary to ordinary talk. As Koschmann (2013) stated, to be able to unfold the classroom talk as a social context in a detailed analysis of what actually happens in classrooms rather than what should happen, and there is a need for investigation of regularities to prove that interaction provides evidence of learning in and as interaction. In other words, recurrent discursive actions need to be isolated to show how participants co-construct classroom interaction in accordance with institution-specific pedagogic goals. In this regard, many micro-analytic studies have been conducted to

examine how classroom interaction is organized across short time span based on learners' use of linguistic forms in a sequence of talk (Markee& Kasper, 2004; Markee& Seo, 2009; Solem, 2016) and to show learners' development of their classroom interactional competence over time (Cekaite, 2007; Hellerman, 2007; Schwab, 2011). All these studies view classrooms as sociocultural contexts and discursively-formed environments in which teachers and students take part in different social practices, construct different identities while maintaining intersubjectivity during the process of teaching and learning. Mori (2002), on the other hand, focused on task design and claimed that task as a workplan and task in process may differ in terms of interactional organization. She also attempted to relate the structures of talk with the institutional pedagogic goals through a micro-analysis of the sequential unfolding of talk (Huth, 2011). All in all, this view suggests that different social practices resulting from different teaching methods, goals and activities affect interactional organization and construct context-shaped and context-renewing classroom discourse.

There are mainly four interactional resources, each of which needs to be looked closely so that classroom interactional organization can be understood. These are turn-taking, sequence organization, preference organization and repair (Hoey& Kendrick, 2017; Kasper& Wagner, 2014; Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2011). Turn taking organization is basically exchange of turn between speakers. However, in classroom contexts it has a significant role in defining control, participation framework, pedagogical focus and discourse pattern. By analyzing turn design, it can be questioned whether it is teacher-centered or learner-centered environment. Also, turn-taking structure can give researchers important clues about the pedagogical focus. Clayman (2013) provided two key terms that brought a new perspective to studies in turn-taking: turn constructional units (TCUs) and transition relevant place (TRP). TCUs are sentences, phrases or words that possibly show that an utterance is complete. On the other hand, TRP is the place where another speaker is expected to take the turn. Clayman stated that turn-taking is "intrinsically significant as an elementary form of social behavior in its own right" (p. 150). That's why speakers should develop intersubjectivity and act in a coordination with other speakers.

Sequence organization focuses on positioning of utterances to understand their meanings and interpretations by co-interactants (Seedhouse, 2004; Stivers, 2013). Adjacency pairs, which are paired utterances coming after another naturally such as question-answer, are the starting points of a sequence. Heritage defines them as "the basic building blocks of

intersubjectivity” (1984b, p256). Intersubjectivity is one of the fundamental terms of CA, because it is a key to understand how interactants develop mutual understanding; therefore, sequence organization is a very useful resource to explain general structure of social interaction. Sequences can also be expanded in interaction as three different forms: pre, insert and post-expansions.

The organization of turn-taking and sequence is reflexively related to pedagogical goals in classroom discourse and interaction. As Seedhouse (2005) outlined in different contexts such as form and accuracy, meaning and fluency and task-oriented, the interactional organization change in accordance with the teaching context. While teachers have more control in interaction in form and accuracy contexts, learners have more responsibility in maintaining conversation in meaning and fluency contexts. Task-oriented contexts have more varied turn-taking system and sequence organization based on a given task. Üstünel (2014) also emphasized the relationship between pedagogy and interaction in her analysis of the classroom discourse at a kindergarten classroom. The study focused on three resources of interactional organization: turn-taking, sequence, and repair to explain how participants analyze pedagogical goals and display their analysis in turns.

According to Jenks (2014) social interaction that includes verbal and nonverbal utterances is a way of socialization by which people perform different social actions through talk and interaction. In other words, people co-construct a community in which they take part in social activities by negotiating meaning and their evolving identities based on the context. This socialization process itself establishes the institutional context and participants in the community co-shape the interactional architecture. So that speakers orient to the interactional organization, they produce their talk and actions dependent on the recipients, which is recipient-design (Pomerantz & Heritage, 2013). The principle of recipient-design is the main idea in preference organization, one of the interactional resources. Some actions are preferred and some others are not preferred during the conversation based on the interactional principles and objectives of the institution. In classroom context, preference organization can be observed easily, because teacher mostly display their dispreference for the learner contributions. Duran and Sert (2019) focused on the preference organization in English as a Medium of Instruction classrooms in a Turkish context through video-recordings. They demonstrated different teacher usages of interactional resources to show dispreference, which were considered as effective tools for enhancing learner participation.

Each one of the L2 classroom contexts has its own organization of interactional resources in accordance with their pedagogical focus. Not only turn-taking, sequence and preference organizations but also repair designs vary in each context with different features (Van Lier, 1988a). Seedhouse (2004) claimed that “the organizations of the adjacency pair, preference and turn-taking constitute the structural organization of talk. However, the fourth element, repair, comes into play whenever there are problems in the accomplishment of talk” (p.22). To put it in a different way, repair is used when there is a dispreferred action, a trouble, which needs to be treated, during talk in order to maintain the sequence. Repair is one of the core resources in co-construction of mutual understanding and intersubjectivity, because it provides a space for negotiation for meaning which is very important in the learning process (Kitzinger, 2013). There are four types of repairs applied in classroom based on the activities: self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other repair, other-initiated self-repair and other-initiated other repair (Kasper, 1985; Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977; Seedhouse, 2004). Different trajectories of repair are performed in different ways, so they affect the ongoing conversation correspondingly. Also, they are preferred by teachers for specific reasons on behalf of the pedagogical goals. In repair sequences, evidence for learning or understanding can also be found. Therefore, Markee (2008) defined repair as “micro-moments of socially distributed cognition” (p.409). From this point of view, Hellerman (2009) worked on self-initiated self-repair in search for evidence of language learning in a case study. The study claims that the development in learners’ repair practices shows the overall change in language learning process, because performing self-initiated self-repair requires effective orientation to context-shaped language use. Lilja (2014), on the other hand, examined partial repetitions as other-initiated repair relating to the epistemic positions of the learners. The analysis showed that partial repetitions were used to re-establish understanding to maintain the conversation. All these interactional resources stated above have been used to explore classroom discourse in different contexts with the aim of bridging the gap between pedagogy and interaction. As Seedhouse (2019) emphasized that each L2 classroom context has particular organization of the resources: turn-taking, sequence, repair; examining discursive practices in language classroom with different pedagogical focuses have a great potential to discover characteristics and learning opportunities of these L2 contexts (Cekaite, 2017).

Classroom-based research and classroom discourse studies revealed that learners needed to apply the corresponding interactional organization with the specific context through adaptation with interactional routines (Kanagy, 1999), characteristics of language learning

conversation (Kasper& Kim, 2015) and shared repertoire (Watanabe, 2016). These studies claim that teacher-student talk involves predictable exchanges, particular structures and language learning behaviors as socially- distributed activities (Koole, 2010; Markee& Seo, 2009). Positioning theory (Kayı-Aydar& Miller, 2018) also contributes to this point of view and tries to explain how different roles and behaviors of participants during the talk, which are assigned by themselves or others, determine the social structures in the classroom environment.

These studies mentioned so far provide important insights into the classroom research from a sociocultural perspective and indicate that classroom discourse and interaction in different L2 contexts with different pedagogical goals have corresponding characteristics and particular organizations of interactional resources such as turn-taking, sequence, preference and repair which need to be examined in order to understand language learning process as a social phenomenon occurring in and through talk-in-interaction. Language learners should be able to take part in co-constructing these context-specific organizations and maintain interaction appropriately. In other words, they are expected to develop classroom interactional competence which will be explained in detail in the following section.

2.2. Classroom Interactional Competence

Since Hymes (1972) introduced communicative competence, also the concept of interactional competence has gained importance in language teaching. The term communicative competence is a more holistic and static view unlike the evolving nature of interactional competence. Therefore, in 1990s, the interest started to shift towards micro-moments in interaction and criticisms claimed that communicative competence, which portrays learners as deficient speakers, is not enough to understand active process of development of speakers. As an alternative to this static view of competence, Kramsch (1986) defined the interactional competence (Marian& Balaman, 2018). According to her, interactional competence is required “to give our students a truly emancipating, rather than compensating foreign language education” (p.370). After this first proposal of Kramsch, different works were published with the aim of reconceptualization of the interactional competence. These studies generally explained the concept within sociocultural theory and discursive approaches (Hall, 1995; He& Young, 1998; Young, 2000). In their discourse approach, He and Young (1998) defined five resources that participants bring to the

interactional practices, through which they co-construct interactional competence: *rhetorical scripts, specific lexis and syntactic structures, strategies for managing turns, management of topic and signaling the boundaries* (p. 6).

Young (2003) reconceptualized IC and suggested its components different from the communicative competence: *rhetorical script, the register of the practice, the turn-taking system, management of topics, the participation framework, and means for signaling boundaries and transitions* (p.15). Young (2008) also provided a further definition for interactional competence and regarded it “as a relationship between the participants’ employment of linguistic and interactional resources and the contexts in which they are employed” (p.101). These studies and definitions show how views toward interactional competence have evolved to a more progressive, contextual, co-constructed social phenomena in time.

Interactional competence involves being able to use different linguistic and semiotic systems such as turn-taking, repair, and sequence of talk in order to maintain accurate, fluent, and effective interactions between other parties (Markee, 2008). Markee (2008) provided the components of interactional competence as following (p.406):

- “Language as a formal system,
- semiotic systems,
- gaze and paralinguistic features”.

Language as a formal system involves speakers’ ability to use the language correctly in terms of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. On the other hand, being competent in semiotic systems is applying to turn-taking, sequence and repair organizations of an interactional context appropriately. Finally, gaze and paralinguistic features include multilingual actions of speakers to express themselves by means of multimodal resources.

Walsh (2012) reconsidered interactional competence of speakers within the context of language classrooms and constructed the term classroom interactional competence (CIC), through which learners take active role in constructing discourse and maintaining social interaction while learning a language. In his study, he presented a variable of practices that can be used to improve CIC in classroom for both teachers and learners, and create classrooms which are based on spoken interaction and participation by using conversation analytic methodology.

Researchers interested in L2 interactional competence have conducted studies on learners' practices of their interactional competence (Al-wossabi, 2016), developing L2 interactional competence (Hall, Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Watanabe, 2017), young learners' interactional competence (Cekaite, 2007).

One of the core components of communicative competence described by Hymes (1972) is discourse competence, which is also an important factor in developing interactional competence. Discourse competence is described as:

“an integral ability that one needs in order to make use of one's sociocultural and linguistic competence to select or interpret words, phrases and sentence structures that produce coherent and cohesive segments of language that appropriately communicate an intended meaning to a specific audience” (Murcia& Olshtain, 2005, p.731).

From this point of view, both interactional competence and discourse competence are crucial abilities that learners need to improve with the help of teachers in the process of second language learning. In other words, CIC is a concept that teachers and students need to work on and co-construct collaboratively in interaction, because it is “teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning” (Walsh 2011, p. 153). Both parties are supposed to acquire and improve their interactional competence to construct engaging, effective, motivating classroom and so learning environment.

Seedhouse and Walsh (2010) brought forward the idea of CIC as a compile of features that affect the teaching and learning process in a negative or positive way. These features are: “(a) maximizing interactional space; (b) shaping learner contributions (seeking clarification, scaffolding, modelling, or repairing learner input); (c) effective use of eliciting; (d) instructional idiolect (i.e. a teacher's speech habits); and (e) interactional awareness” (Sert, 2015, p.54). All these features play an important role in making the process more effective in terms of learners and teachers' interactional abilities by creating a comfortable interactional environment, which has a key role in learning a foreign language. Sert (2015) also added four more features to this list based on his studies in the field: management of claims of insufficient knowledge, increased awareness of unwillingness to participate, effective use of gestures and management of code-switching (p.134). To sum up, classroom interactional competence is a combination of different interactional skills while participating in a social action or conversational activity in classrooms. Improving these skills and creating more learning opportunities for students may increase student participation and language use. As a result, CIC level is facilitated. Pedagogic goals should be included in this

process to construct meaningful contexts and maintain intersubjectivity, so teachers need to facilitate learning opportunities in relation to these pedagogical purposes. During the management of classroom interaction, teachers make use of some resources to manifest classroom interactional competence such as multimodal, multilingual and epistemic resources as suggested by Sert (2015). In this context, repair, elicitation and meaning-making sequences based on a specific educational setting can be considered as significant tools to understand and explicate CIC, because these sequences contain suitable interactional space, in which teachers have a chance to shape learner contributions and learners benefit from learning opportunities if they are implemented effectively.

Several studies investigating classroom interactional competence have been carried out on its development over time (Marian& Balaman, 2017; Watanabe, 2017), its displays in turn-taking, sequence, repair and preference organizations (Doehler& Berger, 2015), the importance of shaping learner contributions (Can Daşkın, 2015) and creating space for learning in the third-turn (Girgin& Brandt, 2020). In Watanabe's (2017) analysis of how interactional practices develop over time in a case study, the author found that the learner's interactional competence progressed in terms of turn-taking organizations, use of multilingual resources and making appropriate and coherent contributions. The study also emphasized the importance of interactional routines in classrooms in developing CIC. Doehler and Berger (2015) examined the interactional resources in the development of L2 interactional competence, which is regarded as something adopted during the course. In other words, they provided evidence from each resource and claimed that the development of CIC is a socialization process, where speakers co-construct the interactional architecture in given interactional environment. As an indicator of CIC, shaping learner contributions was analyzed by Can Daşkın (2015) and explicated in a case study. According to the findings, the techniques used by the teacher to shape learner contributions and create learning opportunities were repeating, translating, summarizing, modeling, paraphrasing, extending, clarification requests, confirmation checks and asking elaboration questions. These findings support the idea that repair and elicitation are significant tools for increasing L2 interactional competence. In this sense, it can be concluded that teachers have a key role in learners' development of CIC. Competent teachers in interactions arrange classroom language according to learners' level, maximize interactional space, elicit answers by asking elaboration questions, encourage students to participate and shape their contributions by using the techniques stated above, negotiate meaning, extend learner turns and construct

engaging learning environments with a positive classroom climate (Can Daşkın, 2015; Seedhouse, 2008; Walsh, 2011; Walsh& Li, 2013).The studies presented thus far provide evidence that classroom interactional competence can be demonstrated through a detailed analysis, and a range of features of CIC has an important impact on its development as a socialization process co-constructed by teachers and learners through teachers' talk to create learning opportunities and shape learner contributions and students' attempts to increase their competence.

2.2.1. Teacher Talk

Teacher talk is a fundamental property of classroom discourse and interaction. Several attempts have been made to examine language classrooms from teachers' perspective focusing on different elements of classroom discourse with the aim of improving language teaching. Nonetheless, the term teacher talk should not be considered as a separate phenomenon from students' contributions, rather it needs to be examined together with student participation in a co-constructed classroom interaction. To start with, Walsh (2002) conducted a study in order to investigate the relationship between teacher talk and learner participation. He suggested that teachers' language can affect learner involvement in classroom discourse. Therefore, teachers should improve their use of language in order to increase learner participation and contribution to co-construction of discursive organization. Stanulis and Manning (2002) also mentioned teacher's role in creating positive verbal and nonverbal classroom climate by selecting their universe as very young learners. They dwelt on how social interaction between participants such as teacher and students within the classroom context influence the verbal environment and how nonverbal signs of teacher affect classroom environment. As a conclusion, they stated that teachers have a significant role in creating a positive classroom environment in terms of young learners. Young learners can be more sensitive to teachers' practices of discursive resources while asking questions or giving feedback. It is also suggested in the research that teachers need to make use of children's literature in their lessons in order to learn about learners' experiences.

The role of teacher talk in young learners was examined by İnceçay (2010), in which through conversation analysis, the researcher collected data from 16 Turkish young learners of EFL and 1 teacher via audio-recording. As a result, he identified two categories of teacher language: construction and obstruction. Direct error correction, content feedback,

prompting, extended wait time, repairing is characterized as the sub-categories of construction. On the other hand, turn completion, teacher echo, extended use of initiation-response-feedback turn taking are sub-categories of obstructive teacher talk.

Teachers, taking the position of authority in classroom settings, determine the direction of an activity and manage the interaction by controlling the interactional resources such as turn-taking, sequence and repair based on pedagogical goals. In other words, they “orchestrate the interaction” (Breen, 1998, p.119). According to Walsh (2011), There are four features of classroom discourse used by teachers to maintain the interaction and involve learners in the process of co-construction. These features are *control of the interaction*, *speech modification*, *elicitation techniques* and *repair* (p.4). First of all, because of their position, teachers have a right to control both the topic and patterns of communication. Secondly, teachers need to modify their language so that students can understand the discourse and learning objectives can be fulfilled. Confirmation checks, comprehension questions, repetition, designedly incomplete utterances are all benefited to make sure learners follow the expected path with the teacher. Elicitation is another important strategy used by teachers to get an appropriate answer from the students through mostly question-answer sequences, which gives teachers an opportunity to control the discourse. The last feature mentioned by Walsh is repair, a way of dealing with errors of students. Walsh stated that teachers should arrange their repair techniques by taking the pedagogical goal into consideration. Walsh’s (2011) ideas are very crucial to understand the role of teacher talk in maintaining learning as a social activity.

Some analytical studies have been conducted to show how teachers manage classroom discourse and create learning opportunities for students by applying interactional or planning strategies. Lee (2007) worked on teachers’ third turns in the IRF sequences and demonstrated how they scaffold students while managing the discourse. There are also several studies examining teacher’s turns focusing on specific practices of teachers such as scaffolding and repetition (Kanagy, 1999); teachers’ managing unexpected learner contributions (Fagan, 2012); the role of teacher talk in locating agency in a reading class (Paulson& Theado, 2015); repetition as an instructional resource (Roh& Lee, 2018); reference to the past events in teacher turns to establish shared understanding (Daşkın& Hatipoğlu, 2019). The studies mentioned so far related to teacher turns have a common goal which is to show teachers’ talking practices have an important role in shaping and improving learner participation.

Concordantly, Walsh and Li (2013) exemplified teachers' techniques to shape learner contributions and create space for learning as 'extended learner turns' and 'increased planning time' (p.247). In language learning contexts; learners' competence in participating in interaction, managing turns, maintaining intersubjectivity and controlling discourse as members of a social community is quite significant and needs to be enhanced by teachers. That is why, teachers' ability to control the discourse by their discursive practices affects learners' understanding of discourse, which is one of the factors in developing classroom interactional competence.

As noted by Sert (2015), classroom interactional competence is facilitated by teachers' successful management of scaffolding, shaping learner contributions and elicitation to achieve a pedagogical goal. In other words, teachers create space for learners and enhance learning opportunities through their talk, which improves learners' interactional competence as a result.

2.2.2. Student Participation

Participation is one of the key concepts in social interaction, because interaction itself is about participating into a conversation. The term participation was firstly investigated by Goffman (Evnitskaya& Berger, 2017). According to Goffman, "the term "participant" will be used to refer to anyone engaged in conversation" (Goodwin, 1981, p.3). Goffman categorized participants as speakers and hearers with different types of roles that were addressed to them. Speaker roles are 'the animators' who are speaking at that moment, 'the author' who has an active role in the conversation as developing what has been said with his or her own ideas, and 'the principle' who has relatively less responsibility in conversation. On the other hand, hearers can be 'ratified' who are supposed to be actively involved in conversation, or 'unratified' who can be over-hearers. He also drew a participation framework in which he explained the relationship between the participants (Goodwin, 1999). However, Goffman made very brief definitions of interaction order and did not deal with other factors that can affect an ongoing conversation such as how hearers play role in the process of building context.

As opposed to mundane conversations, classroom interaction highlights the importance of participation due to its unique socially distributed characteristics, one of which is that student participation is highly required so that learning is achieved. Therefore, participation is

regarded as a key factor and an opportunity for learning, which is a socio-cognitive process (Fagan, 2012). That is to say, learners can display their performance and learning in the target language through their involvement in ongoing activities in classrooms, and teacher can improve the learning process based on student participation. Similarly, teachers also need to maximize this participation of learners to create more space for learning. In this regard, the research on student participation deal with issues related to students' displays of participation, how teachers construct participation framework and encourage learner involvement (Bezemer, 2008; Björk-Willen, 2008; Evnitskaya& Berger, 2017; Koole, 2010; Morell, 2007; Schwab, 2011; Sert, 2015; Waring, 2015).

Recent studies in CA have showed that not only linguistic features but also semiotic resources that participants use are significant in order to investigate classroom interaction from a multi-modal perspective, which enhance researcher's understanding of what is going on in the classroom. In terms of learners' displays of participation in activities, Evnitskaya and Berger (2017) worked specifically on the concept which is Willingness to Participate (WTP) in a conversation-analytic study. A clear definition of WTP is provided by them: "WTP is a social, public demonstration of one's interest to engage in an ongoing pedagogical activity" (p.1). WTP can be displayed as hand-rising, body language, self-selected turns and mutual gaze with the teacher. According to them, learners may show WTP for different purposes such as to be selected as next speaker, to attract other parties' attention, and to be included in a participation framework. In the study, WTP in interaction was examined in two different classroom settings: Content and Language Integrated Learning classroom and EFL classroom. Results show that WTP is constituted by different aspects of how learners engage in activities through different displays. Similarly, Preston (2009) examines learners' displays of participation in relation to the second language motivation of learners and how interaction can have a positive impact on L2 motivation. The findings indicate that interaction in the classroom improves L2 motivation with the help of WTP.

Students not only display their willingness to participate, but they also response to teacher explanations and demonstrate their understanding and knowing, known as epistemic access (Koole, 2010). These displays give teachers an opportunity to understand learners' claims and increase student participation, which, in result, enhance the learning process. Students' reactions to pedagogical activities in classroom are significant to make inferences about both their epistemic access and success of a given activity. Bezemer (2008) also conducted a

study on students' multimodal responses to teacher instruction to investigate how students take part in activities and how they deploy linguistic and semiotic resources. However, the case study focused on students' reactions when they are not selected as next speakers analyzing only one new immigrant student in a secondary classroom in England. He stated that nonverbal language used by teacher in the classroom may signify another activity or have specific meaning that can be understood by only students in the classroom, and a new student may have difficulty in adapting this different context.

The other issue that needs to be discussed in terms of student participation is how teachers should promote learners' taking more active roles in interaction. Morell (2007) attempted to describe what enhances students' participation in classroom discourse based on ethnographic research methodology and identified the types of discourse stimulation for enhancing participation such as topic, teacher questioning practices, feedback, classroom climate. As also Young and Miller (2004) contributed on student participation research, participation is an active and complex concept in classroom discourse and all participants change their ways in co-construction of discursive practice and instructional organization according to the situated learning theory. Taken as an active and co-constructed socialization process including both teachers and all the students benefiting from each other, student participation research argues that as learners develop discourse competence, they feel more confident in applying to interactional norms and routines, which increase their active participation and enhances interactional competence, as well. To determine the effects of participation on interactional competence, Cekaite (2007) provided in-depth analysis of a child's development and compared three phases of participating activities. In the late phase, it was found that the student became a competent community member with more initiatives and appropriate, creative contribution. Schwab (2011) also highlighted the importance of students' developing participation roles and discussed the issue from a different perspective. According to him, participation is an active involvement, and this active process impacts the interactional organization of a classroom from a dialogue to multilogue, which gives more opportunities for students to get on the stage and contribute to a more complex interactional structure. Teachers have a key role in creating such an atmosphere that students can take part in these multilogues and develop their language abilities. Björk-Willen (2008) claimed that interactional routines are crucial for especially young learners' participation, and these recognizable sequences in classrooms enable students to become socially competent users of a second language. On the other hand, Waring (2019) emphasized teachers' role in helping

students gain more independence in their own language learning process through negotiation and elicitation techniques and successful scaffolding promotes learners' self-discovery. In other words, teachers should encourage the students to take responsibility and discover the language by pushing them for self-repair, self-evaluation and self-initiated turns, which, eventually, help developing learner autonomy (Reed, 2017).

In brief, student participation is a complex, socially co-constructed phenomenon but also a touchstone for learning a language that is required to be encouraged by teachers. Nonetheless, for an active and effective participation in an interaction, both teachers and students need to improve their interactional competences, because it necessitates complicated and multi-dimensional classroom discursive practices. As Cekaite (2017) exemplified, "learners need to recognize classroom turn-taking procedures, interpret ongoing talk, produce linguistically elaborate and topically relevant contributions, construct topic openings, and select an appropriate place for launching one's turn" (p. 46). Namely, participating itself is not enough for developing one's language skills, but learners also make meaningful and appropriate contributions applying to interactional norms of a given educational setting with the assistance of teachers in order to become competent users of L2.

2.2.2.1. Learner Initiatives

Recent developments in classroom discourse research have led to a renewed interest in self-initiatives that learners take in language classrooms, which is more favored than the other-initiated practices. Learners may take initiatives in different ways such as raising questions or providing comments unexpectedly by showing their WTP and controlling the discourse in their own sense. Learner-centered approaches to language learning find these initiatives quite important especially for classroom interactional competence of participants compared to the IRF sequence which is mostly initiated by teachers.

Waring (2011) worked on learner initiatives and learning opportunities in the language classroom and described three types of learner initiatives. Type A includes initiatives in which learners self-select to initiate a sequence. In Type B, learners give responses voluntarily. Finally, Type C initiatives occur when learners make use of the turns for their own purposes or give extra information rather than conforming to the sequence organization. Waring (2011) also claimed that learner initiatives may be practiced in a variable of ways based on the classroom context, so the elements of a classroom such as activities, topic,

materials, difficulty of discourse and teacher's attitude for initiatives can impact self-initiated behaviors.

Learners' self-selected turns can be the signs of participation framework and classroom atmosphere, because when students feel comfortable in initiating turn during a lesson, their participation increases. Also, this process improves learners' CIC since they are supposed to accomplish required interactional rules such as taking turns, making context-sensitive contributions in self-initiated turns (Cekaite, 2007). Students' initiatives during classroom interaction may have different purposes. For instance, they can prove their epistemic stance by initiating a sequence through interrogatives (Solem, 2016). According to the study, learner initiatives can perform in two different ways: initiatives related to the topic and initiatives related to the procedure. The questions affect the classroom authority, and teacher may need to stamp his/her authority again by emphasizing his or her knowledge about the topic. Similarly, Markee (1995) considered student initiations as factors that students gain more control over the interaction. However, students' actions to control the discourse provide more learning opportunities and diverse sequences, which create the interactional space gained by students themselves. Jacknick (2011) analyzed how students maintain their self-initiated sequences in post-expansions. Post-expansions are basically the third turns in a traditional speech exchange system. The analysis showed that students' interactional practices to initiate a sequence, switch roles with teacher and create a "wigggle room" (Erickson, 2004). This affected the power relations in the classroom and students' autonomy in their own learning.

Garton (2012) investigated learner initiatives in teacher-fronted classroom interaction. The findings showed that learners took initiatives "in Form and Accuracy and in Procedural contexts" for confirmation checks and clarification requests. (p.23). It is also suggested that teachers need to be aware of the importance of classroom interaction to increase learning opportunities. Namely, teachers' practices of handling learner initiatives may increase or hinder the learning opportunities in language classrooms, because during these practices teachers need to encourage more student involvement and fulfill pedagogical goals at the same time. Therefore, managing learner initiatives in classrooms requires some interactional skills for both parties so that ongoing conversation can be maintained in its own way based on the educational context, and also learner agency can be promoted. Based on this, Ziegler, Sert and Durus (2012) conducted a study on students' use of multilingual resources in their

self-initiated turns and teachers' management in the next turns. The study listed three examples of respective teacher next turn management: *modified repetition*, *monolingual reformulation* and *meta-talk about language* (p.187). Multilingual resources are helpful for topic management in an ongoing interaction and improving classroom interactional competence. To facilitate an active student participation and CIC can be ensured through teachers' practices in creating a positive classroom atmosphere, managing learner initiatives, creating space for learners, and shaping learner contributions (Can Daşkın, 2015). Therefore, teachers have a key role in interactional management of learner contributions, especially for student initiatives, because not every initiation promotes ongoing interaction. As Fagan (2012) stated, dealing with student initiatives is so crucial that novice teachers should be trained on this subject. In this sense, İşler, Balaman and Şahin (2019) worked on how learner initiatives are managed by teachers in a Social Studies class. Considered as a significant part of CIC, interactional management of learner initiatives was exemplified in the study. As a result, the resources used by teachers had an important impact on aligning with pedagogical aims and objectives, and facilitating student participation. Overall, there seems to be some evidence to indicate that learner initiatives and how to manage them provide important insights into student participation and classroom interactional competence.

2.3. Young Learners and Classroom Interaction

Teaching English to young learners (TEYL) has gained prominence and been considered as a critical phenomenon in both ESL and EFL settings since the beginning of a long-stance debate on how children acquire a language and whether age is a determinant. Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), first proposed by Penfield and Roberts (1959), focuses on age factor in language learning and claims that learners can acquire a language easily during the period up to the onset of puberty (Ellis, 2015). Since then, many studies have been conducted to investigate CPH by comparing age groups (Johnson& Newport, 1989) or questioning language proficiency of learners after puberty (Lardiere, 2007). Although studies on the importance of age in language learning continue to see the subject from different perspectives since the CPH, TEYL is prioritized by educators so that children get ready for international communication and the globalized world. In other words, there are both pedagogical and political reasons why early age in learning English is emphasized (Rich, 2014). In this section, advantageous characteristics of young learners in language learning

and classroom interaction will be the main issue. The counterarguments on early age research will not be mentioned. To understand young learners and their unique acquisition process, we need to define who are accepted as young learners. According to Pinter (2006), young learners are "... as early as 3 years old all the way up until the age of 13-14" (p.2). As stated above, many experimental studies proved the critical importance of starting to learn a language at an early age to become fully competent, native-like users; however, researchers have been questioning CPH: Is becoming native-like that important? (Birdsong, 2006). In today's globalized world, communicating by using English as a tool to interact with people from other cultures is more important than sounding like native. Therefore, advantages of early age in language learning should also be evaluated based on interactional skills of young learners.

Young learners are different from adult learners in many ways, and their language development have certain characteristics in educational settings. To give an example, as Pinter (2011) suggests that teaching to young learners requires creating a positive and supportive learning environment appropriate for students' cognitive and psychological levels. Young learners' attitudes towards classroom activities can be easily detected and observed in classroom interaction, because their motivation is more unstable compared to the adult learners, which provides an opportunity to build an active, engaging and renewing classroom environment for teachers. Also, at early ages, children are curious about what is going on around them, and they want to discover new things as they are open to new experiences (Uysal& Yavuz, 2015). This makes young learners perfectly suited for learning a new language, which asks for enthusiastic learners eager to explore the language. Children, active participants in classroom, are creative thanks to their imagination. Considering that advanced speakers of a language should be competent in using that language in many ways creatively. One may conclude that children's creativity, energy, self-confidence and imagination skills are characteristics that make them good language learners.

According to Vygotsky (1962), social interaction is the main tool for children in constructing knowledge. He believed that children learn and acquire knowledge within and through interaction with others. Interaction helps learners to improve their language abilities with the help of more proficient users of target language, which is known as scaffolding. Therefore, while analyzing children as language learners, their roles and performance in social interaction should also be taken into consideration. To give an example, what makes a child

a good language learner is questioned by Cekaite (2017) in a longitudinal study with the emphasis on classroom discourse and social interaction. Cekaite suggests that young learners extend their interactional repertoires with more diverse classroom discourse and develop their classroom interactional competence within and through social interaction and discursive practices occurring in classroom. The result of the study shows that the social interaction, in which children participate, have some characteristics consistent with young learners' age-related features and needs such as "spontaneity, collaborative creativity, and playfulness" (Cekaite, 2017, p.46). The fact that one of the biggest problems in language learning is speaking fluently increases the significance of interactional competence of learners starting from the early ages. That's why, examining social actions and interactional practices in a classroom is increasingly recognized as a serious concern in pedagogy so as to make teaching and learning process more effective. In this context, several studies investigating young learners in social environments have been carried out on different focal points: conversational skills and interactions of young learners (Cekaite, 2008; Cowan, 2014; Gardner & Forrester, 2009); speaking difficulties of young learners (Al Hosni, 2014); advantages of bilingual teachers in understanding young learners' difficulties (Copland & Yonetsugi, 2016); pragmatic development of children (Cekaite, 2013);

Interactional environments include their context-shaped norms and practices. Therefore, a learner's language development in social settings needs to be assessed in terms of applying to these interactional norms and routines. The socialization process of children through participation was investigated by Cekaite (2007) in a case study. The study showed that as language skills of a child improved, her participation evolved from a silent student to a competent speaker. Cekaite (2007) also emphasized that repetition and routines help children to get involved in multi-party classroom talk even though they have limited knowledge in the target language, and that influences their interactional competence positively. Likewise, Kanagy (1999) holds the view that repetition and scaffolding are useful tools for children to get part in classroom discourse and socialize by creating interactional routines. Similarly, Björk-Willen (2008) and Watanabe (2016) assert that routines are predictable, and children are fond of routine activities, which increase participation in the organized activities. Besides repetition, language play (Cekaite & Aransson, 2005) and joking (Cekaite & Aransson, 2004) assist children to experience daily and informal conversation and use the language in a more creative way.

Participants' background shapes teaching methods and techniques in classrooms. Teachers construct a learning environment based on their learners' age, level and needs. Especially young learners require a curriculum appropriate for their characteristics as language learners. Consequently, classroom discourse and interaction are also influenced by the learner-based pedagogical focus. As each element of a classroom varies according to the age and language level of the students, interactional practices in classroom discourse with young learners have unique features. To start with, codeswitching in multilingual classrooms with young learners was explored in different contexts. Sert and Aus der Wieschen (2018) observed divergent language choices of participants and reached a conclusion: Although learners insisted on using their native language while the teacher always communicated in the target language, which might have considered as a problem in maintaining intersubjectivity, codeswitching could have benefits in meaning-making processes. However, children can also show their disalignment or challenge teacher's authority by sticking to L1 (Wei& Wu, 2009). Not only the use of multilingual resources, but the exchange formulations of teachers and students differ in teaching English to young learners. Mulyati (2013) conducted a study of teacher and students talks in classroom interaction with the aim of improving speaking skills of young learners. The study emphasizes that developing speaking skills of young learners has a crucial role in language teaching because children learn how to interact in and through interaction with the help of co-constructed contextual learning. The results provided several exchanges used by the teacher as the dominant speaker: "prompting students' knowledge, inviting students to talk, praising or encouraging students, correcting students' talk", (p.5) and by the students: "asking questions, creating talk exchanges, repeating, and answering teacher's or peers' question (p.6)". On the other hand, more divergent formulations can be added to this list through different interactional practices of teachers in classrooms to provide students with interactional space, in which they become more independent users of L2 and develop their interactional competence (Houen et al., 2019). To achieve this, teachers need to make use of epistemic resources such as elicitation, repair, shaping learner contributions, constructing learning opportunities and negotiation.

In TEYL contexts, teaching materials and activity designs have a significant impact on classroom discourse and interactional patterns, because children's characteristics such as creativity, imagination and willingness to be active in social practices in classroom need to be stimulated by these materials and activities like games, songs and stories (Uysal& Yavuz, 2015). Using stories with young learners is an effective technique as stories provide learners

with authentic and contextualized language. According to Butler (2015), the previous studies on young learners showed that all different uses of stories such as storytelling, listening to stories and extensive reading had positive effects on learners' cognitive, affective, and interactional development. In the next chapter, children's literature and its use in classrooms will be discussed.

2.4. Children's Literature

"Children's literature is good quality trade books for children from birth to adolescence, covering topics of relevance and interest to children of those ages, through prose and poetry, fiction and nonfiction" (Lynch-Brown & Tomlinson, 2005, p.3). Using children's literature in language classroom has many advantages for learners' developing language skills by exposing them to authentic language. Palardy (1997) emphasized the positive effects of literature claiming that students "will have the opportunity to develop insights and understandings of the cultures and people of the world; to develop their imagery and visualization abilities; and to gain new perspectives by testing their ideas with those found in books" (p. 67, as cited in Chen, 2006, p.211). Children's literature includes authentic and interesting materials for students, which increases their language awareness and motivation. By exposing to the unmodified, authentic and contextualized language through literary content, students can have a chance to acquire the language more naturally. Also, classroom interaction through discussions can be encouraged by literature, because literary texts for children generally deal with issues that are intrinsically interesting and based on human experiences allowing for different interpretations by readers (Maley, 2001, as cited in Khatip & Rahimi, 2012). Therefore, literature can be utilized as a tool by education practitioners in order to provide learners with input and more opportunities to internalize the target language, deepen their awareness and facilitate classroom interaction through increasing motivation by integrating four language skills from the perspective of Natural Acquisition Theory, in which comprehensible input has a significant role in language acquisition (Ghosn, 2002).

Ghosn (2002) discussed four good reasons to use literature in English Language Teaching (ELT) at primary schools in a detailed way. The first reason suggested is *motivation*. Appropriately selected literary works increase enthusiasm of learners and lead them to take part in activities and classroom talk. Increasing motivation also provides more opportunities

for student participation, negotiation of meaning and receiving feedback, which promote *language learning*. Through developing critical thinking skill thanks to children's literature, learners can improve their *academic literacy* by detecting textual relationships and evaluating ideas. Finally, it is asserted that literature can be used not only for linguistic development but also *as a change agent* for emotional intelligence. Learners change attitudes and gain more awareness of empathy, prejudice, tolerance and global problems through literary texts written for children.

The effects of children's literature have been investigated by many researchers focusing on different aspects and dynamics of language learning and teaching such as corpus based computer-based language learning (Johns, Hsingchin & Wang Lixun, 2008), digital stories and listening comprehension (Verdugo& Belmonte, 2007), teachers' knowledge of children's literature (Cremin, Mottram, Bearne& Goodwin, 2008), reading and writing stories (Chen, 2006), and story-based lessons (Li& Seedhouse, 2010). Even though, they shed light on various components of language learning and teaching process, all these studies meet on a common conclusion, which is that using children's literature has many positive effects on second language acquisition. However, English language teachers may have difficulties in putting it into practice, because literature-based lessons in language classrooms require different processes from standard English lessons. Besides, teachers should arouse interest in children for more effective literature-based lessons and maintain this interest throughout the lessons. Children are supposed to be motivated and enthusiastic so that reading can have a positive impact on their language abilities. Within a similar perspective, Hollindale (1997) defines "children's literature as a body of texts with certain common features of imaginative interest, which is activated as children's literature by a reading event: that of being read by a child" (p.30). In this domain, it is suggested that extensive reading is a successful method to motivate learners in literature and increase their confidence in using the target language (Ro, 2018). On the other hand, there are literature-based teaching models to apply literary texts in classrooms so that teachers can align their practices with a teaching model and formulate them. These models are *language model*, *cultural model* and *personal growth model* (Carter& Long, 1990). The cultural model is the traditional method for teaching literature. It aims at encouraging students to get familiar with other cultures through literary texts. The personal growth model focuses on students' own developments in expressing their ideas and feelings in a close relation to their real-life experiences. The language model is considered best for children, in which literature is used

as a strategy to achieve linguistic goals by teachers. To provide a resource for language teachers using different models, Saraçoğlu (2016) provided practical lesson plans based on children's literature that can be used in English language classrooms. Besides teaching models and lesson plans, some strategies can be used in literature-based lessons to support learners. Firstly, appropriate selection of reading materials is an essential part in preparing lesson plans. Literary works should be chosen according to learners' age, language level and cultural background because familiar topics can attract their attention for reading more enthusiastically. Children are typically willing to share their experiences, so texts should encourage them to participate in classroom interaction and create opportunities for personal expression. Implementing works of children's literature in EFL classrooms requires a systematic process based on children's natural acquisition of a language from decoding to extensive reading (Arnold & Rixon, 2014). That's why, teachers follow the chronological stages of this natural process starting from oral activities towards writing while preparing their lesson plans. Finally, creating a relaxing, non-judgmental, and positive learning environment can help learners lower their anxiety. Literature is a good pedagogical tool for a non-threatening classroom climate, because when children focus on an imaginary world, they become more confident in sharing their feelings. To achieve this, teachers should allow students to make their own sense of the text rather than pre-determined meanings based on the lesson objectives.

The fact that classrooms are unique social environments with their dynamic and context-shaped interactional architecture, lesson plans may not always work exactly as planned and course definitions and practices may differ (Burnett & Fonder-Solano, 2001). Hence, working on the social aspects of using literature in classroom is a significant research area that needs to be emphasized. As Bloome (1985) points out "reading is also a social process" (p.134). During reading activities, students get involved in social relationships with the authors and other participants in the activity. In classrooms, teachers can encourage students to take part in a social group through interaction based on a reading material. Especially whole-class discussions are effective ways of creating such a learning environment so that students can improve their reading and communicative skills together. Literary texts in children's literature have a great potential to initiate an interpretive discussion due to their confrontational and subjective topics. Literary discussions do not only enhance students' comprehension of the text, but they also facilitate classroom interaction. However, according to Thoms (2012) there is still little empirical evidence on this positive effect of literary

discussions. Donato and Brooks (2004) conducted a research study by examining the discourse of a literature-based classroom on the (dis)connection between literary discussions and advanced speaking functions. They concluded that literature-based lessons offer a variety of discourse opportunities, which help students improve their linguistic and interactional abilities by using complex language and thinking critically. In his replication with intermediate learners, Thoms (2012) reached the following conclusion: the discourse structure of literary discussions follows mostly triadic exchange patterns IRE and IRF. Mantero (2006) investigated the discourse in text-centered talk with university students and found out that text-centered talk was mostly in a dialogue level although the instructor had attempts to extend the discourse by coherent classroom talk which needs negotiation. Mantero (2006) also analyzed discourse in literature-based classrooms from a more communicative perspective than text-centered talk and claimed that when students take an active role in dialogues based on a text, they can interact with other readers in coherence with the text through negotiation and interpretation. This view is supported by Leal (2015) with a broader perspective by connecting reading and writing skills of students through critical thinking, discussions and compositions. Another discourse-analytic study on literature-based lessons was conducted by Hong (2018) exploring the role of intertextuality in improving young learners' poetry writing by means of contextualization cues. Considering poetry writing as social practice, the study focused on naturally occurring data in a language classroom and described the classroom discourse and its impacts on students' learning.

In view of all that has been mentioned so far, it might be supposed that children's literature provides a variety of opportunities for discourse and creates space for learners to be active in classroom interaction. As for young learners; among other literary genres, stories are effective resources which are enjoyable and easier to understand for children thanks to their simple language structure and interpretive topics, which promote young learners' linguistic and interactional competence. The next section will cover story-based lessons with young learners in all aspects.

2.4.1. Story-Based Lessons

According to Piaget's theory on cognitive development, children need concrete materials in their learning because they are in the pre-operational stage of intelligence and have difficulty

in abstract thinking (McClelland& Morrison, 2003). Stories are one of those concrete materials that can be used to help young learners improve their language proficiency and understanding of language itself. Short story is a literary genre widely used in language classrooms especially with young learners. Although stories have the same literary elements with novels, they are easier to comprehend focusing on one incident and fewer characters (Saraçoğlu, 2006).

Several studies have revealed the contributions of the story to teaching language (Mart, 2012; Saraçoğlu, 2006; Savvidou, 2004; Winch et al., 2004). First of all, stories are enjoyable and motivating materials that encourage learners' enthusiasm, imagination, creativity and awareness of exploring a new language with its culture and different uses in a variable of meaningful contexts. They provide learners with authentic language and a variety of topics extending their cognitive, emotional and behavioral horizons. According to Slatterly and Willis (2001), through stories as effective literary texts in TEYL, students can develop their four main skills. Winch et al. (2004) also stated that literary texts in language teaching "provide a wonderful opportunity for children to see language in action" (p.402). As Saraçoğlu stated in her book, it "contributes to the learners' improvement in four skills as well as their critical thinking abilities" and also "develops their intercultural communicative competence" (2016, p.4). To clarify, exposing students to authentic language improve their linguistic competence, reading and writing skills, also classroom discussions can be stimulated by interesting and familiar topics for children, which is a significant opportunity in developing interactional abilities of language learners. Students become more motivated to say something thanks to stories, because students do not just answer teacher's questions or make grammatically correct sentences based on a specific linguistic goal, instead, they take part in a natural communication while being engaged in working on an interesting story in a supportive learning environment.

Classroom discourse and interaction in a language lesson are affected by situational factors (Huang, 2011). There are many different kinds of these factors, one of which is the content of the lesson. Story, one of the genres of children's literature, are frequently preferred as a material for classroom activities. The fact that stories are interpretive materials may result in different learning opportunities for each student (Hellerman& Doehler, 2010). Therefore, utilizing from stories in language classrooms can have a variable of learning potentials if applied properly. Selection of stories is an initial step based on a pedagogical goal, because

different stories have different contents aimed at improving learners' linguistic, psychological, social and cultural skills. For this reason, stories are not just a learning material, but instead they have a significant impact on learners' language and social development in a holistic view (Wright, 2003). Taking young learner's unique needs into consideration, teachers pay more attention to selecting the appropriate stories for young learners to achieve their goals and objectives. There are many criteria for the selection of stories based on children's age, language proficiency, cognitive development, social and cultural background. Smallwood (1988) advised that stories need to have "age-appropriate theme, simple language, limited use of metaphor and unfamiliar experiences, use of rhyme, unambiguous plot, realistic but simple dialogue, potential for reading aloud, brevity, and good illustrations" (p.66, as cited in Mart, 2012, p.102). On the other hand, practice is as important as preparing the material. Considering the criteria stated above, lessons should be designed according to learners' age-specific needs. Young learners' linguistic and cognitive levels require a process similar to that of acquisition of the first language. In the process of the mother tongue, children naturally learn to take place in an interaction orally, so their listening and speaking skills develop in the first phase. Reading and writing abilities, on the other hand, do not come up until the school age. This is also recognized in the case of stories. Children begin to be exposed to literature through stories by hearing their parents' story-telling practices. Afterwards, they experience more advanced reading activities themselves including extensive reading and writing. According to the experimental studies of Book Flood Approach, literature can help students perform better in all four skills of the target language (Elley, 2000).

Teachers may also organize a lesson completely based on a story, which is a very effective way for using stories in language teaching. These lessons are called as story-based lessons. In the story-based approach, which is similar to Shared Reading Approach (Holdaway, 1979) and Book Flood Approach (Elley, 2000), there are mainly three stages: pre-story stage, in-story stage, post-story stage (Li & Seedhouse, 2010, p.290). In the pre-story stage, teachers provide students with necessary background knowledge and target vocabulary. The in-story stage includes story-telling procedures. Lastly, the post-story stage consists of follow-up activities based on the story read in the classroom.

Very little qualitative research has been conducted to examine story-based lessons. Li and Seedhouse (2010) compared story-based and standard lessons in terms of classroom

interaction and described different types of story-telling. The findings of the study revealed that story-based lessons have more varied interactional sequences, turn-taking systems and learner initiations than the standard lessons. Adopting this approach in language classrooms has great advantages, however, teachers can strengthen their lesson plans by some strategies. To be able to improve students' language abilities in a holistic view, teaching practices should equally focus on different skills. Familiar topics and encouraging students to exchange their ideas and negotiate can enhance classroom interaction. Therefore, teachers should stimulate discussions on the story, which improve students' both linguistic and interactional skills. In a similar vein, Winch et al. (2004) claim that "guided discussion promotes many literate oracy behaviors: it improves vocabulary, offers opportunities for more sophisticated sentence constructions and syntax, and lets the children hear the sounds of words as their peers say them" (p.401). In a story reading, process, two different approaches can be adopted: reading within a text and reading upon a text. The former deals with reading comprehension and development of grammar, on the other hand, the latter one aims at eliciting different interpretations by students (Scholes, 2002, as cited in Saraçoğlu, 2006). If both approaches are applied during the story-based lessons, language development of learners can be advanced. Especially with young learners, drama activities may be effective to deepen students' comprehension (Adomat, 2012). Problem-solving activities can also be included in the story-based lessons to encourage discussions. Gosen, Berenst and Glopper (2015) examined problem-solving practices during shared reading with kindergarten students. The study found out that shared reading gives teachers and students opportunities to discuss the problems of characters and find possible solutions, which stimulate exchanging the ideas and argumentative interactions, affected by the context of shared reading. This practice is expected to increase students' empathy for the others and understand the real-life experiences in a social environment; as well.

As many other factors in language classrooms, stories impact the nature of classroom discourse and interaction, so story-based lessons have unique features and interactional architecture. Even different stories may have different observable effects. Adopting a sociocultural approach, the current study attempts to describe classroom discourse and interaction of story-based lessons with young learners, dealing with discursive resources such as sequence organization, turn-taking- repair, participation framework and teacher talk by analyzing contents of the stories and data collected from the lessons through audio-recordings.

2.5. Conclusion

In this chapter, the literature on the previous studies comprising a basis for this dissertation have been reviewed. Firstly, classroom discourse and interaction have been explained beginning from the very early studies in the field adopting different approaches such as Ethnographic Research, Discourse Analysis and Conversation Analysis. Theoretical roots of discourse and main resources of interaction including sequence organization, turn-taking, repair and preference organization have been represented to understand the relationship between classroom discourse and interaction. In the second section, Classroom Interactional Competence has been scrutinized by putting the main emphasis on teacher talk and student participation. The development of CIC has been discussed through its different characteristics. Learners Initiatives has also been included as a significant factor in increasing CIC. Next, young learners as one of the focal points of the current study has been dwelt on so as to describe the participants. In this section, the unique features of young learners and their discursive practices in classroom interaction have been provided through significant research studies. In the following section, Children's Literature and its use in language classrooms have been viewed in relation to their influence on the nature of classroom interaction. Finally, story-based lessons in EFL contexts, which have laid ground for this thesis, have been examined by referring to few studies conducted before. The next chapter will clarify the methodology part of the current study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

This study follows a Discourse Analytic (DA) research design deriving from conversation analysis methodology. It examines micro-moments in a classroom in order to describe discursive resources used in story-based classroom discourse. According to Fasold (1990), “the study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use” (p.65, as cited in Alba-Juez, 2009, p.9). According to Li and Walsh (2011), DA deals with the spoken or written texts focusing on the aspects of language use such as words, phrases and utterances above the sentence level. How speakers organize discourse and take part in discursive practices is the main inquiry in DA to achieve communicative goals specific to context from a broader perspective than Conversation Analysis (CA).

Sacks (1992) claims that “whatever humans do can be examined to discover some way they do it and that way will be stable describable (p. 22, as cited in Preston, 2009, p.71). With the development of CA, special institutional contexts which form classroom discourse started to be examined in a more structured way (Goodwin& Heritage, 1990). CA basically seeks to document social interaction by focusing on participants’ perceptions, which consequently indicates that CA has an emic perspective (Sert& Walsh, 2013). Emic perspective in CA means that analysis is conducted to determine “the local context of talk-in interaction” (Markee& Kasper, 2004, p.493) from the perspective of participants. In classroom contexts, CA naturally builds a bridge between pedagogy and interaction and explicates how learning is co-constructed in and through interaction (Seedhouse, 2005). Therefore, CA contributes to the field as not just a method for analysis of talk, but it also helps researchers understand the role of interaction in learning, which is a social process. As Sidnell (2010) also states,

CA is used to “describe, analyze, and understand talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life” (p.1). Due to the fact that cognition is considered as a socially distributed phenomena in Sociocultural Theory, CA enables us to explicate learning process from this point of view. It also aims to provide experiences of people at a specific moment they are being examined, which can be attributed to *situatedness* concept in CA. That’s why, in CA, researchers do not make any conclusions before the data collection procedure through background knowledge about the participants. Language is seen as something occurring in a specific moment. Examining these micro moments in classroom enables researchers to have evidence to draw conclusions and implications in the field; therefore, ethnographic research methodology is adapted to be able to gain a deeper understanding of how individuals perceive and take part in their own specific social contexts (Harklau, 2005). Ethnomethodology refers to “the study of a particular subject matter: the body of common-sense knowledge and the range of procedures and considerations by means of which ordinary members of society make sense of, find their way, and act on the circumstances in which they find themselves” (Heritage, 1984b, p.4, as cited in Seedhouse, 2004, p.4).

In this study, micro-moments in a classroom were examined via audio-recordings to describe general features of story-based classroom discourse in the context of young learners drawing upon discursive practices applied in the classroom. In a broader perspective, the discourse of these lessons was defined by building collections in recurrent occurrences in classroom interaction. Within this vein, the interactional resources such as sequence organization, turn-taking design and repair organization were explicated. Also, content analysis of the stories read by the students was used in the process of discourse analysis in order to have a holistic point of view. Through the close analysis of the data collected, the research questions of the thesis were attempted to be answered. The research questions of the study are as follows:

RQ1: What are the general features of story-based lessons within the PYP curriculum framework?

RQ2: How do discursive practices performed by teachers and students construct story-based classroom discourse and interaction?

RQ3: What are the interactional accomplishments of the practices?

RQ4: Does classroom interaction differ in the stages of story-based lessons?

RQ5: How do contents of stories affect classroom interaction?

3.2. Context

The National Education System in Turkey includes state and private schools at every stage of education. While state schools are supported financially by the government, and students do not make any payment, private schools are founded by the individuals or companies. According to the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) statistics in 2019, there are 54.036 state schools and 12.809 private schools. State schools have 15.088.592 students, and private schools have 1.440.577 students in total.

Although the private schools follow the regularities of MoNE officially, there are significant differences between the state schools and the private ones in terms of lesson hours and curriculum. In the private schools, students take at least 8 classes a day in order to appeal to the parents who work. As for the school curriculum, private schools generally prepare their own curriculum with a variable of lesson options and syllabi compared to the state schools. Another reason for parents preferring the private schools is their English language education. The private schools tend to put an emphasis on English courses and provide a wide range of opportunities to qualify the English language education such as small class sizes, varied materials and the number of lessons per week . The data for this study was collected from a private school in Turkey. The school is an IB school applying Primary Years Programme in the kindergarten. The story-based lessons were recorded in a kindergarten classroom with 6-year-old very young learners of English. The curriculum framework will be explained in detail in the next section to highlight the research context.

3.2.1. The IB Primary Years Programme

The International Baccalaureate (IB) is a recently developed curriculum framework, which has inquiry-based, constructivist and transdisciplinary understanding of learning. This study was conducted in an IB school. This programme needs to be defined clearly in order to understand the context of the research. The IB encourages a student-centered approach, therefore its main principle is to develop autonomous, self-efficient and internationally-minded learners. The IB learner profile includes a wide range of skills and responsibilities on academic and beyond academic success. These skills are listed by the IB Organization (2013):

- inquirers
- knowledgeable
- thinkers
- communicators
- principled
- open-minded
- caring
- risk-takers
- balanced
- reflective.

All these human capacities are emphasized in the learner profile and the curriculum framework is designed to enhance these features. The Programme basically aims at creating a whole development of students as efficient human-beings in all aspects. Learner autonomy is one of the most significant requirements of the curriculum and students are encouraged to be the agents of their own learning and are aware of self-efficacy. Due to the fact that it is an inquiry-based curriculum, learners' critical thinking and questioning skills are highly supported in the IB schools. Students are exposed to a learning environment, in which they are supposed to inquire, make assumptions, consider international contexts, and develop conceptual understanding.

The IB has a world-wide network, and the schools adopting this curriculum framework share their experiences with one another to improve the implementation of the Programme. In other words, it offers a collaborative learning community. Also, the outcomes of the studies conducted in the IB schools are published in the official website, and seminars for teachers from all over the world are arranged for sharing experiences and teachers' professional self-development.

The IB provides a whole development for students aged differently within a continuum through the following programmes: *Primary Years Programme (PYP)*, *Middle Years Programme (MYP)*, *Diploma Programme (DP)* and *Career-related Programme (CP)*. PYP is designed for students aged 3-12, so the participants of the current study belong to this programme. Similar to the other programmes in the IB, the PYP provides a curriculum framework, which focuses on inquiry, transdisciplinary themes, conceptual understanding and professional development. There are five essential elements of PYP curriculum. These

are: *Knowledge, Concepts, Skills, Attitudes, and Action* (McGuinness, Swartz & Sproule, 2016, pp. 5-6). *Knowledge* is the main content that students are expected to explore. *Concepts* are powerful ideas related to the knowledge, which help students develop an understanding. *Skills* are the abilities that students are supposed to achieve and perform. *Attitudes* are crucial parts of the programme to be able to help students become caring and open-minded learners. Basic values and beliefs, which need to be learned by students to be efficient member of a community, are emphasized. Lastly, *action* is how students put what they have learned into practice, and it is the most crucial part for the whole learning community to observe the acquirements of students throughout the theme. In this part, students are expected to take an action that has an enlightening impact on both their own lives and their environment. Based on the social constructivist learning theories, building a community, and collaboration are important parts of the programme, therefore it prioritizes social relationships and communication. Through inquiry, reflections and taking initiatives in the learning process, students have also the opportunity for being agents for their own learning and having strong sense of self-efficacy. The central aim of the framework is to create a learning profile which makes a difference in students' own lives and in the social community they belong to and maybe beyond. In this sense, the framework highlights three pillars of schools: *the learner, learning and teaching, the learning community*. One of the most distinctive features of IB Primary Years Programme is having the six transdisciplinary themes. The lesson plans and classroom activities are prepared based on these themes, and they aim at developing the whole child according to the IB learner profile not only at school but also in the real world outside. The transdisciplinary themes are *Sharing the planet, Who we are, How we express ourselves, How we organize ourselves, How the world works*. According to the IB Organization (2012), "these themes provide IB World Schools with the opportunity to incorporate local and global issues into the curriculum and effectively allow students to "step up" beyond the confines of learning within subject areas" (p. 2). That is to say, the themes are designed to encourage learners to become inquirers and investigators about themselves and the world around them. The lessons in the IB schools follow the main principles of these themes. However, these themes are more flexible in kindergarten due to the age of the students. The programme can be applied in six different subject areas including *Language, Social Studies, Mathematics, Arts, Science, Physical, Social and Personal Education*.



Figure 1. The PYP framework. International Baccalaureate Organization, 2012. Retrieved from https://www.ibo.org/globalassets/publications/become-an-ib-school/ibpyp_en.pdf

The IB Organization has a research department working collaboratively with universities and research institutions in different countries. The research department conduct a wide range of studies investigating the outcomes of the IB programmes (Ateşkan et al., 2015; Boal& Nakamoto, 2020; Dix& Sniedze-Gregory, 2020; Kushner et al., 2015; Lau, Kitsantas& Miller, 2015; Medwell, Cooker, Bailey& Winchip, 2017; Morrissey et al., 2014; Sharpley, Vander Pal& Griffiths, 2014). The studies demonstrated a variety of advantages of the framework consistently with its principles. In terms of academic success, Kushner et al. (2015) claimed that students from the IB schools performed better than those from the non-IB schools. Morissey et al. (2014) shared the outcomes of the programme and reached the following results: it is an inquiry based, reflective and play-based curriculum, which encourages collaborative group-work, student initiatives and creates a positive learning environment, in which students can also learn about the natural world. Several studies attempted to focus on learners' critical thinking skills and concluded that the Programme supported students' both thinking skills and international mindedness (Medwell et al., 2017; Swartz& McGuinness, 2014a; 2014b). Boal and Nakamoto (2020) examined the school climate and results showed that the outcomes of the school climate improved. Lau, Kitsantas and Miller (2015) analyzed one of the fundamental requirements of the framework self-efficacy. The study claimed that The IB encourages self-regulatory development and self-initiated learning. In Turkey, only a few studies were conducted related to the IB curriculum

focusing on different perspectives such as DP (Ateşkan, 2015), the relationship between effective school qualities and school culture (Akdoğan, 2021) and teacher experiences on the transdisciplinary integrated curriculum (Gürkan, 2021). On the other hand, Humprey, Chen and McNaught (2015) emphasized the social aspects of the programme underlying the importance of developing a common metalanguage within a social-constructivist approach to language learning.

The present study was conducted in an IB school which follows the principles of PYP curriculum framework. The kindergarten classrooms were analyzed in terms of classroom discourse and interaction in the study. In this context, lesson plans are prepared in a learner-centered, theme-based, and action-based understanding. Within the frame of five essential elements of the programme, which are knowledge, concepts, skills, attitudes and action; interdisciplinary themes are integrated into the lessons to create inquirer, knowledgeable, thinker, communicator, principled, open-minded, caring, risk-takers, balanced and reflective learners, who are mindful to local and international issues. In the kindergarten classrooms, stories are highly valued in the lesson plans to emphasize the central themes. During the lessons analyzed for the study, the theme was *Where we are in place and time*. Therefore, the lesson plan and the stories selected were designed in accordance with this theme.

3.3. Participants

Participants of the study are very young learners at the age of 6, who are kindergarten students. Young learners are “children studying English from as early as 3 years old all the way up until the age 13-14” (Pinter, 2006, p.2, as cited in Rich, 2014, p.2). The study deals with two kindergarten classrooms with 2 different teachers and 24 students in total. English language is the medium of communication in lessons. Therefore, students’ speaking skills are more advanced than their peers in the state schools. The participants were required to speak and communicate in English to be able to talk with their teacher in the English lessons. However, teachers may have to accept the answers in students’ target language to maintain conversation due to their early age. Because of the fact that kindergarten students are not able to read or write, the classroom activities are based on speaking and listening skills.

Young learners were preferred for the study because of the main characteristics that younger students have in teaching and learning processes. Young learners have their own speed of learning, and they can adapt to new learning environments easily (Pinter, 2017). In

consequence of these characteristic features, their reactions to different stories or activities in the classroom are expected to be observable during the classroom interaction.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

The present study's main purpose is to analyze the classroom discourse and interaction within the story-based lessons from an emic perspective. As stated by Alba Juez (2009), in order to examine classroom discourse, researchers need to deal with texts, in other words, the corpus of the study, which generally includes the transcriptions of the recorded data collected from the classrooms to describe specific micro moments of classroom social interaction. In this domain, the current study aims at capturing moment by moment details of the classroom discourse and interaction through naturally occurring data in story-based lessons with young learners in a foreign language classroom at an IB school.

To achieve this aim, 16 story-based lesson hours of two different kindergarten classrooms were examined through audio-recording. The lesson plan prepared by language teachers was based on the PYP curriculum framework and the researcher analyzed its practices in the classroom interaction through the recordings and field notes. The stories regarding their content were utilized as a data collection instrument to analyze their effects on classroom interaction and their appropriateness for the central theme of the plan.

3.5. Data Analysis

The study follows a discourse-analytic perspective drawing upon conversation analysis methodology. CA of institutional talk attempts to examine the practices of conversation with the purpose of revealing how participants orient to discursive resources specific to an institution such as classrooms (Kasper & Wagner, 2014). Seedhouse (2004) described the principles of conversation analysis with four steps: organizations of talk, context, detailed analysis of transcriptions and data-driven analysis without any presumptions. In this sense, the researcher analyzed the transcriptions of audio-recording data collected from the classrooms from the perspective of descriptive study approach (Roh & Lee, 2018). CA was used as a research methodology (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974) to examine the dataset collected via audio-recordings to reveal how discursive practices in story-based lessons within the PYP curriculum were co-constructed in and through interaction, and also to

understand the context thoroughly. This study is a qualitative research dealing with only two classrooms, because the number of the participants is not significant in CA studies. As Sert and Walsh (2013) claim “CA enables researchers to draw detailed and focused conclusions on a given interaction, and the number of participants is not a concern since the main aim is to describe the actions achieved by any limited number of the participants in a multi-party talk” (p. 547).

During the analysis, a line-by-line sequential analysis of the dataset was implemented through the transcriptions, which are orthographic representations of audial or audio-visual data in CA methodology (Sert, 2013c). The interactional practices were examined in a moment-by-moment base to be able to describe the classroom discourse. Although capturing conversation is easily applicable, investigating human talk is a complex phenomenon, so its analysis requires a detailed approach and a sequential process. CA methodology has chronological steps to analyze naturalistic data building a relationship between practice and pedagogy. Drawing upon different processes presented by CA researchers (Hoey& Kendrick, 2017; Hutchby& Wootfitt, 1998; Liddicoat, 2007; Seedhouse, 2005; Sert, 2015), the study applied the following steps in the micro-analysis of the dataset.

1. *Preparation*: At this stage, required admissions were taken from the school, where the data were collected from. Technical issues were handled such as equipment and positioning of the recorder. With a detailed fieldwork, the details about the context such as lesson plans, materials, teaching techniques were obtained. Through audio-recordings of 16 lessons, the data were collected.
2. *Orthographic transcription*: The audio-recordings were transcribed orthographically in the first phase for the next step.
3. *Unmotivated looking*: To get familiar with the data, the recordings were listened repeatedly and every micro detail that was considered significant was written down. This process is called unmotivated looking (Mori, 2002), which is a useful technique to notice significant moments in practice.
4. *Transcription*: For transcription, Jefferson Transcription Convention System (2004) (see Appendix 1) was applied because the data was only audio-recorded.
5. *The Phenomena*: After examining the data through the detailed transcription, the phenomena were described to understand why that discursive practice occurred in that

specific moment during the examination of interactional resources such as sequence, turn-taking and repair.

6. *The collection of cases*: At this step, the recurrence of phenomena was examined in relation to the same context to establish regularities and patterns. Next, the context-specific recurrent phenomena such as social actions, sequential actions, interactional resources were put in the same collection of cases. The cases were also analyzed to check whether they were deviant cases to demonstrate normativity or not.

7. *Extracts*: With the aim of describing the classroom discourse of story-based lessons, the best extracts to represent the discursive practices and types of interactional organization were selected from the dataset.

8. *The analysis*: Through line-by-line micro analysis of the representative extracts, unique discursive practices to the story-based lessons with young learners in an IB context were described by examining ritualistic interactional actions and contextualization cues. Later, the discursive practices were categorized according to the interactional resources such as sequence organization, turn-taking and repair. Then, whether there were specific practices based on the stages of the reading lessons and the content of the stories were also discussed.

9. *Discussion*: In the post-analysis, the broader perspective of the classroom discourse and interaction were attempted to be drawn through exogenous theories and impacts including teacher talk, student participation and classroom interactional competence.

3.6. Validity of the Study

Validity refers to “the appropriateness, correctness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect” (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2003, p.148). There are three types of validity suggested by Bryman (2001). These are internal validity, external validity and ecological validity. Internal validity deals with the credibility of the research findings. In other words, for valid studies, researchers need to have consistent results with the research questions. External validity is about the generalizability of the findings in other contexts. Lastly, ecological validity is related to the generalizability of the findings in real-world settings. However, quantitative and qualitative research designs have different paradigms, so some other components were proposed to answer validity in qualitative studies. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested the term trustworthiness for

qualitative research and four other components: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Credibility accounts for the internal validity and focuses on whether the research methodology is able to measure what is supposed to be examined. Transferability is the external validity and the generalizability of the findings to other contexts. Dependability, on the other hand, is how consistent and reliable of the results are. Finally, confirmability is the objectivity of the data collection and analysis process. In order to increase validity, some techniques were suggested by Dörnyei (2007): respondent feedback, peer checking, triangulation and longitudinal research design. In this study, CA was applied to analyze the data to describe the discursive practices, and only the details of interaction and field notes explaining the classroom context were used to have an emic perspective to increase the internal validity. In CA methodology, researchers do not take background knowledge about the participants or exogenous theories into account during the analysis of the interaction. For the triangulation of the study, different data collection tools were used such as audio-recordings, and field notes including stories and lesson plans. The current study has a discourse-analytic view. Therefore, both spoken and written data were analyzed. Finally, the data set was also analyzed by a colleague to check the findings so that more objective and consistent data analysis would be conducted. In the next section, the other issue for the trustworthiness of the study, which is reliability will be explained.

3.7. Reliability of the Study

Reliability is “the consistency of the scores obtained” (Fraenkel& Wallen, 2012, p.148). The CA research design includes collecting, transcribing and analyzing the naturally occurring data processes, which increase the reliability of the study (Balaman, 2016). The fact that data is recorded via technological tools, any researcher can obtain the same data guarantees the consistency of the findings and makes the studies replicable. However, there are also crucial points in terms of reliability in CA studies. Perakyla (1996) listed three factors: “the selection of what is recorded, the technical quality of recordings and the adequacy of transcripts” (p.208, as cited in Hoey& Kendrick, 2017, p. Seedhouse, 2005, p.179). Considering these factors, 16 hours of story-based lessons were recorded in two different classrooms with two different teachers. As for the technical value, two high quality recorders were placed separately in the classrooms. The data obtained via these recorders was transcribed based on Jefferson Convention System. The researcher was familiar with the system thanks to the CA

courses that she took, and in-service teaching program supported by Video Enhanced Observation (VEO) application in her BA degree, and data sessions organized by HUMAN research center. The transcriptions were also evaluated by a CA expert. The next section will conclude the chapter.

3.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, methodological issues were explained in a detailed way to identify the research context. The first section enlightened the research design and the research questions. Next, the context of the study was defined to clarify the environmental and pedagogical factors affecting the classroom discourse and interaction. The school where the data was collected from was an IB school applying PYP curriculum framework. Thus, the curriculum design was described elaborately. In the following section, participants were mentioned, and young learners of English were identified. Data collection instruments and data analysis process were also clarified comprehensively including the sequential steps of the analysis procedure. Finally, the trustworthiness of the current study was unveiled by discussing the reliability and validity issues. In the next chapter, the findings of the study will be represented.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the data analysis and findings will be presented. Firstly, general lesson design based on the PYP curriculum will be dwelt on to understand the context of the study. Secondly, the stories read in the classroom will be examined in detail so that the effects of the content on the classroom interaction can be clarified. In the following section, the interactional resources including sequence organization, turn taking and repair will be described through representative extracts from the data set to analyze the discourse. The context-specific factors that impact classroom interaction will also be highlighted during the analysis. The possible changes in interaction based on the different parts of the reading lessons will be investigated by analyzing the interactional organizations in pre-story, in-story and post-story stages separately. In this regard, the study aims at exemplifying unique discursive practices of the story-based lessons with young learners.

4.1. General Lesson Design

The lessons analyzed for the study are designed based on the PYP curriculum. The lesson plans are prepared by the teachers every month in accordance with the transdisciplinary theme. The items of the curriculum such as central idea, concepts, learner profile attributes and learning goals are included in each lesson plan as following:

- *Age:* 6
- *Timeline:* The lessons have discrete beginnings and endings along with continued investigation in parallel with other disciplines and revising as many as it takes.

- *Transdisciplinary theme:* The theme is *Where we are in place and time*. It requires an inquiry for time and place, personal history, houses, travels, inventions, discoveries of people, moving a house and the relations between people.
- *Central idea:* People's lives change as time goes by.
- *Lines of inquiry:* The inquiry consists of three steps so that students can be provided with appropriate input for investigating.
 1. The objects of old people (image)
 2. The lives of old people (change)
 3. Our lives today (connection)
- *Key concepts:* Image, change and connection are the concepts of the theme.
- *Related concepts:* Relationships and collaboration are the supporting concepts.
- *Learner profile attributes:* The lesson plan attributes to four of the learner profiles in the PYP curriculum. These are thinkers, communicators, inquirers and open-minded learners. In these lessons; students take actions for complicated problems, information and activities by using their creative thinking skills as thinkers. They express themselves, their routines and favorite objects in both languages in different ways confidently, they also listen to different viewpoints of their friends carefully as communicators. As inquirers, they are curious about the nature of learning, people and experiences. As open-minded and creative individuals, they use their imagination while thinking and investigating during the activities.
- *Approaches to learning:* The plan encourages learners' thinking and communication skills. Students are expected to use their creative thinking abilities to produce genuine ideas and interpret others' points of views. They also listen to and interpret others' ideas, and they share what they think with their friends and teachers by using their interactional competence.
- *Learning goals:*
 1. Students will be able to recognize the objects they see.
 2. Students will be able to make predictions about the objects they are not familiar with.
 3. Students will be able to recognize the similarities between different rooms by comparing their own rooms with the one presented in one of the stories.
 4. Students will be able to understand the short, simple instructions of the daily routines.

- *Activities:* Teachers design the activities based on the selected stories contributing to the main theme of the plan. Each story has content-based activities for pre-story, in-story and post-story parts of the lessons. Within the theme, three stories were worked on in the classrooms. The stories are *Clean Up*, *Clean Up!*, *Giant Joe*, and *Moving House*.
 1. *Clean Up, Clean Up!:* In the pre-story part of the story, students look at the front cover of the story and try to guess where the boy is. Next, students predict the title of the story by describing the picture on the cover. Students share their predictions with others. In the in-story part, teachers read the story aloud by using story-telling techniques for children. After reading the story, students draw two pictures on a piece of paper divided into two by a line. On the right side, students draw a picture of their own rooms, and on the other side, they draw a picture of their mothers or fathers' childhood rooms by imagining the past. When the drawing is done, students describe their works.
 2. *Giant Joe:* This story is used as an audio-visual activity. In the pre-story part, students look at the pictures of the story in their coursebooks and guess the title and what will happen in the story. As for the in-story, firstly students listen to the story, then they watch it. The post-story activity is designed as a role-play. Students act out the main character of the story by telling his lines .
 3. *Moving House:* The pre-story activity of this story is guessing the title and the plot. In this part, teachers expose the students to the target vocabulary. Then, teachers read the story aloud by changing their voices for each character. In the post-story part, students are asked to make their favorite scene from the story with their play doughs.

The story-based lessons in the story consist of three main parts: pre-story, in-story and post-story. At the first step, the teachers warm the students up for a reading activity and prepare them by presenting the target structures prior to reading the story. Since students are kindergartners, they are not able to read or write yet. Therefore, reading lessons are mostly based on listening and speaking activities. In the while-reading part, the students choose the circle seating arrangement in the classroom to encourage students to participate in classroom interaction during the storytelling. After that, the teachers read the story aloud by using the

interactive story-telling techniques such as changing their voices, using body language, asking open-ended questions (Glassner, 2017). However, stories are not always literally read, instead students listen to the story while looking at the pictures or watch it on the smartboard. After reading the story, teachers encourage the students to share their ideas about the story and their own related experiences with each other by using the target vocabulary. Before moving on to the final part of the lesson, teachers also make an ongoing assessment through comprehension questions. The post reading parts come to an end with a production. At the end of the story-based lessons, students are expected to produce something about the story through drawing, acting or creating something with play dough. All the activities designed for the story-based lessons aim at increasing students' comprehension about the stories, developing their linguistic competence and supporting the main theme of the lesson plan. Hence, the stories are selected appropriately in terms of content and level so that they can accomplish the objectives of the theme by means of the reading activities. The stories used in the lessons analyzed for the study will be reviewed in the next section to be able to understand the background factors affecting the classroom discourse and interaction.

4.2. The Stories

There are three stories selected by the teachers in parallel with the transdisciplinary theme of the lesson plan, *Where we are in place and time: Clean Up, Clean Up!, Giant Joe* and *Moving House*. While *Clean Up, Clean Up!* And *Moving House* are printed story books written for very young learners of English, the story of *Giant Joe* is an audio story in students' course book, *Mimi's Wheel*. The printed books, on the other hand, are also displayed on the smartboard for the students, because visualization is significant for the very young learners, who are unable to read or write. Through visual or audial materials, the students are provided with comprehensible input to understand a story in L2.

1. CLEAN UP CLEAN UP! :

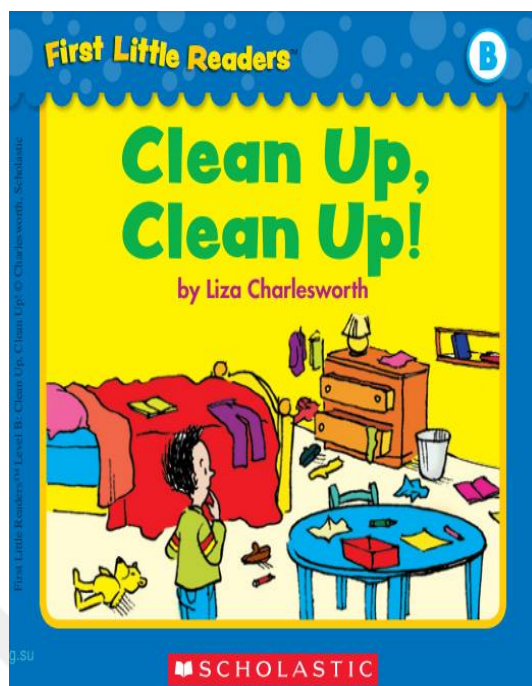


Figure 2. The cover of the story, *Clean Up, Clean Up!*. The Scholastic Teaching Resource, 2010. Retrieved from <https://www.amazon.com/First-Little-Readers-Clean-Level-ebook/dp/B00EV4DO7C?asin=B00EV4DO7C&revisionId=&format=2&depth=1>.

It was written by Liza Charlesworth and illustrated by Anne Kennedy in 2010. The Scholastic Teaching Resources published the book within the B level stories of the *First Little Readers* series. The book is written and designed especially for very young learners. It has 8 pages in total, which consists of a big picture of the scene covering almost the whole page and one or two very simple sentences describing the picture at the bottom. The sentences are very easy to understand for children in a basic subject-verb-object structure. The title of the story is repeated in every page except for the last one, and most of the sentences are repetitive and predictable starting with ‘*I put...*’ pattern. However, different house objects are presented on each page and illustrated through the pictures. The repeated phrases and patterns make it easier for the students to remember the story and new vocabulary. It also helps them to include the sentences in the story into their speech in classroom interaction.

The story is about a boy who is cleaning up his room by putting the objects where they belong to. He tidies his messy room up at the end of the story. Its content is appropriate for the students to recognize the vocabulary of the house objects and understand the differences between messy vs. tidy, past vs. present oppositions.

2. MOVING HOUSE:

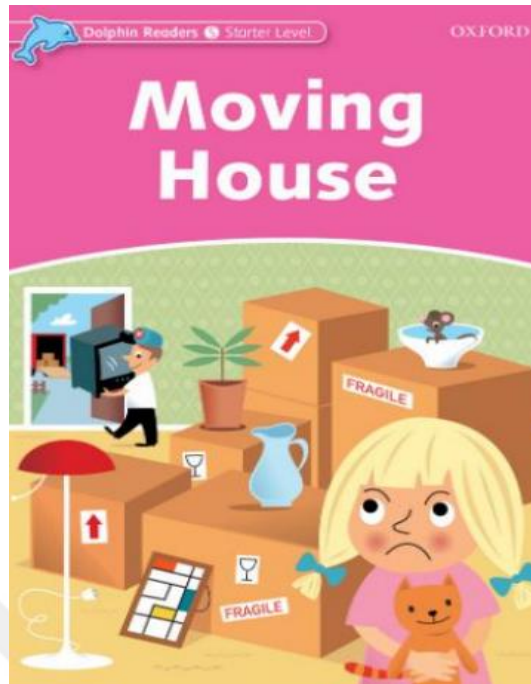


Figure 3. The cover of the story, *Moving House*. Oxford University, Oxford, 2005. Retrieved from <https://www.amazon.com.tr/Dolphin-Readers-Starter-Level-Moving/dp/0194400824>.

This picture book was written by Di Taylor and published as a teaching and learning resource for young EFL learners by Oxford University Press in 2005. The book consists of 17 pages including the story itself and the picture dictionary at the end. Without any narration, the story is composed of the dialogues between the characters illustrated via speech bubbles on every page of the book. The dialogues with easy-to-understand sentences are comprehensible for the students at the age of 6. The story provides students with not only an opportunity to get familiar with new linguistic structures and vocabulary, but also an example of communication in the target language. It is about a little girl whose family decides to move to another house. At the beginning of the story, the girl is unwilling to move and feels sad and angry. When the professional movers come to the house, the girl does not want them to carry her stuff to the truck. At the end of the story, her mother shows a picture of their new house, and she changes her mind about moving. The picture book is selected for its content that helps students to recognize the differences between adjectives new and old, and to get familiar with the concept ‘change’.

3. *GIANT JOE*:

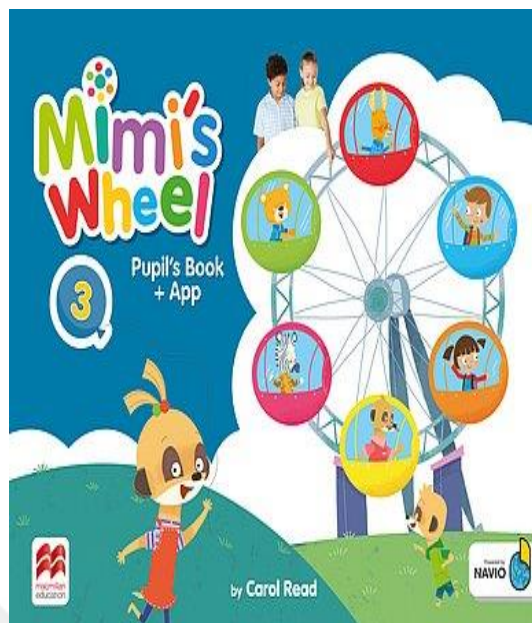


Figure 4. The cover of the coursebook, *Mimi's Wheel*. Macmillan Education, 2019. Retrieved from <https://www.macmillanenglish.com/us/catalogue/courses/very-young-learners/mimis-wheel/levels-samples#level-3-1-1>.

The audio-visual story in the students' course book named *Mimi's Wheel* is used in three different ways. The coursebook was written by Carol Read in 2019 and published by Macmillan Education. Firstly, the pictures of the story in the coursebook are used for a guessing activity. They are clear enough to describe the story itself. Secondly, there is an audio version of the story to be listened to by the students while looking at the pictures. Finally, the video as an animated short story appealing to children provides the students with a visual teaching material. It definitely increases their engagement and motivation for participating in the classroom interaction (Kumar, 2021). The language of the story is simple and suitable for students' language proficiency, but it has more complex sentence structures in comparison with the previous stories. However, the audio-visual materials help students comprehend the story easier. The story is in a dialogue form between the main characters. Although there is no narration, one of the characters tells a story by acting out. Therefore, there are two different points of view in the story. It is about two siblings visiting their grandparents. The children in the story ask their grandpa to tell a story for them, and the grandpa starts to tell the story of Giant Joe by changing his voice as the giant. The language focus of the story is expressing daily routines that are repeated in similar patterns several times.

4.3. Sequence Organization

The sequence organization of the classroom activities in the story-based lessons will be explicated in this section. General sequential organization of classroom discourse mainly follows IRF(Initiation-Response-Feedback) structure. Orienting to the PYP curriculum's objectives, theme and inquiry-based, learner-centered discursive practices are constructed by the teachers. The lessons consist of teacher-led story-telling activities varying according to the different stages such as pre-story, in-story and post story. The classroom discourse is dominated by question-and-answer adjacency pairs mostly extended through post-expansion sequences in the third turn of IRF. Sequences within a context are considered as "the vehicle for getting some activity accomplished" (Schegloff, 2007, p.2). As is shown in the lesson plans, teachers designed appropriate activities for the three main stages of the story-based lessons. Therefore, the activities conducted during the lessons presented related sequences, and this relationship between the activities and the sequences helped to understand the structural organization of the classroom discourse and interaction. In this regard, the sequence organization will be described through the representative extracts taken from the pre-story, in-story and post-story stages respectively in the separate sections.

4.3.1. Pre- Story Stage

The pre-story stages of the lessons consist of classroom activities to warm students up for the upcoming story. During these activities, teachers and students co-participated in the classroom interaction by making guesses about the story and sharing their personal experiences. In line with these activities, the initial parts of the story-based lessons were applied within a meaning and fluency context (Seedhouse, 2005). Based on the characteristics of the meaning and fluency context, the main aim was to express personal meanings for the content presented by the teachers. Without or with less interruption of the teachers to provide corrective feedback, a variety of sequence organization was co-constructed through the whole-class multi-party interactions. The first extract to represent the multi-party interaction in the pre-story stage was taken from the lesson where the students read the story *Clean Up, Clean Up!*. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher asked students to make some comments about the cover of the story.

Extract 1 where is the boy 210222_001

1 T: can you hear me: ? EVERYBODY please: be quiet (.) now let's
2 start our story oka:y ?

3 (*T opens the PDF version of the story on the smartboard*))

4 T: yeni bi story getirdim ve biraz heyecanlıyım (.) O↑KAY look
5 at this er: book , this is our book şimdi↑ look there is a
6 boy: here there is a boy aynı er hasan gibi there is a bo:y
7 here. ↑where is the boy? ha? where is , where is , where is he
8 ? is he at school ?

I brought a new story and I am a bit excited. Like the same as Hasan.

9 S5: °odamda°
in my room

10 T: ahh no yes ceren

11 S6: odam çok [dağınık]
My room is very messy

12 S5: [odam ç-]
My room i-

13 T: wai:t I am listening to Ceren

14 S6: odam çok dağınık↓
My room is very messy

15 T: odam çok dağınık diye mi bakıyo peki nerde bu çocuk ? ↑WHERE
16 is the boy ?

Is he looking at his room if it is messy? Well where is this boy?

17 S1: ((raises hand))

18 T: yes hasan

19 S1: odamı (.) odamı toplamalıyım
My room I should tidy up my room

20 T: odamı toplamalıyım diye mi düşünüyo? ya da adımı öyle?
21 titleımı öyle diye düşündünüz?

Does he think that he should tidy up his room? or is this its name? Do you think that this is the title?

22 S1: er şey
well

23 T: okay

24 S1: ha title

25 T: o↑kay veril

The extract is initiated by the teacher stating that they are going to start reading a story. After showing the cover of the story, she asks where the boy is. In line 9, S5 provides a reply in a reduced volume speech, but the teacher does not indicate an agreement for this answer. In lines 11 and 19, two different students take turns to give the similar answers in Turkish (odam çok dağınık) expressing their guesses for the title rather than answering the T's question, probably because of the past interactional routines they took part at the beginning of storytelling. In line 20, teacher prefers to show alignment to the students' answers and shapes these contributions by extending and providing the word *title* to maintain the ongoing interaction. In the next turn, S1 uses the word, and T acknowledges the student's answer (o↑kay). This extract demonstrated that there is not a strict sequence organization in the pre-story stages and learners have an interactional space to co-construct the meaning and the discourse.

The extract that follows was from the pre-story part of the *Moving House*. At the beginning of the extract, the teacher uses some gestures and actions for daily routines and elicits answers from the students.

Extract 2 daily routines 210311_001

1 T: Zeynep look at me: please oka:y (.) er şimdi what am I
2 doing?

now

3 S2: ↑wash my face

4 T: ye:s

5 S4: °wash my face°

6 S2: WASH MY FACE

7 (0.3) ((*T pretends to get dressed*))

8 S5: get dre:ssed

9 T: ney? ↑get dressed get dre:ssed↑ ondan sonra?
What? After that?

10 ((*Teacher stretches her arms up*))

11 S2: GET UP

12 S4: GET UP

13 T: get u:p

14 S3: get up

15 T: şimdi benim şu an gösterdiğim rutinlerimizi nerde yapıyoruz?

16 (.) at?
Now where do we do these routines that I showed?

17 S2: ho:me

18 S3: evde er sonra okulda
At home then at school

19 T: ye:s herkesin evi var dimi şu anda? Herkesin evi va:r ↑peki

20 taşınan oldu mu aranızda taşınan?
*Does everybody have a house now right? Everybody has a house.
Well Is there anybody who has moved?*

21 S6: ben
me

22 S3: ben- ben taşınacam bizim evde-=
Me- I will move. At our home-

23 S4: BEN DE TAŞINCAM

I will move too

24 S3: [teacher ben]=

I

25 S2: [ben de:]

Me too

26 T: harika:

great

The extract starts with a question initiation by the teacher after she makes sure that each student is paying attention to her instructions. Following the question in line 1 (*what am I doing?*), teacher uses her gestures and body language to remind the students some of the daily routines. In line 3, S2 provides an immediate second pair part of the adjacency pair to the T's movement. In the third turn of the IRF structure, the teacher gives an explicit assessment (*ye:s*) and finishes the student's contribution. The teacher initiates another sequence by showing the gesture of getting dressed in line 7. S5 takes the turn and provides the answer in the next line. The teacher repeats the student's contribution twice with a rising intonation. Between the line 10 and 14, a recurrent interactional sequence occurs. Three different students provide the correct answer, and the teacher follows up by repeating the target word. In line 15, teacher asks a question in Turkish changing the direction of the ongoing interaction towards the content of the story. To elicit an English word, T initiates code-switching and makes use of a designedly incomplete utterance (DIU) by producing only the first word of the phrase with a rising intonation. S2 shows an alignment to his utterance and takes the second turn of the sequence by giving the correct answer in English. In line 18, S3 also provides an answer in a self-selected turn. Although S3's answer is in Turkish, the teacher initiates an acknowledgement token for both contributions. In line 20, the teacher extends her turn by asking another open-ended question in Turkish to the students about whether anybody has moved or not. Without any allocation by the teacher, several students initiate their turns and express their own personal experiences. At the end of the extract, the teacher closes the sequence with a response token (*harika*) in a minimal post expansion. As is shown in the extract; while building the discourse related to the story, the teacher uses different elicitation techniques to encourage students to produce the target vocabulary in English. On the other hand, teacher uses multilingual resources to provide

students with necessary background for the story through implicit references and to create an engaging learning environment in which learners feel comfortable to participate in the classroom interaction.

During the pre-story stages of the lessons recorded, not only multilogue practices (Schwab, 2011) as exemplified above, but dyadic interactional sequences were also observed depending on the activity. Furthermore, the participation framework was structured based on the teachers' questioning practices and their control of the turn-taking organization. The next extract comes from the activity in which students are asked to make comments on the cover of the story *Clean Up, Clean Up!*.

Extract 3 colors 210222_001

- 1 T: yes now[↑] look at this cover look at this cover (.) [↑]WHAT do
2 you see? h1? what do you see? mesela I see: a =
For example
3 SS: bear ((in chorus))
4 T: = a teddy bear here right? what else do you see? <raise
5 your fingers> what [↑]ELSE do you see?
6 yellow walls right ? yellow walls. hasan ?
7 S1: er: şey red blue pink
well
8 T: ha colors you can [see]
9 S1: [bi de] purple bi de purple
[also]
10 T: you can see purple re:d blue: okay[↓]

The extract is an example of a dyadic exchange structure between a student and the teacher. T launches the pre-story activity in line 1 and draws students' attention to the cover of the story. After she initiates a question turn, she immediately attempts to provide an example for students so that they can come up with the correct options in English. However, in line 3, students interrupt the teacher's utterance and self-initiate turn altogether without an assistance from the teacher. Following this contribution, T takes the floor again and asks a

confirmation check question by rephrasing learners' minimal utterance in line 4 (a teddy bear here right?) In order to maintain the flow of interaction, T also asks an elaboration question in a non-minimal post-expansion sequence (what else do you see?). Right before she repeats her question in a rising intonation, T also determines the turn-taking procedure and the participation framework for the activity (raise your fingers). With this instruction, the teacher emphasizes that she will control the turn-taking and this will be a teacher-led activity. In line 6, T gives an example to model the expected answer and allocates the turn to S1. The student's response is probably affected by the example that T has provided, so S1 starts to utter some colors that he sees on the cover of the story. In the third turn of the exchange structure, T summarizes the contribution in line 8. S1 overlaps the teacher's speech and initiates a turn by extending his previous contribution. In line 10, the teacher repeats S1's responses and completes her turn with a sequence closer (okay↓). The extract demonstrates that during the dialogical sequences; students had longer turns through the teacher's control of turn-taking and negotiation of meaning. Although the other students did not have an opportunity to self-initiate a turn, the allocated student extended his turn and took part in an engaged dialogue.

The following extract was examined to describe another example of dialogical exchange structure that occurred during the pre-story stage of the story *Moving House*. In this sequence, multiple IRF structures are detected.

Extract 4 I know 210311_002

- 1 T: ↑OKA:Y let's look at the co:ver. What can you see in the
- 2 co:ver? What can you see?
- 3 S5: ben biliyoru:m
I know it
- 4 T: okay ↑what is in the cover?
- 5 S5: küçük kız-
little girl
- 6 T: there is a girl↓
- 7 S5: eve:t taşınmak istemiyo:
- 8

Yes she doesn't want to move

9 T: hmm taşınmak iste[miyo]

she doesn't want to move

10 S5: [ben bu]nu anladım

[I under]stood that

11 T: okay how many boxes in the room? a:nd she is happy or she
12 is sad?

13 S5: sad

14 T: she is sad. She looks sad. Er:: (+) so she- (.) because she
15 doesn't want to mo:ve. (+) and then and she is carrying
16 something. >What is it?< (.) it's an animal↓ what is it?

17 S5: ca:t

18 T: ↑ca:t she has got a ca:t I think.

The sequence is initiated by the teacher with a stimulating question that is expected to elicit interpretative answers from the students. Without an allocation by the teacher, S5 self-selects the turn and claims his knowledge in line 3. T acknowledges the student's initiation and repeats the question only for the self-selected student this time. S5 produces her reply in Turkish. Rather than giving explicit feedback to the students, T maintains the interaction by translating the answer in English. S5 does not orient to the teacher's language choice and continues in Turkish while initiating another sequence in line7. At this point, the teacher does not prefer insisting on a production in the target language to achieve intersubjectivity and repeats the Turkish utterance. In the next line, S5 completes her turn by saying the utterance '*Ben bunu anladım*'. The teacher initiates another question-and-answer adjacency pair with the same student by applying a different practice to encourage the student produce replies in L2. In line 10, T offers two different questions to S5, one of which is an open-ended question. The other question has two options in it, and S5 is expected to pick the correct one. S5 prefers to answer the second question by producing a one-word utterance in English. In the third pair part of the sequence, T follows up another question without an option after she extends the student's reply by describing the cover. In line16, S5 orients to the teacher's language choice and replies in English. At the end of the sequence,

T completes the dialogue with a full sentence form of the student's utterance. As described in the extract, the teacher managed the classroom discourse to maintain the interaction in the target language through different question practices by analyzing the student's second pair parts of the exchange structure (Ro, 2018).

To sum up, although the overall sequential structure sets an example for the IRF exchange system, the pre-story stages present a variety of sequence organizations depending on the activity, teachers' question practices, participation framework and turn-taking principles.

4.3.2. In-Story Stage

The in-story stage of the story-based lessons in the research context is the part where students get to know about the story through listening or watching due to their age being incapable of reading or writing. In the recordings, while two of the stories were read by the teachers using story-telling techniques, the last one was applied as an audio-visual material. The sequence organization is mostly controlled by the teacher, who conducts procedural talk or asks comprehension check questions while reading the story aloud. The following extract was taken from the recording in which the teacher tells about the storyline of *Clean Up, Clean Up!*.

Extract 5 daddy 210223_001

- 1 T: it's a teddy bea:r ye:s, and he pu:ts >his bear< on the
- 2 bed. (+) OO: look at thi:s who is he:? Somebody is==
- 3 S1: daddy::
- 4 T:= coming to room.
- 5 S1: daddy daddy.
- 6 T: this is his daddy: and he says (.) what does daddy sa:y ?
- 7 (.) what does he sa:y? (0.2) sizce n- ne demiş olabilir daddy?
- Whay might the daddy say in your opinion?*
- 8 S1: aferin
- well done*
- 9 S3: afferin sana

well done to you

- 10 T: bravo::↑very goo:d, daddy sa:ys goo:d wo:rk (.) goo:d wo:rk
11 well do:ne ((clapping))

The extract exemplifies the teacher's comprehension check practice during the story-telling to keep the students engaged and motivated about the story. T initiates the first pair part with a question in line 1 while reading the story. S1 interrupts the teacher's turn and provides a reply without letting T give a clue about the answer. In line 5, the teacher completes her interrupted sentence anyway. The same student insists on her self-selected turn and repeats the answer twice. This time T accepts her contributions and shapes it with a full sentence. In the same turn, the teacher asks an open-ended question stimulating the students to guess what is next in the story. Following 0.2 seconds pause, the teacher makes use of multilingual resources and provides the students with the translation of her question. In lines 8 and 9, two students orient to the language change, and give their responses in Turkish. In the post-expansion sequence of the teacher, she offers the possible equivalents of the answer in English implicitly. As can be understood from the extract, the teacher uses question practices during the storytelling to check students' comprehension or increase their engagement through multilingual resources.

The extract to be examined next is from the *Giant Joe* audio-visual activity in which students listen and watch the cartoon version of the story. The sequence starts with procedural talk and continues cohesive classroom talk which includes the question already with answers.

Extract 6 grandpa's stories 210305_001

- 1 T: okay şimdi ÖNCE we will listen to our ↑sto:ry okay? Şimdi
2 bi resimlerine bakarak ↑bi dinleyelim bakalı:m↓OKA:Y
3 ev:erybody sit down plea:se↓ look at your sto:ry (.) and
4 ↑LISTEN look at picture one and li:sten >burda hareket yok<
5 video izlemiyoruz sonra izleticem tamam mı:?

Okay now first we will listen to our story okay? Now let's listen to it looking at the pictures. There is no action here. We are not watching a video. I will get you to watch later okay?

- 6 (3.11) ((Students listen to the story))

- 7 T: ne dedi Dylan duydunuz mu:? I ↑love grandpa's ↑STORI:ES
Have you heard what Dylan said?
- 8 S3: yani anneannenin anlattığı hikayeleri çok seviyo:
In other words, he likes the stories that grandma tells.
- 9 T: eve:t dedenin anlattığı hikayeleri çok seviyo ↑grandpa:'s
 10 stori:es (+) I love grandpa's stori:es↓

The extract is initiated by the teacher within a procedural context. Between line 1 and 5, T explains the procedure in both L1 and L2 in a long turn to make sure that the students understand the instructions. Although she attempts to check for the understanding of the students in line 5 (tamam mı : ?), students do not produce a verbal display of understanding. In line 7, the teacher asks a comprehension check question, but she also provides the answer immediately putting emphasis on the words to expose the students to the target vocabulary. S3 self-selects a turn as the second pair part of the sequence and displays her understanding by providing the translation of T's sentence in her first language in line 8. In the third turn, the teacher repeats the target phrase in English in a rising intonation. This sequence provides evidence for the teacher's attempt to emphasize her pedagogical agenda through interruptions during the storytelling.

It can be understood that the extracts examined in the pre-story stages of the lessons exemplify the sequences in the IRF exchange structure. The sequence organization is not so variable as the pre-story stage, because teachers interrupt the story-telling activities for either asking comprehension questions or emphasizing the target vocabulary.

4.3.3. Post- Story Stage

The last part of the story-based lessons is the post-story stage. After storytelling, the teachers organized in-class activities, in which students were asked to display their understanding and comprehension about the story they listened previously within a task-oriented context. These activities are designed to create an engaging learning environment where students show their skills based on the central interdisciplinary theme of PYP curriculum. Through some art and drama activities, students have an interactional space to reflect their learning in the light of the stories. The following extract was taken from the presentations of the pictures that

students drew after listening to the story *Clean Up, Clean Up!*. The students are asked to draw pictures of their own rooms and their parents' childhood rooms so that they can understand the relationship between the present and the past. After drawing their pictures students talk about their pictures.

Extract 7 my room 210224_002

T: ↑oka:y show your friends (+) >which one is< your room?

S1: bu annemin odası:↓

This is my mom's room

T: hm hm

S1: bu da: benim odam↓

This is my room

T: your roo:m okay peki (.) what is in your room? kendi odandakini önce in Zehra's room.

Well (.) first your own room

S1: ay ve yıldız-

Moon and star

T: ay ve yıldız va:r oka:y

There is a moon and a star

S1: koltuğum va:r yatağım va:r↓

I have an armchair I have a bed

T: ↑be:d

S1: halım v:ar

I have a carpet

T: hı hı: you have a carpe:t↓

The extract initiates with the teacher's question about S1's picture in the target language. However, in line 2, S1 provides her reply in the first language. The teacher does not correct this code switching and acknowledges her response (hm hm) in line 3 so as not to interrupt

the student's speech. Since her self-initiated code switching is aligned by the teacher, S1 continues her explanation in Turkish. In the third turn, T follows up with a translation by putting emphasis on the words and offers the preferred answer within the flow of interaction. In line 5, the teacher extends the turn by asking another question in both English and Turkish. Between line 9 and 13, S1 continues her speech in Turkish telling the objects in her picture. T does not act on the student's language choice again adopting the implicit feedback technique in the task-oriented context, and she modifies S1's utterances in the target language. The extract illustrates that in the production stage, the teacher gives more importance to the student's abilities to express personal meaning than their speaking skills in L2 within the understanding of the theme-based curriculum.

The extract to be presented below is an example of the teacher and the student's uses of new vocabulary from the story in their speech through translanguaging (Garcia, 2009), which is a reconceptualization of bilingualism claiming that bilinguals have "one semiotic system integrating various lexical, morphological, and grammatical linguistic features in addition to social practices" (Vogel, Ascenzi-Moreno & Garcia, 2018, p. 5) rather than two independent systems.

Extract 8 benim bedim 210224_004

- 1 T: oka:y şimdi Çağıl dinliyoruz hep birlikte dinliyoruz di:mi
2 Çağılın paylaşımını? (.) senin bedroomun hangisi bunlardan?

Now we are listening to Çağıl altogether right? Çağıl's sharing? Which one is your bedroom?

- 3 S4: evet↓

yes

- 4 T: peki: sanırım burda bi drawer va:r↓

Okay I think there is a drawer here

- 5 S4: bu benim bedim , bu benim teddy bearim , burası da bed (.)
6 er: bu benim yatağım , bu da benim kitaplığım , bu da benim
7 masam↓

This is my bed, this is my teddy bear, here is bed too. This is my bed, this is my bookcase, this is my table.

8 T: ↑oo: you have so many things in your room.

The teacher takes the first pair part of a question-and-answer adjacency pair with a Turkish question including only one English word used in the story previously in lines 1 and 2. However, S4 does not start talking about his picture as expected, so the teacher initiates the reply turn herself as a model for the student (sanırım burda bi drawer va:r). Similar to the teacher's turn in line 4, S4 orients to the sentence structure presented by T and produces sentences using both languages. The words learned throughout the story are uttered in English, but the grammatical structure of the sentences is formed in Turkish. At the end of the sequence, T completes her third turn in English as a reaction to S4's contribution (↑oo: you have so many things in your room). This extract provides evidence for the teacher's pedagogical focus, which is exposing the students to the new vocabulary and creating a classroom atmosphere where students feel free to participate and express themselves. To align with her pedagogical agenda, the teacher makes use of translanguaging.

The following extract taken from the post-story stage of *Giant Joe* represents a sequence occurring between the teacher and the students in chorus. The teacher asks yes/no questions for what the story is about telling the options one by one.

Extract 9 in chorus 210305_002

- 1 T: let's look at the pa:rt u:nder the story(.) there is a ca:r
2 there is a mo:nste:r there is grandpa >Giant Joe< and there is
3 a ro:bot (.) ↑peki what is this story about?
well
4 S1:>Giant Joe<
5 T: GIANT JOE:: ↑ye:s there is- there isn't a monster right? Is
6 there a monster in the sto:ry?
7 S2: no
8 S3: no
9 T: is there a ca:r in the sto:ry?
10 SS: no: ((in chorus))

- 11 T: is there a RO:BOT in the story?
- 12 SS: NO: ((in chorus))
- 13 T: no: is there giant joe in the sto:ry?
- 14 SS: YE::S ((in chorus))

Different from the post-story stage extracts analyzed above, this extract has a multi-party classroom participation framework. Therefore, there is no turn allocation by the teacher and all the students can take the response turn. Between lines 1 and 3, T provides the students with possible options and asks what the story is about. In line 4, S1 self-initiates the second pair part turn. In the follow-up turn, the teacher gives positive assessment to this response in a high pitch and checks for confirmation of the student's reply. In line 6, T repeats the confirmation check in the question format to elicit English answers from the students who already know the correct one. In lines 7 and 8, two different students provide the same reply. Without giving any feedback to these answers, T initiates another question requiring the answer 'no'. Following this, all the students take part in the second pair part of the adjacency pair in chorus (no:). In the following lines, the same exchange structure is co-constructed by the teacher and the students like an interactional routine. At the end of the sequence, the teacher asks the last yes/no question whose answer is 'yes'. The extract shows that the teacher's questioning practices determine the participation framework of the activity. While giving the clear answers in chorus, the students may have a chance to develop their listening skills and increase their comprehension of the story.

The last extract to be examined within the sequence organization in the post-story parts of the lessons comes from the drama activity applied after students' listening to *Giant Joe*. In this task-oriented context, students were expected to act out the grandpa's story by performing the scene of the character Giant Joe.

Extract 10 Giant Joe 210305_002

- 1 T: T: tama:m (.hhh) ↑Hasanla başlayalım. IIGH GIANT JOE::
- 2 (monstrous voice) ne diYO:du?
- What was he saying?*
- 3 S1: HUNgry::
- 4 T: ↑HUNGRY::

5 S1:I get u:p

6 T: I ↑GET U::Pondan sonra: >ne demişti< I:::↑
after that what did he say?

7 S1: get dressed

8 T: GET DRE:SSSED

9 S3:teacher geçen gün-
Teacher the other day-

10 T: ama (.) dimi? Be ca:ring please↓sonra:
But (.) right? then

11 S1: I:: WASH MY FA:CE (monstrous voice)

12 T: I WASH MY FA::CE (.) Giant Joe: GIANT JOE: ((laughter))

13 a::nd↑I:

14 S1: WASH MY hand (monstrous voice)

15 T: wash my ha:nd (.) ye:s sonra (.) >napıyodu< (.) I have=
Then what was he doing?

16 S1: °breakfast°

17 T: =break- [BREAKFA:ST]

18 S1: [BREAKFA:ST]

19 T: AAGGHH (monstrous voice)

20 S1: IAGHH (monstrous voice)

21 S1: giant joe:

22 T: ↑GIANT joe::

23 S1: ↑GIANT JOE:

24 SS: ((laughter)) ((in chorus))

The teacher selects S1 as the next speaker by saying his name in line 1. To be a model for the selected students, she changes her voice to the character like a monster and utters the title

of the story in this voice. In line 2, T initiates the sequence with a question in Turkish and asks what the character was saying in the story. S1 provides his reply with a one-word utterance orienting to the teacher's speaking style. T repeats the reply in the third turn in a rising intonation, which helps creating an enjoyable and engaging classroom atmosphere through drama. In line 5, the student self-initiates another turn and continues his role-play. The teacher encourages him to move on by repeating his utterance and asks an elaboration question. Between lines 9 and 10, S3 interrupts and starts telling a past experience of hers, but T produces a disagreement marker (ama) in Turkish and warns the student through one of the phrases used in their classroom language (Be ca:ring please). After the dispreferred self-selection, the teacher reallocates the turn to the previously selected student. In line 11, S1 takes the floor again and produces another line of the main character. In the post-expansion sequences, T shows her preference for a follow-up turn through a DIU (a::nd↑ I:). Another recurrent sequence occurs in the next lines and she asks for another utterance from the story after the student's turn. From line 19 to line 24, T and S1 make similar monstrous voices and say the title of the story several times, which result in whole-class laughter. The extract makes it clear that drama activities in the post-story stages enhances a positive learning environment with more production in L2 and engagement.

The extracts have shown that the sequence organizations in the post-story stages vary depending on the activity, the story and the teachers' talk in the task-oriented contexts. Based on the contextual factors, the teachers and the students co-constructed the IRF exchanges in most of the cases. The teachers allocated the turn to a student to present his or her production and shaped their contribution through different elicitation techniques. On the other hand, the comprehension-check activities with a limited interactional space for the students were dominated by the question-and-answer adjacency pairs. Since the answers were already known, the follow-up turns, where the teachers were expected to provide feedback, were not needed. These activities were done to confirm their understanding and comprehension as a preparation for the production part. Finally, the analysis has illustrated that drama activities and translanguaging practices can be used for an engaging classroom, in which students can display their knowledge about the stories.

4.4. Turn Taking

The turn taking organization of the story-based lessons will be demonstrated through the extracts in this section. Turn taking is mostly controlled by the teacher and there are certain principles for the students to take turns. Teachers make use of normative turn constructional units (TCUs) (Clayman, 2013) for selecting a student as a next speaker. On the other hand, there are also student-centered turn patterns based on the activities and different stages of the lessons. Depending on the activity, students' self-selections and initiations are welcomed. Different types of student initiations will be described taking the contextual factors into consideration. The structural organization of turn-taking will be examined separately for each stage of the story-based lessons.

4.4.1. Pre-Story Stage

In the pre-story stages, the teachers prefer preparation activities so that students can get familiar with the content of the story in terms of vocabulary and topic. Therefore; during these activities, students are allowed to express their ideas and experiences in a wider interactional space. To elicit answers from the students about the story for the warm-up, the teachers address the questions to the whole class. This questioning practice results in students' self-selections for next turns. The following extract exemplifying students' initiations was taken from the lesson based on the story named *Clean Up, Clean Up!*.

Extract 11 ben söyliyem 210224_001

1 T: okay >galiba< başka bişey gören yok burd:

I guess there is nobody who sees anything here

2 S2: ben görüyö::m

I see

3 T: eda:?

4 S2: to:y

5 T: ye:s there are to:ys

6 S2: (+) boy↓

7 T: ↑bo:y there is a bo:yhatırlayalım diye söylüyorum odasında
8 neler vardı?

*I am telling it so that we can remember. What were the objects
in his room?*

9 S4: ben söyliycem
I will tell

10 T: ayşe::

11 S4: penci:l

The extract shows that when the teacher includes everybody in the classroom in the TCU (Turn Constructional Units), the students are not obliged to orient to the turn-taking principles. In line 1, T asks a rhetorical question to elicit more answers. S2 selects herself as the next speaker and initiates her voluntary turn. T accepts the student's type B initiation and allocates the turn to her by telling her name. In line 4, S2 gives her response, and T shapes this contribution by modifying it as a full sentence. In line 6, S2 initiates another sequence by producing another reply for the question. In line 7, T asks an elaboration question about the objects in the main character's room. This time S4 takes the floor (*ben söyliycem*) and allocates the turn to herself without asking for permission from the teacher. However, T acknowledges the turn taking and creates a transition relevance place (TRP) for the student. At the end of the sequence, S4 manages her turn by making an appropriate contribution. This extract illustrates that teachers' questions and alignment to the student initiatives encourage more students to participate in classroom interaction.

In a similar vein, the next extract to be analyzed represents a multi-party classroom environment in which participants can take initiatives and provide replies. The activity applied in the lesson is teachers' use of body language to remind students background knowledge related to the content of the story.

Extract 12 daily routines 210305_001

1 T: get dre:ssed ye:s↑(.) peki: er:: (.) bulamıyorum başka ne
2 vardı hıh

Well I can't find what else was there

3 ((teacher pretends to brush her hair))

- 4 S1: ↑BRUSH MY HAI:R
- 5 T: brush <my hair> ye:s , very good well done (.) okay
- 6 (*teacher rubs her hands together*)
- 7 S1: WASH my hands
- 8 T: wash my ha:nds↓ (.) peki:
well
- 9 (*teacher pretends to wash her face*)
- 10 S6: BRUSH MY TEETH
- 11 S3: WASH MY FA:CE
- 12 T: wash my face

To prepare the students for the in-story stage, the teacher tries to activate their background knowledge in terms of vocabulary related to daily routines. By using her gestures, she asks students to say what she is doing without allocating the turns to anybody, which allows each student to participate whenever he or she wants. After each move, different students initiate their response turns. The teacher provides acknowledgement tokens to these responses by repeating them with a rising intonation.

On the other hand, in some cases, the teacher controls the turn taking procedures more strictly. The extract shows how the teacher tries to apply the turn taking principles constructed before. To remind the students how they should take turns, she does not allocate the students who do not obey the classroom rules.

Extract 13 raise your finger 210222_001

- 1 S2. teacher ben parmak kaldırıyorum .
I'm raising finger
- 2 T: but sit down please: sit down thank you. nur?
- 3 S3: teacher masa var
There is a table
- 4 T: (.hhh) ↑YES there is a table here: table right?
- 5 S1: ↑PENCIL

- 6 T: raise your fin- hand please finger ceren?
- 7 S6: (-) er: (+) peluş bear var
There is a teddy bear
- 8 T: peluş bear var YES here right ? there is a teddy bear.
There is a teddy bear

The sequence is initiated by S2 who requests the next turn claiming that she follows the turn taking rules and raises her hand in line 1. However, by standing up she breaks another classroom rule, which is not approved by the teacher. Consequently, T allocates the next turn to S3 who raises her hand properly. In line 4, T gives the L2 equivalent without interrupting the flow of interaction. In the next line, S5 selects herself as the next speaker and initiates a sequence by telling another object on the cover page of the story. Even though the answer is correct, T does not give positive feedback and warns the student to raise her finger. In line 6, T allocated the turn to another student who raises her hand. At the third turn of this sequence, T accepts the answer and provides corrective feedback for the student by shaping her contribution through translation. This extract proves that the teacher only provides turn allocation for those who appropriately align with the turn taking principles.

In the pre-story activities, there is a less controlled turn taking system, in which students select themselves for the next turn and make their contributions freely. However, there is also a deviant case, which demonstrates that the teacher takes control of the turn allocations to rebuild her authority.

4.4.2. In-Story Stage

The in-story stage includes teachers' story telling activities and an audiovisual story listening, because the students are 6 years old and not able to read or write. That's why, teacher talk dominates the classroom interaction during these activities. Student initiations are not frequent in this stage due to teachers' disalignment with interruptions during the story reading. The extract 13 exemplifies the teacher's display of dispreference for the learner turns while telling the story.

Extract 13 hı hı 210223_001

1 T: clean up clea:n up ↑>I put my crayons in the box< . (.) and
 2 the:n clean up clean up↑I put my boo:ks on the shelf . these
 3 are shelves okay ? (0.3) clean u:p clean up . I: put my clo:thes
 4 i:n the drawer. this is drawe:r . clean up↑clean up↑I put my
 5 shoe:s in the closet . =

6 S3: öğretmenim benim de var , kedim ve kardeşim var.

Teacher I have too, I have a cat and brother.

7 T: clean up clean up↑ I: °put° my °tra:sh° in the can. this is
 8 (.) trash can. (.) >we have got a trash [can]- =

9 S2: [öğret]menim bizim de
 10 var.

Teacher we have too

11 T: =over the:re h1 h1(+) clean up clean u:p. I put my bear on
 12 the bed. (.) look at these , what is this?

As is shown in the extract, S3 attempts to share his own experience related to the story and interrupts the teacher's speech in line 6. However, T does not take part in the sequence which was initiated by the student and continues to read the story without showing any reaction to this utterance. In line 9, another student overlaps with the teacher's talk and starts telling that they have the same object at home as the one in the story. Between line 11 and 12, T does not deal with this contribution either. Instead, she only provides a minimal response token (h1 h1) and maintains her turn. The extract has clearly demonstrated that the teacher did not react to the students' turn taking attempts and considered them as inappropriate interruptions while she was reading the story.

The following case is a more complex sequence including different types of teacher management of student self-selection during a reading activity. This extract is from the lesson, in which the teacher tells the story of *Moving House*.

Extract 14 moving house 210311_001

1 T: ANGRY: right she looks angry >bakalım< neler olucak o zaman
 2 neden acaba angry bu kız bakalım (+)

Let's see what will happen then why is this girl angry?

3 S2: hadi okuyalım

Let's read

4 T: hadi okuyalım. ↑MO:VING HOUSE we: move to our new house

5 today.AA: toda:y er move to our new HO:USE (.) °a° look at=

Let's read

6 S1: move ne deme:k?

What does move mean?

7 T: e tahmin edin bakalı:m

Guess what

8 S6: taşınıyola:r

They are moving

9 T: bugü:n yeni evimize taşınıyoruz anna (.) yes Eda?

Today we are moving to our new house

10 S4: yeni evimize taşınmak istemiyorum diyo galiba↓ Çünkü eski

11 evini özliyecek diye. ben de aslında taşınmak istemedim başta

12 ama sonra taşınınca çok eğlendim↓

I think she she says that I don't want to move to our new house. Because she will miss her old house. I didn't want to move at first either, but I had so much fun when we moved.

13 S3: ben de söyliyce:m

I will say too

14 T: oka:y let's continue (.) sonra cevap hakkı vericem

I will let you speak later

15 S3: ama unuturu:m

But I will forget

16 T: okay söyle o zaman

Say it then

17 S3: bizim yeni evimizde iki kat olduğu için ben çok
18 heyecanlıyım.

I am so excited that our new house has two floors

19 T: oo: that's great

At the beginning of the extract, the teacher projects the closure of pre-story part of the lesson. By asking a rhetorical question arousing curiosity. She gives the students a cue implying the story telling is about to start. In line 3, S2 orients to this cue and suggests to start reading (*hadi okuyalım*). In lines 4 and 5, T accepts this offer and starts reading the story. While reading, S1 interrupts and self-initiates a question-and-answer sequence. In line 7, rather than giving the answer directly, T promotes self-discovery through negotiation. S6 provides the correct answer in Turkish and the adjacency pair is completed between students under the guidance of the teacher. In line 10, S4 takes a turn by raising her finger and elaborates the previous answer with her own experience of moving. After this contribution, S3 displays her willingness to participate (*ben de söyliyce:m*) and wants to take turn. Nevertheless, T emphasizes her preference for the continuation of reading and states that she will allow her later. In line 15, the student insists on taking turn claiming that she might forget what to say. The teacher provides an acknowledgement token and nominates the turn to the student. At the end of the sequence, T produces a minimal response token in the post-expansion. The extract has shown different practices of the teacher for managing the unexpected student initiatives. Although she orients to the learner turns including a request for clarification or further contribution to the discourse, she does not appreciate the second attempt to share an experience in order to gain the control of discourse back.

Turn taking organization in while-reading parts is limited and student self-initiations are not encouraged by the teachers except for the students' requests for clarification.

4.4.3. Post-Story Stage

The post-story activities are organized to enhance students' comprehension of the text so that they can transfer their learning to production such as drawing pictures and role-plays. Checking for understanding is generally designed within a whole-class participation framework and students' responses without raising hands are acceptable. On the other hand, in the production part, turn taking is controlled by the teacher, and students present what

they have done one by one. The first extract comes from a comprehension check practice after reading the story *Clean Up, Clean Up!*.

Extract 15 clean up 210224_003

- 1 T: ↑CLEAN UP CLEAN UP storysini hatırlayan var mı:?
Is there anybody who remembers clean up clean up story?
- 2 S3: clea:n up clea:n u:p
- 3 T: ↑clean up clean up , what was the story abou:t?
- 4 S4: clea:n up clea:n u:p
- 5 T: what was the story about?
- 6 (0.2)
- 7 T: ne hakkındaydı story: ↑story ne hakkındaydı:?
What was the story about?
- 8 S5: a bo:y
- 9 T: ↑there was a BO:Y very good bravo Emel. There was a bo:y
- 10 (.) er there was a messy roo:m bedroom↓a:nd <he cleaned up his
- 11 room<
- 12 S4: roo:m

Before the post-reading activity, the teacher wants to remind the students what the story was about addressing the question to the whole class in line 1. S3 provides a reply uttering the title of the story. Although the answer is not correct, T does not act on the mistake and repeats her question once more (what was the story abou:t?). The same interactional sequence occurs again with a different student and T asks the same question in a rising intonation. Following a 0.2 second silence, T self-initiates code-switching to elicit the correct answer from the students in line 7. This attempt achieves its goal with the answer of S5. Although the utterance is not in a long turn, it is significant that the student produces English reply to a Turkish question. The student's language choice has an impact on the teacher's follow-up turn. In the post-expansion sequence, T provides a modified repetition and elaborates the answer by giving further information about the plot of the story. At the end of

the sequence, S4 takes a turn and repeats the teacher's last word as a display of understanding. The extract has shown that turn taking is not teacher-centered and students can initiate turns without any allocation by the teacher during the comprehension-check practices.

In the post-story stages students are expected to produce something related to the story they have listened. Therefore, each student is required to present his/her work at the end of the lesson. The extract 16 is from a drawing activity, in which students draw a picture of their own room and their parents' childhood rooms and talk about these pictures.

Extract 16 sıra bende 210224_004

1 S3: sıra bende:

It's my turn

2 T: ↑oka:y Zuhall anlatsın bakalım şimdi bize Zuhall çok özenli
3 yaptı çalışmasını (.) görüyo musunuz Zuhall pictureını:~ Zuhall
4 bi kendi bedroomunu yapmış bi de- er bu kimin odası mommynin
5 mi daddynin mi?

Now let Zuhall tell us. Zuhall did her work so properly. Can you see Zuhall's picture? Zuhall drew her room and er whose room is this? mommy's or daddy's?

6 S3: mommy

7 T: ↑mommy: mommysinin bedroomunu çizmiş , ona göre böyleymiş
8 yani bedroom

She drew her mommy's bedroom, the bedroom is like this according to her.

9 S3: annemin oyuncağı

My mum's toy

10 T: oo: that's lovely:

In line 1, S3 nominates herself as the next speaker stating that it is her turn (sıra bende:), which shows that there is a pre-ordered turn organization during the activity. The teacher allocates the turn to S3 and provides her with a question to start with between lines 2 and 5.

By selecting one of the options that the teacher included in her question, S3 takes the second pair part of the adjacency pair in English. In the next line, T acknowledges the answer of the student by repeating it with a rise in pitch. S3 self-initiates another turn displaying her willingness to continue talking about her picture. The teacher ends the sequence through a minimal response token (oo: that's lovely:). As is clearly understood from the extract, turn taking was organized as an interactional routine in the activity and no initiatives by the students were detected during the selected student's turn.

The final extract in the post-story stage was taken from the role-play activity. During the activity, nominated student comes to the board and acts out the character by telling his lines with dramatization.

Extract 17 Giant Joe is here 210305_002

- 1 T: SÜPerdi: Hasa:n ((clapping)) (.) that's grea:t↓ yes Ege come
- 2 (+) GIANT joe is he:re
- 3 SS: ((laughter)) ((in chorus))
- 4 T: yes:
- 5 S6: I'm (+)=
- 6 T: I'M HUNGRY::
- 7 S6: =hungry
- 8 T: sonra: Ege: what did he say?
then
- 9 S6: get up
- 10 T: GET U:P

The extract begins with the closure of the previous extract including another student's role play. In line 1, T selects S6 as the next speaker and invites him to the board calling the student with the name of the character to increase the engagement. In line 5, the student initiates his turn but cuts off with a noticeable pause. The teacher provides the expected full sentence in a monstrous voice so as not to interrupt the flow of the interaction. S6 displays her understanding and completes her sentence in the next turn (=hungry). In line 8, T encourages the student to keep talking and asks what the character says next. The teacher

produces a minimal utterance with a correct phrase ending up the teacher's approval. The extract has demonstrably shown that when the teacher allocates the next turn to a student, the student manages longer turns. The teacher provides the nominated student with more interactional space through negotiation and corrective feedback without any interruption.

The overall structure of turn taking organization in story-based lessons clarifies that pedagogical focus and types of activities determine the turn taking principles in the classroom. Similarly, the activities have an impact on the frequency and type of the learner initiatives (Waring, 2011). In pre-story stages, there are more self-selected turns because the activities include whole-class discussions. The unexpected learner contributions are encouraged by the teachers. On the other hand, in-story stages are teacher-centered, and student initiatives are not appreciated if it is not a request for clarification. Although students are willing to participate and contribute to the discourse about the story, students' violation of the turn-taking norms is mostly ignored during the storytelling. Finally, the post-story stage is controlled by the teachers, who choose the next speaker and the topic of the interaction (Garton, 2012). All the turns are allocated by the teachers, but the utterances produced by the students are longer and mostly in L2. The students display of their understandings (Koole, 2010) about the story in this part by using the target vocabulary in their speech. All of the learner initiatives, which occurred in different parts of the lessons, were either type A or type B. While Type A initiatives consisted of self-selections of the students to initiate a sequence, Type B initiatives occurred when the students select themselves to give a response. All in all, the micro-analysis of the turn taking practices co-constructed by the participants contributes to describe and understand the overall structure of the classroom discourse and interaction.

4.5. Repair

Repair is used when a trouble occurs in an interaction to maintain the progressivity and intersubjectivity. There are mainly four types of repair applied in classrooms. These are self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other repair, other-initiated self-repair and other-initiated other repair. Van Lier points out that "certain types of activity naturally lead to certain types of repair, therefore the issue of how to repair is closely related to the context of what is being done" (1988a, p.211). Since the different parts of the story-based lessons have related activities to the pedagogical focus, types of repair and repair techniques vary based on the

context-specific factors. The objectives of the PYP curriculum have also a significant effect on the repair organization. The main goal of the curriculum is to encourage students to inquire and explore new experiences within interdisciplinary themes. That's why, meaning takes precedence of form in the context, and the teachers apply different repair operations without disrupting the flow of interaction. The general turn-taking structure will be explicated in this section focusing on the stages separately.

4.5.1. Pre-Story Stage

The pre-story stage can be classified as a meaning and fluency context. Therefore, the main aim is to maintain the mutual understanding while getting familiar with the story. The pedagogical focus of the activities affects the teachers' repair organizations. In order to resolve troubles occurring in the classroom interaction and provide corrective feedback, teachers mostly prefer eliciting techniques, Designedly Incomplete Utterances (DIUs), reformulating and giving students choices. The following extract was chosen to exemplify the teacher's use of designedly incomplete utterances to elicit the correct answers from the students.

Extract 18 title 210223_001

1 T: oka:y ↑ everyone: we can sta:rt ↑ (.) no::w ↑ (.) we have a
2 ↑story:: . let's look at the cove:r (+) look at this cove:r
3 (.) er what is cover ? do you remember what is cover ↑

4 (0.3)

5 S1: bo::y

6 T: no no: what is ↑cove:r what is this ?

7 S2: kitabın ön sayfası.

The front page of the book

8 T: ye:s , that's a cove:r . a:nd this is the:: ↑

9 (0.2)

10 S3: resmi

Its picture

- 11 T: ti::↑
 12 S3: ↑TITLE
 13 T:ye:s this is the ↑title

In lines 1 and 3, T launches the pre-story activity by asking the students to look at the cover of the story and checks for their previous knowledge about what cover is (do you remember what is cover ↑). The 0.3 second silence in the classroom shows that the students are not able to understand the question and produce an answer. However, S5 self-selects a turn and gives a one-word reply to the question (bo: :y). The breakdown in communication is detected at this point, because the student misunderstands the question assuming that the teacher asks what he sees in the cover. In line 6, T displays her disagreement and repeats the original question by putting an emphasis on the word *cover*. S2 self-initiates other repair and gives the L1 equivalent of the word. In the third position, T does not give unmitigated negative evaluation (Seedhouse, 2004) and accepts the answer. Yet, she also supplies the correct version of the utterance. In the same line, T also initiates another sequence by using a DIU with a cut-off in the middle of her sentence to encourage students to utter the target word related to the context of the story-based lessons. After two seconds of silence, S3 takes the second pair part and initiates code-switching with her answer in L1. The teacher uses the same technique to elicit the answer in English and provides the first syllable of the word in a rising intonation. The trouble is resolved at the end of the sequence and S3 finds the correct word. The extract defines the teacher's use of DIUs to promote self-discovery (Waring, 2015) and intersubjectivity.

Young learners may sometimes have difficulty in orienting to the discursive norms and interactional organizations as expected. Within the context of the study, most of the repair sequences happen when students insist on making contributions in Turkish. Teachers apply different repair operations to enhance L2 use in classroom. The extract exemplifies the teacher's attempt to unveil the students' knowledge about classroom interactional routines to elicit L2 equivalent of the learner contribution.

Extract 19 chair 210222_001

- 1 T: no:w↑ we can- başka var mı bişey eklemek isteyen ?
Is there anybody else who wants to add something?
 2 S2: ↑BEN

me

3 T: o zaman raise your finger please , yes Zuhall

then

4 S2: er: şe:y:::: ben ne söyleyiceğim (+) san: [<dal:::::ye::>]

Well what will I say cha[i::::r]

5 S3: [ne zaman derse

6 başlaycaz ?]

[When will we start the lesson?]

7 T: eh hehe haklısı:n neydi sandalye ? what is sandalye ? (.)

8 hani ben hep size söylüyorum ↑take your (+)

You are right what was chair? What is chair? I always tell you

9 S2: chair

10 T: >↑CHAIR::^< ye:s: this is chair: this is a chair:: look (.)

11 chai:r

At the beginning of the extract, the teacher asks whether there is anybody to say something else, and S2 requests for the turn. After T reminds her to obey the turn taking principle, the student has difficulty in managing her second turn. She self-initiates a self-repair and find the word that she wants to utter. In line 7, the teacher provides a positive evaluation to this answer, but she also encourages the student to produce the L2 equivalent of the utterance by reminding her an interactional routine related to the seating arrangement. The teacher's referring to a past learning event (Daşkın& Hatipoğlu, 2019) serves to the purpose and S2 reaches the correct answer. The teacher completes the repair sequence by extending the student's contribution through repetition.

The troubles in the pre-story stages in meaning and fluency context mostly occur when the students misunderstand the teachers' question in L2. Rather than providing a translation directly, teachers prefer using different elicitation techniques to resolve the breakdown. The extract to be unveiled describes the teacher's use of questioning practices effectively to initiate a self-repair.

Extract 20 Where is the boy? 210223_001

- 1 T: oka:y is it a bo:y or a gi:rl ?
- 2 SS: bo:y ((in chorus))
- 3 T: ye:s he is a bo:y a:nd where is the bo:y ?
- 4 (0.2)
- 5 S3: odasını çok dağıtmış ↓ ve odasını nasıl toplıycağnı-
He messed his room up and he does not know how to tidy-
- 6 T: no. where is the bo:y ? ↑WHERE where is he:?
- 7 (0.2)
- 8 T: where is ↑he? (.) is he at schoo:l ? is he at ho::me ?
- 9 S2: ho:me.

The extract is initiated with a double choice question about the cover of the book. In a multilogue, T addresses the question to the whole class, and students give the reply in chorus in line 2 (bo:y ((in chorus))). In the follow-up turn, T reformulated the answer and expands the sequence with another question. After 0.2 second silence, S3 selects herself as the next speaker and starts to describe the picture, which is not the requested answer. In line 6, T gives an explicit negative evaluation and shows her disagreement. T tries to resolve the misunderstanding by repeating the original question twice. However, students do not still understand the question and a noticeable silence occurs. In the next line, T changes her elicitation techniques and offers the students two options, one of which is the correct answer. Finally, S2 chooses the correct option in a short turn, which proves that multiple choice questions can help teachers solve difficult communication breakdowns in classrooms.

4.5.2. In-Story Stage

Storytelling practices are teacher-dominated, and learner turns are not frequent. Therefore, the interactional troubles to be dealt with by the teachers are limited within the in-story stages. The representative extract is a good example for the teacher's information seeking question to increase the student engagement in the classroom.

Extract 21 ladybird 210222_001

1 T: ↑okay şimdi biz bu çocuğun odasını gördük ya (.) biz şimdi
2 bu çocuğun odasını (.) şimdi ben sizin anlatmanızı istiyorum
3 tek tek . sizin odalarınızda neler var acaba: ? ↑çok merak
4 ediyorum (.) evet beril: el kaldırdı:↑ >hemen Berili
5 dinleyelim < yes Beril ?

*Now we have seen this kid's room right. This kid's room. Now
I want you to talk one by one. What are the things in your
rooms? I am very curious. Yes Beril has raised her hand. Let's
listen to Beril now.*

6 S4: benim odamda yatağım v==

I have a bed in my-

7 T: ↑BE::D

8 S4: yatağım °va°r-

I have a bed

9 T: ↑be::d in English .

10 S4: be:d

11 T: hı hı:

12 S4: hem de uğur böcekli (.) sonra-

Besides with ladybird. Then-

13 T: yani uğur böceği. ↑What is uğur böceği: ?

You mean ladybird.

14 S4: odamın içi uğur böceği.

Inside my room ladybird .

15 S1: ↑ladybird .

16 T: ↑ladybi:rd ye:s

The teacher cuts off her storytelling and initiates a multi-class sequence by asking about students' own rooms to engage them more with the story. S4 takes the turn by raising her hand and starts describing her room in Turkish. In line 7, T interrupts the learner turn and

provides the L2 equivalent of the object in a high pitch. However, the student does not orient to the teacher's language choice and repeats her first utterance. Like form and accuracy contexts, T insists on the L2 use, which results in S4' s producing the word in English in the post-expansion sequence. After the minimal utterance in L2, the student maintains her speech in Turkish. Teacher interrupts the learner turn once more to elicit the translation of *ladybird* in line 13 (↑*What is uğur böceği*:?). S4 has a trouble in understanding the teacher's question and makes her explanation in Turkish. Without the need for teacher feedback, S1 self-initiates other repair and gives the correct response. The teacher displays her agreement through a confirmation token (↑*ladybi:rd ye:s*) at the end of the sequence. The extract makes it clear that in-story stages are more teacher-centered, and teachers give more importance to correct forms so that the learners can comprehend the story properly together with its target vocabulary and produce something related to the story in the post-story stage.

4.5.3. Post-Story Stage

In the post-story stages, students are expected to produce a story-related work by reviewing what they have read. Teachers also encourage students' language production reflecting their learning through stories. Therefore, teachers' repair practices mostly include reformulation and reconstruction of student utterances in L1. The first extract comes from a student's presentation of her drawing related to the story that they have read.

Extract 22 toys 210224_002

- 1 T: which one is your room? bu mu?
This one?
- 2 S2: er şey bu benim yatağı:m
Well it's my bed
- 3 T: ha it's you ↑*be:d*
- 4 S2:burda benim oyuncaklarım va:r yatağımın altında-
There are my toys under my bed
- 5 T:ney ne?

What what?

6 S2: yatağımın altında

Under my bed

7 T: ney yani in English

What in in English?

8 S2: er toys↑

9 T: ↑to:ys okay

Teacher starts the sequence by prompting the student to talk about her drawing with a question. S2 immediately begins to describe the objects in her drawing without producing the preferred second pair part of the adjacency pair in line 2. Teacher does not act on this misunderstanding and maintains the conversation by supplying implicit feedback to the student through L2 equivalent of the student's utterance. In line 4, S2 initiates another turn and continues her production, but she does not orient to the language choice determined by the teacher. This time, T prefers to interfere in the learner turn with a request for confirmation to get the student make her contribution in English. However, the student repeats her previous utterance assuming that the teacher wants to hear it again. In line 7, T resolves the interactional trouble and emphasizes her claim for L2 use. After a hesitation marker, S2 comes up with the expected word, which is also included in the story. That's why, T insists on the production in L2 to expose the students to the vocabulary they have learned during in-story stage, which encourages the students to use the story-related word in their speech.

The following extract represents a similar case in which the teacher reinforces the target vocabulary in learner turns.

Extract 23 What is this? 210224_004

1 T: what's in your be:d er sorry what's in your bedroom?

2 Mommy'ninki bitmiş miydi bu arada?

Was the mommy's done?

3 S3: hayır

no

4 T: hmm sorry oka:y

- 5 S3: bunlar dolabı: , bunlar kitapları:
These are her wardrobe, there are her books
- 6 T: ingilizcesini bildiklerini söyleyebilirsin bence bize↓
7 ↑boo:ks what is this? Ta-?
I think you can say the ones you know in English for us?
- 8 S3: table
- 9 T: what about this? Cha:?
- 10 S3: chair↓
- 11 T: and this I:s↑
12 (0.2)
13 T: be-
14 S3: °bed°
15 T: BE:D
16 S3: be:d
17 T: very goo:d well done thank you:

The sequence begins with the teacher's ritualistic question to start the learner presentation. Although T initiates the sequence in English, S3 produces her turn in the first language. Based on the objectives of the given task, students are required to make their language production in English. Hence, T interrupts the learner turn and requests for a self-repair by modelling the preferred use and providing a DIU to help the learner maintain her speech. The action of the teacher works for S3 and she completes the teacher's utterance for the expected word. In line 9, T continues with another DIU for another object in the student's drawing (what about this? Cha:?) which is followed by the student's correct response. In line 11, T attempts to elicit another answer from the student without producing the first syllable of the word. However, a noticeable silence occurs in the TRP (Transition Relevance Place) and the teacher utilizes from the same elicitation technique proven to be effective in the previous lines. S3 completes the word initiated by the teacher in a low pitch showing hesitation. In line 15, T indicates her agreement and repeats the student utterance with a noticeable rising intonation to make the student sure about her answer (BE : D). After

the teacher's acknowledgment, the student utters her answer once more with a rise in pitch. At the end of the sequence, T completes her turn by providing the student with positive evaluation in the post-expansion sequence. As is shown in the extract, T insists on the L2 production in the post-reading stages and uses different elicitation techniques to correct the student contribution.

Extract 24 İngilizcesi neydi? 210222_001

- 1 T: Eda: ?
- 2 S3:teacher↑ benim de ingilizce kitabım var↓ >annem bana okuyo
3 onları< ben de ingilizce öğreniyorum
- I have English books, too. My mother reads them to me. I learn English.*
- 4 T: aa: harika ya:
That's great
- 5 S2: benim de kitabım var onu söylemeyi unuttum ama adı da-
6 adı da: kitabım neydi ? er kitabın ingilizcesi neydi er
- I have a book too, I forgot to tell it but its name- its name what was my book? What was the book in English?*
- 7 T: ↑boo:k
- 8 S2: booktu
It was book
- 9 T: that's grea:t↑

The first three lines of the extract exemplifies a typical IRF structure in which the teacher nominates S3 for the next turn following up the student's answer, and finally the teacher provides her feedback. After sequence, in line 5, S2 self-initiates a turn by contributing to the discourse with her own experience related to the topic. During her turn, she also self-initiates other repair asking for the L2 translation of her utterance (er kitabın ingilizcesi neydi er). After the student's requirement of clarification in the first language, T provides her with the L2 equivalent with a rising intonation. S2 displays her previous knowledge by using the simple past tense as a sign of her recalling. T completes the student-initiated sequence with an acknowledgment token for S2's use of the requested

word. The extract demonstrates that the stories may encourage the students to say something with a purpose as well as be willing to display their knowledge acquired from reading activities.

The general repair organization of the story-based lessons have explicated the differences between the lesson stages. Based on the learner-centered and meaning-focused learning environment in the pre-story stages, the repair sequences were applied to co-construct and maintain the mutual understanding. Designedly-Incomplete-Utterances, reformulations, effective questioning techniques such as elaboration and multiple-choice questions were preferred as repair operation during these stages. On the other hand, teachers' story-telling practices were dominated by the teacher talk. To make sure that students were able to comprehend the story properly, teachers insisted on the correct forms aligning with their pedagogical agenda and provided explicit feedback. In a similar vein, repair practices in the post-story parts have clearly shown that teachers put emphasis on the correct uses of L2 utterances learned through the stories in the student's language productions. Within a task-oriented context, accuracy and use of the target language are given more importance than the meaning and fluency, which actually shape the repair operations of the teachers.

4.6. Conclusion

The findings of the study were presented in four main sections to describe the classroom discourse and interaction of the story-based lessons. In the first section, the stories read in the classrooms were analyzed along with the lesson plans designed based on the PYP curriculum. Within the dataset, three different stories were chosen appropriately for the main theme of the lesson plan, which was *Where we are in place and time*. Therefore, the content of the stories was related to the places and objects with which students were familiar. The activities prepared to enhance the students' comprehension of the reading texts were also explained so that the interactional organization could be interpreted within the context. The overall structure of the classroom discourse was described through the representative extracts taken from the recordings by explicating the institution-specific interactional properties such as sequence, turn taking and repair organizations (Drew & Heritage, 1992). The situated talk actions of the teachers and the students were analyzed line-by-line with a conversation-analytic approach to provide an emic perspective. The distinctive features of the context sensitive interactional organization were determined to understand the unique

discursive practices in the story-based lessons with young learners. The three main parts of the story-based approach were examined separately for each interactional resource to question the possible effects of different pedagogical focuses on the classroom interaction. In this sense, the classroom talks exemplifying sequential structures, turn taking practices and repair operations were illustrated through a subcategory classification including pre-story, in-story and post-story stages of the story-based lessons. The results of the study will be discussed based on the research questions from the perspective of the classroom interactional competence and finally some concluding remarks along with the implications will be presented in the following section.



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0. Introduction

This chapter will discuss the analytic findings of the study in relation to the research questions and present concluding remarks along with some implications for the field and suggestions for further research. The discussion section will be divided into two parts. In the first part, the study will be summarized, and the research questions of the study will be investigated in the light of the data analysis process based on the previous literature in the field. Through the post-analytic discussion, the results of the study will be reviewed considering relevant exogenous concepts and theories oriented by the participants throughout the classroom interaction. The second part will present the findings relating to each research question separately. Within this section, general features of the story-based lessons, the discursive practices in the interactional organization, the interactional accomplishments of the practices, the three main parts of the story-based lessons and the contents of the stories will be questioned. Student participation and teacher talk mentioned in the literature review chapter will be the main focus in explaining the discursive practices co-constructed by the teachers and students in the classroom discourse and interaction. The perspective of the classroom interactional competence will be discussed in the next section through the micro-analysis of classroom interaction with references to the previous literature. The last section will provide implications for using stories with young learners within an EFL context and micro-analytic classroom research. Finally, the study will be concluded with some suggestions for further studies and concluding remarks summarizing the present study.

5.1. Discussion

The discussion section includes three main parts consisting of the summary of the study, the evaluation of the research questions and the classroom interactional competence.

5.1.1. Summary of the Study

The present study investigates the unique discursive practices socially co-constructed by the teachers and the students in the story-based lessons with young learners within the framework of Classroom Research (Nunan, 2005). Within this aim, the interactional resources such as sequence organization, turn-taking and repair were explicated to describe the overall interactional architecture through naturally occurring data. The data was collected from two kindergarten classrooms in an IB school in Turkey. It involved 16 classroom hours which had been audio-recorded in the classrooms. 8 of the English classes of each classroom including social interaction in a natural classroom environment were recorded, and the field notes including the stories and the lesson plans were provided by the teachers. The data was analyzed based on the discourse-analytic perspective drawing on conversation analysis to have an emic understanding. The micro-analytic process provided significant aspects for the story-based classroom discourse and interaction in the goal-oriented institutional context.

The findings of the study were presented in relation to the research questions. In this sense, the stories and the lesson plans designed based on the PYP curriculum were examined in order to relate the participants' utterances to the pedagogical aims and contextual factors. The classroom discourse was examined through context-sensitive practices of sequence organization, turn-taking and repair within each part of the story-based lessons including pre-story, in-story and post-story stages. In detailed analysis, to explore the micro-details of the classroom interaction the Jefferson transcription convention was used, and the line-by-line micro-analysis of the representative extracts were provided. The results were described focusing on the participation framework (Evnitskaya& Berger, 2017; Scwab, 2011), learner initiatives (Waring, 2011) and the role of teacher talk from a variety of perspectives such as scaffolding and repetition (Kanagy, 1999); the impacts on learner participation (Walsh, 2002); construction and obstruction (İnceçay, 2010); the features used to maintain the interaction (Walsh, 2011; Sert, 2015); shaping learner contributions (Walsh& Li, 2013); and creating learning opportunities (Can Daşkın, 2015).

Based on this theoretical framework, the interrelationship between the pedagogical goals of the story-based lessons and corresponding interactional organization were characterized through the contextual cues in the classroom interaction. All in all, the findings of the research were discussed from the perspective of classroom interactional competence of the students and the teachers (Walsh, 2012) in relation to the story-based lessons.

5.1.2. Research Questions

This section addresses the research questions of the present study. The results are discussed with references to the findings and the related literature within the post-analytic procedure.

5.1.2.1. What are the general features of story-based lessons within the PYP curriculum framework?

The story-based lessons were designed by the teachers orienting to the general curriculum framework adopted in the school. The PYP curriculum had a major impact on the lessons, because all the activities and the materials were selected to serve the pedagogical agenda. The IB schools embark on a student-centered understanding. That's why, the main aim of the curriculum is to promote autonomous and open-minded learners. Within this sense, the lesson plan used in the recorded lessons was framed by the essential principles of the curriculum. The principles were mainly encouraging the students to inquire through transdisciplinary themes and conceptual understanding similar to the results obtained by McGuinness, Swartz & Sproule (2016).

The theme of the plan was *Where we are in place and time*. Based on the theme, the stories were selected and reading activities were designed to enhance the students' understanding of the main theme. The stories were *Clean Up, Clean Up!*, *Giant Joe* and *Moving House*. They consisted of the themes like cleaning a room, daily routines and moving a house respectively. The contents of the stories were expected to help the students develop an understanding of time and place. The familiar topics enabled the students to express their own ideas and experiences. As Li & Seedhouse (2010) claimed the stories gave the students a reason to speak and contribute to the classroom discourse in different stages of the lessons.

The teacher organized the lessons completely based on the selected stories and constructed the boundaries within the story-related social interaction or the activities. The lessons were divided into three stages and specific tasks were assigned to the students based on the

objectives of the stages. These stages were pre-story stage, in-story stage and post-story stage (Elley, 2000; Li& Seedhouse, 2010). Each stage had different tasks and requirements resulting in corresponding interactional organization, which will be discussed in the fourth research question. The pre-story stages included mainly guessing and sharing activities, in which the students were expected either to guess the title and the plot of the story or share their own experiences related to the topic. The in-story stages were dominated by the teachers who read the stories and determined the flow of interaction. The interactive story telling techniques were used by the teachers such as asking interesting questions, dramatizing, using gestures and changing voice to enhance student participation by drawing their attention to the story (Glassner, 2017). The post-story stages were task oriented. The students were asked to accomplish a task to increase the comprehension of the story.

In reviewing the literature, no data was found on the association between the story-based lessons and the PYP curriculum. However, the current study found that the PYP curriculum framework added thematic, student-centered, and interdisciplinary focus to the story-based lessons within the context. Therefore, the stories function as a tool for improving the students' personal improvement entirely. While reading the stories, teachers do not only focus on teaching the linguistic goals, but they also put an emphasis on the interdisciplinary topics, coherency with the main theme and personal growth of the students in terms of open-mindedness, self-efficiency, autonomy, inquiry and ability of self-expression. The general pedagogical framework of the story-based lessons orients to two different models for teaching literature. These teaching methods are *language model* and *personal growth model* (Carter& Long, 1994). To expose the students to the target language through new vocabulary and linguistic forms, the stories were used as authentic materials in the language model. On the other hand, teachers encouraged the students to share their ideas, feelings and real-life experiences related to the story by promoting their personal developments with a reference to the personal growth model. The context where the data was obtained from provided different benefits of using the stories in language classrooms combining two models for teaching literature. Although prior studies suggested that the language model would be the most effective one for young learners, the results of this study showed that the personal growth of students was also highlighted. Therefore, students' own reflections on the target theme were regarded as one of the significant objectives of the lesson plan.

To sum up, general features of the story-based lessons in the present study have demonstrated that PYP curriculum design and adopting different teaching models for literature have a significant impact on the general organization of the lessons. These context-shaped factors of the story-based lessons also affected the overall organization of classroom discourse and interaction, which will be discussed in the following section.

5.1.2.2. How do discursive practices performed by teachers and students construct story-based classroom discourse and interaction?

Discursive practices are context-oriented recurrent talk activities performed in a specific environment. The present study dealt with the discursive practices performed by the students and the teachers in the story-based lessons. The classroom discourse and interaction, which had certain characteristics as hypothesized previously, were co-shaped by the participants through these specific social activities.

The overall interactional organization was IRF exchange structure (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). This finding of the study supports previous research on the literary discussions conducted by Thoms (2012). However, there were varieties of sequences in different stages of the lessons in the current study. To illustrate, the sequences were initiated by the teachers with a question and the students provided a response to these utterances. The sequences were completed with follow-up turns through minimal or non-minimal post-expansion sequences by the teachers (Stivers, 2013). As is shown in the Extract 4, a typical IRF sequence was implemented by the teacher and the students.

T: she is carrying something. >What is it?< (.) it's an animal↓
what is it?

S5: ca:t

T: ↑ca:t she has got a ca:t I think.

The fact that the curriculum adopted by the school was student-centered, learner initiatives were welcomed, and interactional space was provided to the students so that they could have an opportunity to control the discourse. However, the general interactional architecture of the story-based lessons was dominated by the teachers' guidance through their effective questioning practices including display, open-ended and comprehension-check questions related to the stories. The teachers managed the classroom discourse by questions they asked

with a variety of purposes. Firstly, teachers benefitted from the questions to create interactional routines in the classroom discourse to enhance student participation through repetitive actions and utterances (Roh& Lee, 2018). This result seems to be consistent with Björk-Willen's research who asserted that ritualistic practices in classroom interaction enhance student participation although they have limited linguistic competence (2008). These repetitive talk activities had a crucial role in creating a context-sensitive classroom interactional organization and classroom discourse. They also encouraged the very young learners to feel more secure to participate when they were able to estimate what could come in the next turn. Watanabe (2017) also emphasized "the importance of recurrent interactional sequences meaningful in classrooms so that the learners can expand and explore ways to participate and engage in them differently every time" (p.289).

On the other hand, the recurrent interactional sequences found in the current study have not been previously described. In the dataset, the main interactional routines were guessing the title and the plot of the story, shaping learner contributions in the target language in the post-expansion sequences, sharing real-life experiences related to the story and presenting a post-reading work. All these interactional routines were dominated by question-and-answer sequences in dyadic teacher talks or multi-party classroom interaction. A possible explanation for this result may be the contextual factors shaped by the curriculum framework and story-based lessons.

The participation framework was also co-constructed by the participants based on the contextual factors and story-related activities. Guessing and sharing experiences practices occurred in engaging multi-party classroom environment, in which the teacher performed for all the students and the students had more interactional space to participate and control the discourse. These findings support the idea of *multilogue* suggested by Scwab (2011), which makes the classroom interactional setting more varied and complex. In the present study, these activities focused on meaning and fluency within the story-based context. Teachers used the stories to negotiate meaning and construct a story-based discourse through interaction (Mantero, 2002).

There were also ritualistic behaviors in the teachers' practices of shaping learner contributions to create learning opportunities and the students' performances in the post-story stages. Teachers created discursive practices in the dialogic sequences with the students to manage the second-pair parts through their interpretative, stimulating and meaningful

questions (Donato& Brooks, 2004; Ro, 2018). Effective elicitation techniques such as repeating, modifying, reformulation and elaboration were used by the teachers to facilitate the classroom interaction. The accuracy and use of L2 were prioritized in these practices, and learner initiatives were more controlled by the teachers. However, the students' contributions became more meaningful and coherent with the context then. The displays of epistemic access such as knowing and understanding were observed more in these sequences controlled by the teachers (Koole, 2010).

As hypothesized, constructive teacher talk had a significant role in constructing the discourse, through which the teachers controlled and made the boundaries of the classroom interaction. In this context, some of the theoretical tools used in classroom interaction including literacy events suggested by Bloome et al. (2005) were benefitted from during the story-based lessons. Teachers used story-based contextual cues, turn taking strategies, thematic coherence and emphasized the boundaries of classroom discourse through their recipient-designed talk (Pomerantz& Heritage, 2013). However, the context and the boundaries were shaped based on the pedagogical aims of the thematic curriculum, and the stories were used as tools to accomplish the pedagogical agenda. Therefore, the participants were encouraged to relate their utterances to the co-construct context (Huth, 2011) with the teachers' scaffolding. In this sense, while the meaningful contributions to discourse were promoted, unexpected and unrelated learner turns were considered as dispreferred actions (Duran& Sert, 2019).

Since the students were very young learners of English, they had some difficulties in orienting to the interactional routines and norms. In these cases, teachers initiated repair sequences to achieve intersubjectivity and support the students' both interactional and linguistic abilities. Specific and context-shaped repair practices were provided through different operations. In terms of repair, this study produced results which corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous studies that have examined the teachers' management of learner errors. Contingent on the students' problematic utterances, teachers applied a variety of techniques such as reformulating, repetition, modifying, code-switching (Gardner-Chloros, 2009), designedly incomplete utterances (Koshik, 2002), promoting self-discovery (Waring, 2015). For the topic management and maintaining the ongoing interaction, the participants co-constructed understanding. DIUs and multilingual resources were used more frequently to elicit the correct answers from the students. As also Sert (2015) stated students

only provided replies in L2 after these practices. Hence, effective elicitation techniques including epistemic and multilingual resources may have a crucial effect on the students' interactional competence.

In the classrooms, both L1 and L2 were used by the participants to enhance mutual understanding during interaction. As demonstrated in Extract 8, teacher and students engaged in *translanguaging* (Garcia, 2019b).

T: peki: sanırım burda bi drawer va:r↓

Okay I think there is a drawer here

S4: bu benim bedim , bu benim teddy bearım , burası da bed (.)

er: bu benim yatağım , bu da benim kitaplığım , bu da benim masam↓

Translanguaging is a term used to explain the speakers' orienting to both languages to express their ideas within a single turn. The extract has shown that the participants used their both languages to produce meaningful and context-relevant utterances (Dikilitaş& Mumford, 2019; Garcia, 2019). It can be claimed that; in the story-based classroom discourse, the content and meaning were emphasized more than form and accuracy only in L2.

Co-construction of story-based classroom discourse and interaction in the present study was explicated through the representative extracts in the previous section. The context-shaped discursive practices were performed by the students and the teacher along with the interactional routines and resources used in interaction. The overall architecture of the classroom interaction including sequence organization, turn taking and repair were structured based on the pedagogical objectives of the story-based lessons designed in accordance with the PYP curriculum framework.

5.1.2.3. What are the interactional accomplishments of the practices?

The discursive practices performed by the students and the teachers constructed the story-based lesson classroom discourse within the context. The specific factors in the goal-oriented institutional talk had corresponding interactional organization. These context-oriented, recurrent practices provided some interactional accomplishments for the classroom discourse.

To start with, teachers' story-related questioning practices had a significant effect on the course of interaction. The classroom discourse was mainly dominated by question and answer sequences, most of which were initiated by the teachers. Different questioning techniques were preferred based on the pedagogical focus to control the discourse and maintain the interaction. The activities of the stories conducted in a meaning and fluency context were performed through the teachers' open-ended and stimulating questions, which encouraged the students to share their ideas in relation to the story read in the lesson. These questions were addressed to the whole class, so student participation was stimulated in an engaging learning environment. Although most of the student utterances were in L1, teachers aimed at promoting autonomous learner initiatives by providing them a wider interactional space. The stories were proved to be effective materials to enhance student participation, because the stories gave the learners a purpose to express their ideas by exposing them to the target vocabulary at the same time. As also mentioned by Leal (2015), children's literature motivates the students to make interpretations, which provides a great variety of interactional sequences co-operated by teachers and students.

In the following parts of the classroom interaction, both of the teachers also needed to implement elicitation techniques to resolve communicative troubles in the turn-management of the allocated students. When a student had difficulty in finding an answer, the teachers elicited the expected contribution through DIUs, question practices and multilingual resources. The Extract 18 exemplifies that the teacher's incomplete utterance worked well, and the student provided the correct answer.

T: ti::↑

S3: ↑TITLE

T:ye:s this is the ↑title

To evaluate the students' comprehension of the stories, teachers asked different types of questions. When there was a problem in mutual understanding, they utilized another questioning practice to elicit the correct answer.

T: no. where is the bo:y ? ↑WHERE where is he:?

(0.2)

T: where is ↑he? (.) is he at schoo:l ? is he at ho::me ?

S2: ho:me.

Extract 20 shows that the teacher's effective use of questions maintained the interaction with the student.

In meaning-making processes, teachers also engaged in translanguaging to maximize the communication in terms of different interactional resources. Both languages were used by the teachers to control the discourse. Extract 24 explicates that the teacher maintained the interaction by giving the instruction in L1 and then with a DIU in the target language. Using multiple techniques enabled the participants to accomplish their sequence while discussing the story.

T: ingilizcesini bildiklerini söyleyebilirsiniz bence bize↓
↑boo:ks what is this? Ta-?

I think you can say the one you know in English for us?

S3: table

Throughout the story-based lessons, a variety of practices on shaping learner contributions were observed. Taking the learners' age into consideration, teachers mostly provided implicit corrective feedback to the students by modifying their utterances during the third turn of the IRF sequences. The learner contributions followed by the teachers' questions or initiated by the students themselves were shaped through modelling, scaffolding, reformulation and requesting for clarification. This also accords with the earlier observations of Seedhouse and Walsh (2010), which showed that these practices promoted the classroom interaction by raising the students' linguistic and interactional awareness in the target language without giving explicit evaluation on their contributions.

The interactional accomplishments of the story-based classroom discourse observed in this study mirror those of the previous studies that have examined the crucial effects of teachers' different practices of questions, elicitation, negotiation and shaping learner contributions. However, none of the studies have discussed these effects within the context of story-based lessons. In the current study, both the students and the teachers participated in these discursive practices and accomplished the interactional goals based on the pedagogical agenda.

5.1.2.4. Does classroom interaction differ in the stages of story-based lessons?

The story-based lessons consisted of three main parts. These were pre-story stage, in-story stage and post-story stage. Since the main teaching material was the story, the lessons were planned on the base of story-related activities appropriate for the students' age and language levels. After the stories were selected according to the thematic objectives of the curriculum, teachers designed three different activities for each stage. Seedhouse (2019) pointed out that a specific pedagogical focus results in coherent and corresponding interactional organization. In other words, certain institutional activities in classrooms require certain social actions to perform these activities. The present study also reached a similar conclusion by corresponding to the hypothesis, and each stage of the story-based lessons had context-shaped structural organization of classroom talk.

The pre-story stage mainly included warm-up activities, in which students were expected to talk about the story and share their own real-life activities. By evoking students' background knowledge including linguistic forms and related vocabulary, teachers prepared students for the following stage. In the pre-story stages, teachers always began with a recurrent interactional sequence by asking students to guess the title or what would happen in the story by describing the cover page. After the guessing activity, students were encouraged to share their own experiences in relation to the plot of the story. Throughout the activities, the participants were engaged in multi-party classroom environment, because the teachers addressed the questions to the whole class. Therefore, the overall participation framework was multilogue, and learner initiatives were frequent. Although the study had hypothesized that learner initiatives would be more frequent in the post-story stages, the findings showed that the pre-story stages created more engaging learning environments. The main pedagogical goal was to provide the students with an opportunity to engage them in multi-party interaction by expressing their opinions. That is to say, the focus was on communicating in a meaning and fluency context rather than correct forms. As Seedhouse (2004) emphasized, in meaning and fluency contexts, mutual understanding and negotiation were prioritized over form and accuracy, which caused the sequence organization to become more varied. The teacher interruptions during the learner turns were quite limited, and students had a larger interactional space to participate in the classroom interaction. Although learner contributions were mostly in L1, teachers did not act on the language choice of the students by putting the emphasis on introducing the new context for the story based on the

main theme regardless of the speaker's language. Teachers only dwelt on L2 use when they were presenting the target vocabulary utilizing the students' background knowledge in L2. The pedagogical focus had also distinctive features in repair practices. Due to the fact that main emphasis was on meaning and fluency, teachers initiated repair sequences to achieve intersubjectivity when there was a communication breakdown. The repair operations were also context-shaped and appropriate for the objectives of the activity. Teachers provided corrective feedback to students to enhance mutual understanding by negotiating and mostly in an implicit way. Without interrupting the natural flow of the interaction, teachers applied effective elicitation techniques, DIUs, and shaped the learners' contributions through reformulation, modifying and repetition.

T: yes now[↑] look at this cover look at this cover (.) [↑]WHAT do you see? h1? what do you see? mesela I see: a =

For example

SS: bear ((in chorus))

T: = a teddy bear here right? what else do you see? <raise your fingers> what [↑]ELSE do you see? yellow walls right ? yellow walls. hasan ?

S1: er: şey red blue pink

well

T: ha colors you can [see]

The Extract 3 exemplifies the multi-party and engaging classroom environment, in which the students participated in multiple ways. Teachers and the students co-constructed a meaning and fluency context in the first stage of the lesson.

The in-story stages, on the other hand, had a completely different interactional organization. The stage was teacher-centered, and the main practice was the teachers' storytelling activities. Consequently, teachers determined the overall sequential organization of these stages. Learner initiatives were mostly ignored and not welcomed by the teachers on the grounds that the story telling would be interrupted. The discursive boundaries were stricter in the in-story stages and the students' unexpected, or off-task talks were not reacted. The dyadic talk of the teachers including the students as the other party of the interaction was

only initiated when the teachers wanted to highlight a pedagogical focus in terms of target vocabulary or the thematic plot of the story.

S4: benim odamda yatağım v--

I have a bed in my-

T: ↑BE::D

S4: yatağım °va°r-

I have a bed

T: ↑be::d in English .

S4: be:d

As the Extract 21 illustrated, the teacher-initiated sequences in the in-story stages were structured as a dialogue and the turn taking principles of the classroom were applied. Unlike the pre-story stages, the students' L1 use was not preferred, and the teachers operated repair techniques to elicit L2 equivalent of the learner contribution similar to form and accuracy contexts.

The post story stages were designed as post-reading activities to strengthen their reading comprehension and promote student production based on their learning in the story. The activities consisted of comprehension-check questions followed by a story-related task appropriately designed for young learners. The participation framework was dominated by dialogic patterns performed by the teacher and the selected students. Turn taking norms were oriented by the participants and the teachers decided who would be the next speaker in the activity. To assess the students' understanding of the story, teachers allocated the turns to one student at a time and managed the student's turn according to the pedagogical agenda. Through questioning practices and elicitation techniques, teachers encouraged the students to use the target vocabulary obtained from the story in their speech in L2. In a task-oriented context, the sequences were mostly initiated by the procedural talk of the teachers and continued with the learner presentations. The main purpose of the post-story stage was to create learning opportunities for the students so that they could display their understanding and knowing of the story while expressing themselves to present their work. Therefore, the teachers and the students engaged in translanguaging practices. They used both languages to maximize the interactional organization so that the objectives such as mutual understanding, negotiation, using the target vocabulary and completing the task could be fulfilled. The

Extract 15 explicated the comprehension check practice of the teacher by making use of translanguaging.

T: what was the story about?

(0.2)

T: ne hakkındaydı story: ↑story ne hakkındaydı:?

What was the story about?

S5: a bo:y

T: ↑there was a BO:Y very good bravo emel. There was a bo:y
(.) er there was a messy roo:m bedroom↓a:nd <he cleaned up his
room<

S4: roo:m

There are similarities between the results expressed by Seedhouse (2004) and the present study in terms of the interrelationship of pedagogy and practice in different contexts. Nevertheless, no research has evaluated the context-sensitive factors of the story-based lesson stages that have a significant impact on the classroom interaction. The present study demonstrated that the different stages of the story-based lessons had suitable activities for the pedagogical objectives of the thematic curriculum. Consequently, each stage had corresponding interactional organization including context-specific sequence, turn taking and repair practices. It seems possible that these results are due to the variety of objectives that determined the pedagogical focus, based on which teachers and students co-shaped the different interactional contexts for each stage.

5.1.2.5. How do contents of stories affect classroom interaction?

In the lesson plan, three stories were selected based on the main theme. These stories were *Clean Up, Clean Up!*, *Giant Joe* and *Moving House*. The theme of the lesson plan was *Where we are in place and time*, so the content of the stories was related to the places and the activities that the students were familiar with.

Clean Up, Clean Up! was about a boy who cleans up his room step by step. With this story, students both remembered their existing vocabulary and learned some new words and language structures regarding the objects and the actions to be done for cleaning. Since the

topic was quite familiar for the students, it enhanced student participation especially in the pre-story stage. The story stimulated the students to talk about their own rooms and objects, because they were able to interface with their real-life experiences. The repetitive lines in the story enabled the students to remember the target vocabulary easily and they used the phrases in the following stages of the lesson.

T: ↑CLEAN UP CLEAN UP storysini hatırlayan var mı:?

Is there anybody who remembers clean up clean up story?

S3: clea:n up clea:n u:p

T: ↑clean up clean up , what was the story about:t?

S4: clea:n up clea:n u:p

In the Extract 15, it can be claimed that students displayed of their knowledge by using the repetitive phrase of the story several times.

Giant Joe was an audio-visual material, so teachers did not tell the story. Students watched and listened to the story, instead. The main activity designed for this story was drama. Students were expected to act out the main character of the story, who was a monster. The main character was talking about his daily routines, so teachers reminded students of the target phrases through body language in the pre-story stage. The audio-visual materials increased the student participation in the post-story stage because they comprehended the story easier by watching and listening to it. The drama activity worked well for the student engagement in the classroom interaction. While acting students also the target language more than the other stories' post-story stages, because their linguistic background had been reinforced through the video.

S1: I:: WASH MY FA:CE (monstrous voice)

T: I WASH MY FA::CE (.) giant joe: GIANT JOE: ((*laughter*))
a::nd↑ I:

S1: WASH MY hand (monstrous voice)

T: wash my ha:nd (.) ye:s sonra (.) >napıyodu< (.) I have=

Then what was he doing?

S1: °breakfast°

T: =break- [BREAKFA:ST]

S1: [BREAKFA:ST]

The Extract 10 proves that drama activities increase the student engagement and enhance their comprehension in L2 by creating an enjoyable learning environment. As Adomat (2012) claimed, using drama with young learners can be very effective in increasing their motivation. This study has revealed that drama activities also create more opportunities for learners' interactional competence when accompanied by stories.

Moving House was another picture book written for children. It is about a girl, who does not want to move to a new house. The vocabulary related to the objects of a house was familiar for the students. However, the topic was not appealing for the students who had not moved before in their lives. Since they couldn't share any real-life experiences, the same students were active in the classroom interaction. Young learners are in concrete-operational stage. Therefore, they have difficulty in imagining something they have not experienced before (Robeck, 1981).

S2: er: şe:y:::: ben ne söyleyiceğim (+) san: [<dal:::::ye::>]

Well what will I say cha[i::::r]

S3: [ne zaman derse
başlıycaz ?]

[When will we start to the lesson?]

The extract 19 represents that the students, who could not fully participated in conversation due to the lack of vocabulary, wanted to end the pre-story activity and move to storytelling, in which they could be more engaged.

In short, three stories with different contents had certain impacts on the classroom discourse and interaction. As mentioned in the literature review (Winch et al., 2004), familiar topics and vocabulary turned out to be more effective for student engagement in this research. The stories, which had distinctive phrases repeated, enabled the students to memorize and use them in their speech that increased L2 use in the classroom (Meringoff, 1980). Lastly, using drama and gestures in the story-based lessons facilitated student participation in L2 and enriched their comprehension skills. (Kelin, 2007). Although these results are consistent with the earlier findings in the literature, the possible effects of the stories on the classroom

discourse have not been previously described. The current study claims that story reading with very young learners is a socially-constructed process within the classroom interaction.

In this section, the research questions were discussed based on the data analysis conducted in the previous chapter. The following section will discuss the results from the perspective of classroom interactional competence (CIC) of the teachers and the students within the story-based classroom discourse.

5.1.3. Classroom Interactional Competence

Classroom interactional competence (CIC) is the ability of teachers and students to take an active role in co-constructing classroom discourse in a meaningful context in and through interaction (Walsh, 2012). A variety of features affecting the classroom interaction have been put forward in the literature. Markee (2008) suggested the following components: “Language as a formal system, semiotic systems, gaze and paralinguistic features” (p.406). Seedhouse and Walsh (2010) provided more specific features: “(a) maximizing interactional space; (b) shaping learner contributions (seeking clarification, scaffolding, modelling, or repairing learner input); (c) effective use of eliciting; (d) instructional idiolect (i.e. a teacher’s speech habits); and (e) interactional awareness” (Sert, 2015, p.54).

The present study presented a great variety of distinctive features as a sign for CIC described previously in the literature within the story-based classroom discourse. To start with, teachers provided the students with interactional space especially in the pre-story stages. Students were able to express themselves in self-selected and managed turns with little or no interruption by the teachers. The stories built a context and motivated them to speak and share their opinions.

S3:teacher↑ benim de ingilizce kitabım var↓ >annem bana okuyo onları< ben de ingilizce öğreniyorum

I have English books, too. My mother reads them to me. I learn English.

T: aa: harika ya:

That's great

S2: benim de kitabım var onu söylemeyi unuttum ama adı da-
adı da: kitabım neydi ? er kitabın ingilizcesi neydi er

I have a book too, I forgot to tell it but its name- its name what was my book? What was the book in English?

T: ↑boo:k

Extract 24 illustrates that students felt comfortable in initiating turns and controlling the discourse. The teacher oriented the students' turns and allowed them to manage their parts encouraging them to share their own experiences in the preparation stage to enhance their comprehension in the following stage.

Secondly, teachers used different practices to shape learner contributions to create learning opportunities for them. Primarily in the post-story stages, where the students were expected to present their products showing their comprehension, teachers managed the students' second pair parts by modifying, elaboration questions, repeating, translating, extending, and summarizing in the third turn (Can Daşkın, 2015) without interfering in the natural flow of interaction.

S2: to:y

T: ye:s there are to:ys

S2: (+) boy↓

T: ↑bo:y there is a bo:y

Extract 11 is an example of the teacher's practice of shaping learner contribution through extending the student's response within the interaction as an indicator of CIC.

The effective use of elicitation techniques by teachers had also a significant role in promoting classroom interactional competence of the participants in the classroom. Taking the learners' age and language level into consideration, students' turns in L2 were minimal. Therefore, teachers performed different practices to elicit the correct answers in the target language without creating an accuracy-focused learning environment. Designedly incomplete utterances (DIUs), providing options and multilingual resources were mostly used by teachers to maximize L2 use in the classrooms.

T: wash my ha:nd (.) ye:s sonra (.) >napıyodu< (.) I have=

Then what was he doing?

S1: °breakfast°

T: =break- [BREAKFA:ST]

S1: [BREAKFA:ST]

In the Extract 10, the teacher made use of both DIUs and codeswitching to elicit the expected answer while checking the student's comprehension of the story.

Teacher talk is another crucial factor in developing CIC in the language classrooms, because the overall sequential structure of the story-based lessons was dominated by question-and-answer sequences mostly controlled by teachers. Especially with young learners, teachers need to modify their language use according to language level of the students to enhance student participation and engagement. In the story-based lessons, teachers preferred recipient designed talk and used certain questioning practices along with multilingual resources to maximize learning opportunities for the young learners.

T: let's look at the pa:rt u:nder the story(.) there is a ca:r
there is a mo:nste:r there is grandpa >giant Joe< and there is
a ro:bot (.) ↑peki what is this story about?

well

S1:>giant joe<

T: GIANT JOE:: ↑ye:s there is- there isn't a monster right? Is
there a monster in the sto:ry?

S2: no

S3: no

As demonstrated in Extract 9, the teacher made use of both open-ended and display questions appropriate for the language level of the learners to maintain the classroom interaction based on the story in the target language. Although the learner contributions were short and minimal, the sequence was completed in L2.

All in all, the story-based lessons provided great opportunities to enhance classroom interactional competence of the participants through creating interactional space, effective use of elicitation, shaping learner contributions and constructive teacher talk. Even though these indicators of CIC have been examined in EFL contexts (Can Daşkın, 2015; Mondada, 2019; Sert, 2015; Walsh, 2002; Walsh, 2011), the opportunities they provided for an engaging classroom interaction have not been detected in story-based classroom discourse.

Since the stories created a context-shaped learning environment, all the talk activities were co-constructed based on these stories in the present study. The specific classroom discourse enhanced student participation through familiar and ritualistic discursive practices, which made significant contributions to the learners' interactional competences.

This study produced results which corroborate the conversation analytic findings of the classroom discourse studies. In accordance with the present research, previous studies have described a variety of interactional practices observed in EFL classrooms to unfold the classroom talk in different research contexts. However, the current study analyzed the interactional resources such as sequence organization (Stiver, 2013; Üstünel, 2014), repair (Kitzinger, 2013), turn taking (Clayman, 2013); multilingual resources (Sert& Durus, 2012); teachers' role (Stanulis& Manning, 2002); interactional routines (Watanabe, 2016) and participation framework (Morell, 2007; Schwab, 2011; Waring, 2011) within the story-based context. The importance of using children's literature in language classrooms has also been highlighted by illustrating the learning opportunities from the perspective of classroom interactional competence through the naturally occurring data obtained from the story-based lessons with young learners in an EFL setting in Turkey. This finding is in agreement with the studies which emphasized the potential of children's literature in language learning (Ghosn, 2002; Glassner, 2017) The interactional focus on story-based lessons was only dwelt on in Li and Seedhouse (2010)'s research with young learners. This study compared these lessons with language lessons and different styles of storytelling. On the other hand, the present research investigated the classroom discourse of story-based lessons designed in accordance with the PYP curriculum framework in all aspects including the interactional resources co-constructed in the different stages. In general, it can thus be suggested that the classroom discourse in story-based lessons has a great potential to explicate a variety of interactional phenomena when regarded as a socially distributed process, and therefore they provide certain opportunities to improve young learners' classroom interactional competences.

In this section, the findings of the study were discussed through the research questions of the present study, and they were reviewed in terms of classroom interactional competence of the teachers and the students. The following section will present the conclusion part of the study by providing implications for the field, suggestions for further studies and some concluding remarks.

5.2. Conclusion

In this subsection, the thesis will be concluded through implications, suggestions for further studies and concluding remarks. The implications will be provided by putting an emphasis on language teaching for young learners based on a thematic curriculum in Turkey, using children's literature in EFL settings and having an emic understanding in micro-analysis of classroom discourse. Also, there will be some suggestions for further studies by revisiting the implications of the present study. Finally, the thesis will be completed by providing some concluding remarks.

5.2.1. Implications

The thesis attempts to provide some implications especially for teaching English to young learners. Based on the analytic findings discussed in the previous sections, it has been indicated that story, one of the genres in children's literature, had a significant role in creating an engaging classroom environment for young learners by providing them with an authentic material. In the study, stories were not only considered as reading materials, but they were also regarded as effective interactive tools in language learning. The classroom discourse co-constructed by the participants was primarily shaped through stories by means of different story-related activities designed by the teachers. The story-based lessons had distinctive features in terms of interactional organization and created a great deal of opportunities for the students to improve their classroom interactional competences through a variety of sequences. On the other hand, the lesson design and selection of the stories were crucial factors affecting the classroom engagement. The familiar topics with the students and engaging classroom activities enhanced student participation in classroom interaction. A possible explanation for this result is that teacher highlighted the importance of students' interactional abilities, therefore the classroom activities were organized providing learners with interactional space, in which they could express their ideas in a comfortable classroom environment. Consequently, the research suggests that stories can be used effectively to improve learners' classroom interactional competence.

The PYP curriculum had also a great impact on the classroom discourse, because the teachers oriented to the pedagogical objectives of the curriculum. The effects of the main theme on the interaction were identifiable. As Markee and Kunitz (2015) suggested, naturally

occurring data obtained from the classrooms need to be used as a resource in the curriculum development. In other words, the process should be data-driven. That's why, the study documented the interactional outcomes of the PYP curriculum in the story-based lessons, and reached significant results regarding teaching English to young learners through stories in an interactive way.

Adopting an emic perspective classroom research can unveil what really goes in classrooms and build a bridge between pedagogy and interaction. The present study claims that the results obtained from the natural institutional talk can provide implications for teachers, education practitioners and policy makers to improve teaching and learning processes through micro-analysis of social practices occurring in classrooms within implementation of a lesson plan.

5.2.2. Suggestions for Further Research

The study aimed at investigating story-based classroom discourse within a micro-analytic framework. By unfolding the classroom interaction, the distinctive features of the interactional practices were described. The data was collected from two different classrooms in a private school in Turkey and the participants were comprised of 24 young learners and two teachers. Only 16 classroom hours were recorded and transcribed in this case study from the perspective of conversational analysis methodology, and specific practices were examined. Therefore, generalizability of the findings is limited to the research context.

Story-based classroom discourse and interaction can be analyzed in a longitudinal research project to be able to understand the interactional organization and its possible impacts on young learners' classroom interactional competence through a variable of resources (Mori, 2007). Long-term results can provide a broader perspective on the contributions of stories to the classroom interaction. In this context, the interactional developments of students can also be documented through their recorded performances over time.

Due to the ethical issues, the data was limited to audio recordings. Therefore, multimodal perspectives could not be discussed within the present study. Further studies conducted to document story-based classroom interaction can collect data via video recordings and provide multimodal transcriptions including multiple involvement of participants and embodied classroom instruction.

Finally, the current research was implemented in two different kindergarten classrooms. Hence, the participants of the study were not literate, and the lessons only consisted of speaking, listening and storytelling activities. It can be suggested for further research that young learners who are old enough to read and write with better language skills can reflect different aspects of story-based lessons. Interactional skills of learners who can read a story by themselves can be investigated along with multimodal resources. As a conclusion, selecting different contexts for story-based research with young learners can result in corresponding findings and implications in terms of interactional architecture of language classrooms.

5.2.3. Concluding Remarks

The present study was designed to analyze the classroom discourse of story-based lessons with young learners in an EFL context from the perspective of classroom interactional competence. For this purpose, 16 lessons were audio-recorded in two kindergarten classrooms in an IB school in Turkey. The recordings were transcribed based on the Jefferson Transcription Convention. Through a line-by-line micro-analysis of the transcriptions, the interactional organization of the story-based lessons were investigated by describing the sequence organization, turn taking and repair practices co-constructed by the students and the teachers. The discursive practices were explicated with the representative extracts taken from the dataset and analyzed within the context of the lesson stages, which were pre-story, in-story and post-story. In this vein, the possible impacts of the contextual factors such as the content of the stories and the lesson activities on the classroom discourse and interaction were examined from the perspective of classroom interactional competence of the participants.

The results of this classroom-centered investigation have shown the interrelationship between organization of interaction and pedagogical aims. In and through goal-oriented institutional talk, specific communicative actions and discursive practices were performed. Within the story-based discourse, theme-based lessons that emphasize learners' personal growth were planned by teachers based on the PYP curriculum framework. The most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that the interactional resources that structure general interactional architecture such as sequential organization, turn-taking procedures and repair practices were determined in accordance with the pedagogical principles of three main

stages of the story-based lessons. The micro-analytic process has revealed that the pre-story stage builds a meaning and fluency context, therefore, multi-party, multilingual and engaging classroom environment was co-constructed by the participants with more learner initiatives and repair practices that were only performed to maintain intersubjectivity. On the other hand, the in-story stage turned out to be teacher-dominated including the storytelling parts. L2 use was emphasized by teacher in this stage to expose the learners to the target vocabulary and language structures. Finally, according to the analytic findings, the post-story stage was task-oriented, and the sequential organization was dyadic between a selected student and a teacher. The repair practices were frequent to highlight the correct L2 use. This study has also found that translanguaging was used to maintain classroom interaction while emphasizing the target structures in the post-story stage. Another major finding was the importance of familiar topics of the stories. When learners had their own experiences about the topic, they seemed to be more engaged in the lessons. Also, the activities designed to apply story-based lessons emerged as significant factors to enhance student participation. The present study has demonstrated that drama is an effective technique to encourage learners to use the target language structures in their speech. Based on the results, three of the main hypotheses of the study were supported: the story-based lessons had certain characteristics in terms of classroom discourse and interaction, the content of the stories affected the participation framework, different stages of the lessons had corresponding discursive practices. However, self-initiated turns of students were more frequent in the pre-story stage rather than the post story stage as hypothesized.

The post-analytic findings of the study were discussed in terms of the properties of CIC including teacher talk activities for negotiation, elicitation, shaping learner contributions and enhancing student participation. These findings suggest that the story-based classroom discourse provide students and teachers with opportunities to take part in meaning-making process as an interactional accomplishment.

The research was unable to analyze multimodal or longitudinal variables. However, this is the first study investigating story-based classroom discourse by comparing the lessons stages in terms of three interactional resources from the perspective of CIC in an IB school. Taken together, the current study is believed to contribute to the field with its implications for teaching English to young learners, using children's literature in language teaching, classroom discourse and interaction of story-based lessons, and finally CIC.

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APPENDICES



APPENDIX 1: Jefferson Transcription Convention

TRANSCRIPTION

Jeffersonian Transcription Notation includes the following symbols:

Symbol	Name	Use
[text]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
. or ↓	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates falling pitch.
? or ↑	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates rising pitch.
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker.
<text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker.
°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or reduced volume speech.
ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or increased volume speech.
underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
(hhh)		Audible exhalation
? or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation
(text)	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.
((italic text))	Double Parentheses	Annotation of non-verbal activity.

Jeffersonian Transcription Notation is described in G. Jefferson, "Transcription Notation," in J. Atkinson and J. Heritage (eds), *Structures of Social Interaction*, New York: Cambridge University, 1984.

APPENDIX 2: Ethical Approval

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 08.02.2022-E.280398



**T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Etik Komisyonu**

Sayı : E-77082166-302.08.01-280398
Konu : Bilimsel ve Eğitim Amaçlı

08.02.2022

Sayın Doç. Dr. Semra SARAÇOĞLU
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Başkanlığı - Öğretim Üyesi

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı **Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi Eylem ATAY'ın, Doç.Dr.Semra SARAÇOĞLU'nun** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "**A Discourse Analysis of Story-Based Lessons with Young Learners in an EFL context from the Perspective of Classroom Interactional Competence**" adlı tez çalışması ile ilgili konu Komisyonumuzun **25.01.2022** tarih ve **02** sayılı toplantısında görüşülmüş olup,

İlgilinin çalışmasının, yapılması planlanan yerlerden izin alınması koşuluyla yapılmasında etik açıdan bir sakınca bulunmadığına oybirliği ile karar verilmiş ve karara ilişkin imza listesi ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

Araştırma Kod No: 2022 - 130

Prof. Dr. İsmail KARAKAYA
Komisyon Başkanı

Ek:1 Liste

DAĞITIM

Gereği:

Sayın Doç. Dr. Semra SARAÇOĞLU

Bilgi:

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne

Belge Doğrulama Kodu :BS9CVBBH4Z

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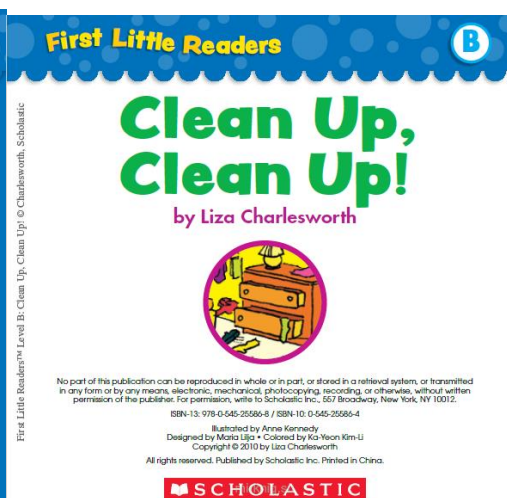
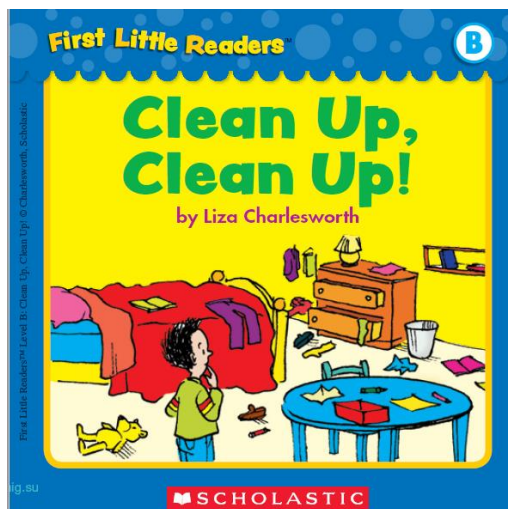
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APPENDIX 3: The Story of Clean Up, Clean Up!



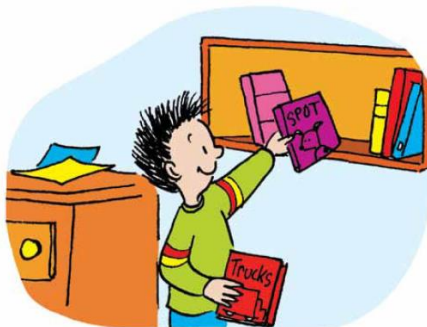
First Little Readers™ Level B: Clean Up, Clean Up! © Charlesworth, Scholastic



Clean up, clean up!
I put my crayons in the box.

2

First Little Readers™ Level B: Clean Up, Clean Up! © Charlesworth, Scholastic



Clean up, clean up!
I put my books on the shelf.

3

First Little Readers™ Level B: Clean Up, Clean Up! © Charlesworth, Scholastic



Clean up, clean up!
I put my clothes in the drawer.

4

First Little Readers™ Level B: Clean Up, Clean Up! © Charlesworth, Scholastic



Clean up, clean up!
I put my shoes in the closet.

5



Clean up, clean up!
I put my trash in the can.

6

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Clean up, clean up!
I put my bear on the bed.

7

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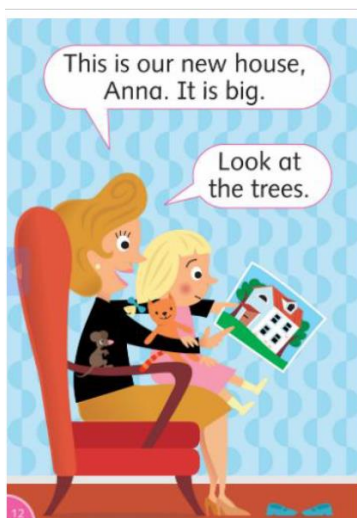
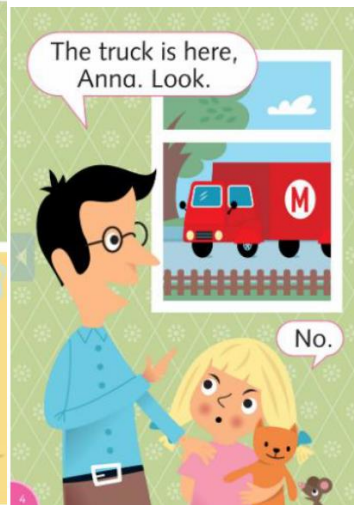
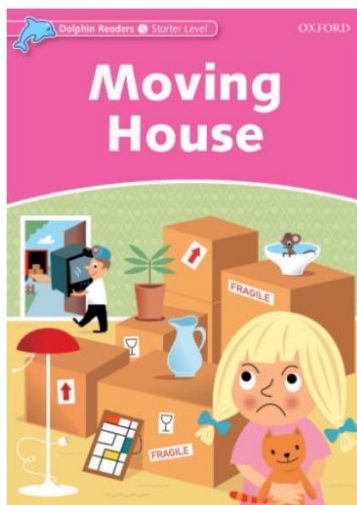
"Good work, good work!"
Daddy said.

8

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APPENDIX 4: The Story of Moving House



APPENDIX 5: The Story of Giant Joe

Listen to the story *Giant Joe*.

Circle what Grandpa's story is about. Stick the story sticker.



p. 45 Lesson 3 Story: Activity 1



00:00

< 10 of 12 >

Story CD2 Track 22

Picture 1

Narrator: Mimi and Dylan are going to stay with Grandma and Grandpa. They're excited.

Mimi: Oh, brilliant! I love Grandpa's stories!

Dylan: Me too!

Mimi: Hello, Grandma.

Dylan: Hello, Grandpa.

Mimi: Hello, Mimi. Hello, Dylan.

Grandpa & Grandma: Hello, Mimi. Hello, Dylan.

Grandpa: Come in. You're just in time to have dinner!

Picture 2

Narrator: The next morning Mimi and Dylan get up early and go to Grandma and Grandpa's bedroom.

Mimi: Good morning, Grandma.

Dylan: Good morning, Grandpa.

Grandma: Hello, Mimi.

Grandpa: Hello, Dylan. You get up early!

Mimi: Oh, dear. Sorry. Can we have a story please, Grandpa?

Dylan: Oh, yes! Can we have a story, please, Grandpa?

Grandpa: Oh, no. Not now. It's time to err... get dressed.

Mimi & Dylan: Oh alright.

Picture 3

Mimi: Look. We're ready. Can we have a story now, please, Grandpa?

Dylan: Oh, yes! Can we have a story now, please, Grandpa?

Grandpa: Oh, no. Not now. It's time to err... have breakfast.

Mimi & Dylan: Oh, alright.

Picture 4

Mimi: Mmm. Delicious breakfast. Thank you, Grandma.

Dylan: Can we have a story now, please, Grandpa?

Mimi: Oh, yes! Can we have a story now, please, Grandpa?

Grandpa: A story?! Mmm, alright. I'm Giant Joe and I'm hungry ...

Picture 5

Grandpa: I get up. I get dressed.

Mimi: Do you wash your face?

Grandpa: Yes, I do.

Dylan: Do you wash your hands?

Grandpa: Yes, I do. I wash my face and my hands. I brush my hair. And now ... it's time for breakfast!

Picture 6

Grandpa: Ha, ha! Got you! Mmm. Delicious breakfast. Yummy!

Mimi: Tee, hee, hee. It's time to brush your teeth now, Giant Joe!

Grandpa: Ha, ha, ha, ha. You're right, Mimi!

Mimi: Can we have the story again, please, Grandpa?

Dylan: Oh, yes! Can we have the story again, please, Grandpa?

Grandpa: Err umm ... no, not now. I'm tired.

Mimi: But Giant Joe isn't tired!

Grandpa: Oh, alright. Here I come!



GAZİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR...